

AN INVESTIGATION OF THE PERSONNEL
MANAGEMENT PRACTICES OF
LARGE SCALE DAIRY OPERATIONS

Thesis for the Degree of Ph. D.
MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY
FRANK W. ROCHE
1971



This is to certify that the

thesis entitled

AN INVESTIGATION OF THE PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT PRACTICES
OF LARGE SCALE DAIRY OPERATIONS

presented by

Frank W. Roche

has been accepted towards fulfillment
of the requirements for

Ph.D. degree in Dairy Science

Date November 12, 1971

0-7639



~~MAY 16 1973~~ 125
✓ DEC 3 1973 328

NOV 23 2000
092901

ABSTRACT

AN INVESTIGATION OF THE PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT PRACTICES OF LARGE SCALE DAIRY OPERATIONS

By

Frank W. Roche

The personnel management practices of 36 dairies were studied. These dairies were chosen from a total population of 399 dairies in the United States with 500 cows or more.

Ten functions of personnel management were identified and their practice was studied on each dairy farm. The observed practices were discussed in relation to current theory and practice of personnel management in the industrial sector. This served as a basis for drawing conclusions and making recommendations with regard to improving personnel management on large dairies.

The functions studied were manpower planning, maintaining personnel records, setting up the organization structure, hiring personnel, training and development, wage and salary administration, motivation and discipline, communications, health and safety and labor-relations.

The only functions to receive much attention from dairy owners and managers were hiring, training and development and wage and salary administration. Even with these functions active recruiting programs were absent, almost all dairymen expressed a need for organized training programs for dairy employees and many dairies lacked sufficient fringe benefits for their employees.

Manpower planning was not typically an integral part of the overall planning process. Personnel record keeping was regarded as a chore made necessary to meet legal and payroll requirements. Little attention was

and developing an
responsibility, centers
structure as means
renew motivation, wh
sionally, appeared ab
most between emplo
with and safety, of
affairs management
Management-union rela
United in California
possibility of increa
relations detrimental

Frank W. Roche

paid to developing an efficient organization structure and developing responsibility centers. Methods used to motivate employees were considered more as means of preventing dissatisfaction, rather than creating inherent motivation within the employees. The communications process generally appeared adequate, relying principally on individual daily contact between employees and their supervisors or owners/managers. The health and safety of employees appeared to be up to the individual himself with management playing predominantly a passive role of warning. Management-union relations appeared good on the six unionized dairies visited in California. Non-unionized dairies were concerned with the possibility of increased labor costs and changed employer-employee relations detrimental to the company resulting from unionization.

AN INVESTIG

AN INVESTIGATION OF THE PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT PRACTICES OF
LARGE SCALE DAIRY OPERATIONS

By

Frank W. Roche

A THESIS

Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Dairy Science

1971

The author wishes to
his counsel and under
graduate program.
Way for his constant
tolation of the study.

A sincere expression
over center for support
research project. The
center, Chairman of the
affairs for graduate

A special debt of
committee members
Dr. Bryan, Ph.D., E.
Business Administration

The author is espe
difficultness and under

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The author wishes to express his appreciation to John A. Speicher for his counsel and understanding during the study and throughout his entire graduate program. Appreciation is also extended to Allen E. Shapley for his constant encouragement and helpful suggestions in the formulation of the study.

A sincere expression of appreciation is extended to the Rural Manpower Center for supporting the author's graduate studies and funding his research project. The author is particularly grateful to Dr. C. A. Lassiter, Chairman of the Department of Dairy Science, for granting him facilities for graduate study and for serving on his committee.

A special debt of gratitude is felt for the cooperation of the other committee members: Larry Connor, Ph.D., Agricultural Economics; Stanley Bryan, Ph.D., Business Administration and Winston Oberg, Ph.D., Business Administration.

The author is especially grateful to his wife, Dympna, for her unselfishness and understanding throughout the course of this study.

CONTENTS

1	INTRODUCTION
	Objectives
	The Role of Personnel
	Personnel Management
	Personnel Administration
	The Functions of Personnel
2	METHODOLOGY
3	MANPOWER PLANNING
4	PERSONNEL RECORDS
5	ORGANIZATION
6	THE HIRING PROCESS
7	TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT
8	WAGES
9	MOTIVATION
10	COMMUNICATION
11	HEALTH AND SAFETY
12	LABOR RELATIONS
13	DAIRY EMPLOYMENT
14	SUMMARY
15	BIBLIOGRAPHY
16	APPENDIX A
17	APPENDIX B

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER		PAGE
I	INTRODUCTION.	1
	Objectives of the Study.	1
	The Role of Personnel Management	2
	Personnel Management in Agriculture.	5
	Personnel Management in Dairying	8
	The Functions of Personnel Management.	12
II	METHODOLOGY	15
III	MANPOWER PLANNING	26
IV	PERSONNEL RECORDS	41
V	ORGANIZATION.	53
VI	THE HIRING PROCESS.	71
VII	TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT.	89
VIII	WAGES	104
IX	MOTIVATION AND DISCIPLINE	123
X	COMMUNICATIONS.	142
XI	HEALTH AND SAFETY	158
XII	LABOR RELATIONS	172
XIII	DAIRY EMPLOYEES	188
XIV	SUMMARY	197
	BIBLIOGRAPHY.	204
	APPENDIX A.	211
	APPENDIX B.	214

22

NUMBER OF
BY CHAIRMAN

2 SOURCES OF
HELPING CH

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE		PAGE
1	NUMBER OF DAIRY HERDS WITH 500 COWS OR MORE BY DAIRYING REGION AND IN THE SAMPLE	19
2	SOURCES OF INFORMATION FOUND MOST EFFECTIVE IN HELPING DAIRY FARMERS SOLVE THEIR LABOR PROBLEMS	35

THE

ORGANIZATION OF
STRUCTURE FOR
REMS

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE		PAGE
1	ORGANIZATION CHARTS SHOWING TYPES OF ORGANIZATION STRUCTURE FOR THE SAMPLE OF LARGE SCALE DAIRY FARMS	65

THE

NUMBER OF DATA
WIDE BY STATE

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

LIST OF APPENDIX TABLES

TABLE	PAGE
A	NUMBER OF DAIRIES HAVING 500 COWS OR MORE BY STATE AND IN THE SAMPLE 210
B	THE QUESTIONNAIRE 214

The subject matter
ness of a distinct
quires pertaining to
1st. The author is
ties of large scale
research is, theref
quires for large sc

REVIEW OF STUDY

Though having an o
specific as to the ind
data follows:

1. Establish the
presently per
2. Appraise each
performing t
3. Provide some
function (on
operation to
4. Make use of
recognized
be better p
5. Develop hyp
large dairy
tested.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The subject matter of this thesis is developed from the author's awareness of a distinct lack of personnel management principles and guidelines pertaining to agriculture, especially to large scale dairy farms. The author is particularly interested in and aware of the problems of large scale dairy farms. The overall goal or purpose of this research is, therefore, to develop effective personnel management guidelines for large scale dairy operations.

OBJECTIVES OF STUDY

Though having an overall goal in mind, it is necessary to be more specific as to the individual objectives of the study. These could be cited as follows:

1. Establish the functions of personnel management that are presently performed on large dairy operations.
2. Appraise each function and its practices (i.e. means of performing the function).
3. Provide some measure of the effectiveness with which each function (or the overall program) is performed in guiding the operation to the achievement of its goals.
4. Make use of the concepts of personnel administration generally recognized in business to recommend how the functions might be better performed on large dairy operations.
5. Develop hypotheses with regard to personnel management on large dairy operations, which could later be empirically tested.

TYPE OF PERSONNEL

Personnel management
and business management
personnel department
applies to terms used
object can go under
Personnel Management
there is no distinction
employment relations
but the term will
employment relations.

Personnel management and
have pointed out
Personnel management
of the twentieth century
primary emphasis on
overall corporate management.
Finance, Personnel,
Marketing and Sales
relations.

The next phase
to become the vogue
activities. The year
characterized by re
and primarily w

THE ROLE OF PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT

Personnel management is generally recognized as an important part of business management and almost all large business firms have separate personnel departments. Some confusion appears to exist as regards to terms used when referring to the management of people. This subject can go under a variety of headings eg. Manpower Management, Personnel Management and Human Relations, but for purposes of this thesis no distinction will be made among these three. Sometimes the term labor relations is also used as synonymous with personnel management, but the term will be reserved in this text to refer to management-union relations.

Huneryager and Heckman (1967)¹ and many other authors of personnel texts have pointed out some of the phases that the human relations or personnel management movement has gone through. The first decade of the twentieth century was a pioneering stage for management with primary emphasis on developing systems and procedures for improving overall corporate efficiency. Little attention was paid to personnel management. Finance and investment were the focus of attention and paternalism and "welfare management" were the approaches to personnel problems.

The next phase could be termed the "engineering phase". Specialization became the vogue. Little distinction was made between men and machines. The years 1910-1940, including both world wars, were characterized by rapid technical innovations and management was concerned primarily with costs, production processes and new product.

¹Huneryager, S. G., and Heckmann, I. L., 1967, Human Relations in Management. South-Western Publishing Company, Cincinnati, Ohio, pp. 811-816.

agement. The num-
ing by this time is
spring to establish
being directed a
It was not until
embosomed out of
major function of
giving impetus over
playing a vital r
Environment.

CONCLUSION

What appears to
ation is given by
personnel admin-
times of business
adjustments betw
and this is accom-
ected to the sit-
employers and
services".

The size of a
far adequate per-
be large and small
between members of

development. The human side of enterprise was still being neglected, though by this time some of the more progressive companies were beginning to establish personnel departments and some research efforts were being directed along these lines.

It was not until the middle 1940's that the human relations movement blossomed out into full force and the personnel function became a major function of company organization. This movement has been gaining impetus over the past 20 years. The behavioral sciences are now playing a vital role in their association with the business environment.

DEFINITION

What appears to be a good general definition of personnel administration is given by Waite (1952)². He states: "It is the function of personnel administration to organize the utilization of the human resources of business and industry in such a way that the frictions and maladjustments between individuals will be minimized. The means by which this is accomplished are many and varied, but they are all directed to the single end of improving the relationships between labor and employers and thereby facilitating the production of goods and services".

The size of a business unit has little to do with the importance of an adequate personnel program. The principal difference between the large and small organization is the degree of subdivision of duties between members of the personnel staff (Waite, 1952)³.

²Waite, William W., 1952, Personnel Administration. The Ronald Press Company, New York, p. 14.

³Ibid., p. 14.

the universalistic
values, regardless
organization is engaged
1961, Yoder, Hene
Huss and Sayles

personnel administration
exclusive nature of
supervisors at all
Personnel work in
fraction per se -
Yoder and (1963)

Although a
the principles
not oriented
of people and
themselves

4 Op. C.

5 Yoder
C., 1963.
Bill Book

6 Yoder
Prentice

7 S.
The High
Cliffs.

8
McGraw.

Prac
Comm

The universality of personnel administration, i.e. that it is required, regardless of the size or field of activity in which an organization is engaged, has been pointed out by several authors; Waite (1952)⁴, Yoder, Heneman, Turnbull and Stone (1958)⁵, Yoder (1962)⁶, Strauss and Sayles (1963)⁷ and Flippo (1966)⁸. Another feature of personnel administration that is stressed in many of these books is the pervasive nature of personnel management, i.e. that all managers and supervisors at all levels in an organization are responsible for personnel work in their own respective areas, even though the personnel function per se may be centered in a staff department, Flippo (1966)⁹, McFarland (1968)¹⁰.

Although almost all the personnel management texts have stressed the principles involved in personnel management, they have been somewhat oriented toward the large organizations employing, perhaps, thousands of people and where the various functions of personnel management have themselves been split into various sub-departments or sections. The

⁴Op. Cit., p. 15.

⁵Yoder, Dale, Heneman, H. G., Turnbull, John B., and Stone, Harold C., 1958, Handbook of Personnel Management and Labor Relations. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, p. 1-3.

⁶Yoder, Dale, 1962, Personnel Management and Industrial Relations. Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, p. 7.

⁷Strauss, George and Sayles, Leonard R., 1963, Personnel -- The Human Problems of Management. Prentice Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, p. vi.

⁸Flippo, Edwin B., 1966, Principles of Personnel Management. McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, pp. 2-7.

⁹Ibid., p. 7.

¹⁰McFarland, Dalton E., 1968, Personnel Management, Theory and Practice. The Macmillan Company, New York, and the Collier-Macmillan Company Limited, London.

personality of person
there is very little
one small firm.
published some 20
re stress the importance
business. Broom and
study by Baker (1955)
number of employees
employees. The results
few personnel functions
firms are mentioned
in largest firms and
classified as small

PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT

There has been
exposed to business
aspect of management
of people is concerned
mentioned with respect
case". This paucity

11. Small Business
for Small Business.
10. 26, pp. 1-4.

12. Broom, H. W.
Management. South-

13. Baker, Alton
Bureau of Business
The Ohio State Univ

universality of personnel administration was mentioned previously. There is very little published material, however, specifically relating to the small firm. The "Small Business Administration" (1961)¹¹ has published some personnel guidelines for small businesses in which they stress the importance and the role of this function in a small business. Broom and Longenecker (1966)¹² also point this out. In a study by Baker (1955)¹³ firms were divided into various size categories by number of employees -- the smallest category being less than 25 employees. The results generally showed that the smaller the firm the fewer personnel functions were performed. The reason these smaller firms are mentioned is that from a standpoint of people employed even our largest farms employing, perhaps, up to 100 people, would still be classified as small businesses in terms of industry.

PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT IN AGRICULTURE

There has been little evidence to show that farm management as opposed to business management has recognized the human relations aspect of management. It would appear that as far as the management of people is concerned that farmers are still in phase two that was mentioned with respect to development in industry, i.e. the "engineering phase". This paucity of research on the human side of farm labor was

¹¹Small Business Administration, 1961, Personnel Management Guides for Small Business. Small Business Administration, Management Series No. 26, pp. 1-4.

¹²Broom, H. N., and Longenecker, J. G., 1961, Small Business Management. South-Western Publishing Company, Cincinnati, pp. 529-532.

¹³Baker, Alton W., 1955, Personnel Management in Small Plants. Bureau of Business Research, College of Commerce and Administration, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

expressed by Maurio
Agricultural Econ
1971.

Most of the
character to last
throughout the s
Herrell Degraff
Ford (1949)¹⁵, =
Black, Clawson,
Castle and Beck
Degraff an
study to agricu

¹⁴ Degraff
Farming. Horn

¹⁵ Boss, A
Principles and
St. Paul, pp.

¹⁶ Woods,
C. B. Lippinc
pp. 109-174.

¹⁷ Effers
Wiley and Son
p. 138.

¹⁸ Black
Walter W., 1
pp. 543-573.

¹⁹ Hooki
The Iowa Sta

²⁰ Castl
Management.
Limited, Lon

²¹ Brad
Management

stressed by Maurice Voland in a paper presented to the American Agricultural Economics Association in Columbia, Missouri, in August, 1970.

Most of the farm management texts, though they do devote at least a chapter to labor, focus on labor utilization, scheduling labor throughout the seasons of the year and on labor efficiency in production, Herrell Degraff and Ladd Haystead (1948)¹⁴, Andrew Boss and George A. Pond (1949)¹⁵, Robertson Woods (1951)¹⁶, J. Norman Efferson (1949)¹⁷, Black, Clawson, Sayre, Wilcox (1951)¹⁸, Hopkins and Heady (1953)¹⁹, Castle and Becker (1967)²⁰, Bradford and Johnson (1967)²¹.

Degraff and Haystead discussed the application of time and motion study to agriculture and job simplification. Boss and Pond in their

¹⁴Degraff, Herrell and Ladd, Haystead, 1948, The Business of Farming. Norman: University Press, pp. 109-170.

¹⁵Boss, Andrew and Pond, George A., 1949, Modern Farm Management Principles and Practices. Ithaca Press, the Webb Publishing Company, St. Paul, pp. 268-275.

¹⁶Woods, Robertson, 1951, Farm Business Management Revised. J. B. Lippincott Company, Chicago, Philadelphia and New York, pp. 109-174.

¹⁷Efferson, J. Norman, 1949, Farm Records and Accounts. John Wiley and Sons, Inc., New York and Chapman and Hall Limited, London, p. 138.

¹⁸Black, John D., Clawson, Marion, Sayre, Charles R., and Wilcox, Walter W., 1951, Farm Management. The Macmillan Company, New York, pp. 543-578.

¹⁹Hopkins, John A., and Heady, Earl O., 1953, Farm Records. The Iowa State College Press, Ames, Iowa, p. 199.

²⁰Castle, Emery N., and Becker, Manning H., 1962, Farm Business Management. The Macmillan Company, New York, and Collier-Macmillan Limited, London, pp. 309-329.

²¹Bradford, Lawrence A., and Johnson, Glenn L., 1967, Farm Management Analysis. John Wiley and Sons, Inc., New York, pp. 284-314.

paper entitled, "The
general traits needed
for work. Woods
by his employer in the
industry. He also
shows taking into con-
siderance of good in-
terest of the estab-
lishment discuss the diffi-
culty of farm work. He
states that farm work is
not a line, agricul-
tural skills. Agricul-
turalization by task
mentioned, they dis-
cuss, in the prog-
ram working conditions
stressed and although
not spelled out, there
is a section devoted to
the farms where a num-
ber of relations be-
tween industry. Castle and
successful techniques
in programs is neg-
lected. A great number of
in the U.S.D.A. and the
photography of studies

chapter entitled, "The Human Factor in Farm Operations", discuss the personal traits needed by the farmer to succeed and also the necessity of team work. Woods points out that the treatment of the hired worker by his employer influences the amount of work that the employee will accomplish. He also stresses the need for individual treatment of workers taking into consideration their various capabilities. The importance of good living conditions for workers is mentioned and also the difficulty of establishing satisfactory incentive programs. Black, et al discuss the difference between farm work and factory work. They say that farm work is less repetitive and since materials do not come in on a line, agricultural workers have to be much more flexible in their skills. Agriculture, they say, does not lend itself so well to specialization by tasks. Though specific programs for personnel are not mentioned, they do say that "the usual hired worker is interested in wages, in the progress which he is able to make, in security and in working conditions." The need for good management of labor is stressed and although policies and programs for labor management are not spelled out, there is some recognition of the need for them. In a section devoted to employer-employee relations they point out that on farms where a number of hired workers are employed, that employee-employer relations begin to take on the same general character as in industry. Castle and Becker give some pointers or guidelines to successful techniques for managing labor, but again the area of policies and programs is neglected.

A great number of macro studies of labor have been carried out by the U.S.D.A. and the U.S. Department of Labor. An annotated bibliography of studies pertaining to rural manpower was compiled

Harvey and Holmboe
and labor in ag
ment of these fac
working conditio
ing these studies
fact industry. The
factors of personne
could certain to the
will be brought out
a that topic.

In recent years
we begun to focus
personnel manage
exists in this an

PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT

In a study
After (1957)²⁴
personnel manage

22 Harvey,
Annotated B-
d. 5, August,

23 Hall, Ca
in Agriculture
1955, Michigan

24 Fuller,
Organizations.
Michigan State

25 Given,
Relations on C
Michigan State

by Harvey and Holmquist (1968)²². Another bibliography on mechanization and labor in agriculture was prepared by Hall (1968)²³. A large portion of these macro studies pertain to the use of migrant workers and working conditions and housing for the migrant worker. Prominent among these studies is the productivity of migrant workers in the fruit industry. There has been a lack of attention to the individual functions of personnel management. Where there is some discussion that would pertain to the present study of large scale dairy operations, it will be brought out in the particular chapter of the thesis pertaining to that topic.

In recent years some farm management students and researchers have begun to focus a little more on what is actually involved in personnel management on farms. Much of the limited literature that exists in this area is as unpublished occasional papers.

PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT IN DAIRYING

In a study on some labor efficient dairy farm organizations, Varden Fuller (1957)²⁴ discussed and suggested some policies pertaining to personnel management on the dairy farm. Given and Hundley (1966)²⁵

²²Harvey, Jack L., and Holmquist, Garth, 1968, Rural Manpower: An Annotated Bibliography. Rural Manpower Center, Special Paper No. 5, August, 1968, Michigan State University, East Lansing.

²³Hall, Carl W., 1968, Bibliography on Mechanization and Labor in Agriculture. Rural Manpower Center, Special Paper No. 6, September, 1968, Michigan State University, East Lansing.

²⁴Fuller, Varden I., 1957, Some Labor Efficient Dairy Farm Organizations. Ag. Econ. No. 690, Department of Agricultural Economics, Michigan State University, East Lansing.

²⁵Given, Charles W., and Hundley, James R., Jr., 1966, Human Relations on Dairy Farms. Rural Manpower Center No. 2, November, 1966, Michigan State University, East Lansing, pp. 25-31.

posed human relations
the fact that dis-
patri industrial con-
spheres and program
Labor and Labor
they (1) described the
firms, (2) determine
ent, training, succe-
incentives and (3) in-
labor efficiency.

are some of the in-
they relate to dis-
training manual for
used by extension a-
personnel management
ment fairly com-
agriculture is a f-
South Carolina) of
Robert S. Boal (1971)

The scarcity

26. Anderson
and Labor Manag-
economics, 1971

27. Shapley
Instructor's
February, 1971

28. Boal,
Four State C
Georgia, Nor

studied human relations on dairy farms in Michigan and clearly brought out the fact that dairy farmers in Michigan were a long way behind their industrial counterparts in establishing satisfactory personnel policies and programs. Anderson and Greene (1969)²⁶ studied the "Use of Labor and Labor Management Practices on Florida Dairy Farms". They (1) described the labor force and organization on Florida dairy farms, (2) determined management practices with respect to recruitment, training, supervision, payment of fringe benefits and other incentives and (3) related organization and management practices to labor efficiency. This would appear to be one of the first studies where some of the individual personnel functions have been spelled out as they relate to dairy farms. Allen Shapley (1970)²⁷ developed a training manual for personnel management in agriculture which is being used by extension agents in Michigan to help improve the quality of personnel management on farms (dairy farms in particular). The most recent fairly comprehensive treatment of personnel management in agriculture is a four state study (Florida, Georgia, North Carolina and South Carolina) on Improving Employee Performance and is edited by Robert S. Boal (1970)²⁸.

The scarcity of application and the absence in the literature of

²⁶Anderson, Charles L., and Greene, R. E. L., 1969, Use of Labor and Labor Management Practices on Florida Dairy Farms. Agricultural Economics, Mimeo Report EC 69-12, Gainesville, Florida.

²⁷Shapley, Allen E., 1970, Personnel Management in Agriculture: Instructor's Manual. Rural Manpower Center Special Paper No. 12, February, 1970, Michigan State University, East Lansing.

²⁸Boal, Robert S., 1970, Ed., Improving Employee Performance. The Four State Committee on Cooperative Research and Education, Florida, Georgia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Four State Publication 1.

animal management
due to the small size
the most part been
the large farms in the
western part of the
employees were hired
gangs. Each gang
finishes men, (Black,
experience in manage
to improve this situ
Education, University
manual to be used
farm labor".

The present situation
where the use of labor
small farms were the
most of the labor
are rapidly expanding
decreasing (Agriculture
Due to the increase
emigration in numbers
increasingly important

23 Op. Cit.

30 Department
Davis, 1965, Training
Instructors.

31 Agriculture, National

personnel management principles pertaining to farms has been undoubtedly due to the small size of the majority of farms. These farms have for the most part been family operated and use few, if any, hired laborers. The large farms in the past were the cotton and fruit farms in the southern part of the U.S. On these farms where large numbers of seasonal employees were hired, the labor was typically organized in work crews or gangs. Each gang had a boss who was responsible for the management of his men, (Black, et al 1951)²⁹. These gang bosses relied on their experience in management of people to get the job done. An effort to improve this situation was made by the Department of Agricultural Education, University of California, Davis (1965)³⁰ when they developed a manual to be used by trained personnel on, "Training Supervisors of Farm Labor".

The present study, however, concerns large dairy operations, where the use of labor crews is not really applicable. In the past dairy farms were typically organized in small family units, with all or most of the labor input coming from the family. But dairy herds are rapidly expanding in size while the number of dairy farms is decreasing (Agricultural Statistics, 1970)³¹.

Due to the increasing size of the farm firm and its associated expansion in number of employees, personnel management will play an increasingly important role in overall farm management.

²⁹Op. Cit., p. 5.

³⁰Department of Agricultural Education, University of California, Davis, 1965, Training Supervisors of Farm Labor, A Guide for Instructors.

³¹Agricultural Statistics, 1970, United States Department of Agriculture, Washington, p. 362.

Michigan Agriculture
Michigan are also
1981³³ show an ex-
tend, while the number
farms in Michigan with
as anticipated in the
the needs and problems
present research studies

LARGE SCALE DAIRIES

"Large", for a
having 500 or more
basis of this defini-
at about this size
are no longer per-
Stanton (1965)³⁴ w-
that by choosing E-
for farms employ-
at personnel mana-
finding them per-
manager is concern

³²Michigan
Agriculture, La

³³Project
Farm Science, I

³⁴Hughes,
Entrepreneuria
Department of
Ithaca, New York

Michigan Agricultural Statistics (1971)³² show that dairy herds in Michigan are also expanding in size. Projections made in Project 80 (1964)³³ show an expected continued increase in the average size of herd, while the number of herds will decrease. Presently there are five herds in Michigan with 400 or more cows, but more herds of this size are anticipated in the future. It would be well to be prepared to serve the needs and problems of these large scale dairy operations. The present research study is an effort in this direction.

LARGE SCALE DAIRIES

"Large", for purposes of this study, has been defined as herds having 500 or more cows that are operated as a single unit. The basis of this definition is a consensus among dairy specialists that at about this size the owner or manager becomes a full-time manager and no longer performs daily chores. A New York study by Hughes and Stanton (1965)³⁴ would seem to support this consensus. It was thought that by choosing 500 cows as a base number that we would be dealing with farms employing from 10 to 100 hired personnel and that if looking at personnel management practices, there would be a better chance of finding them performed on farms of this size. On a small dairy, the manager is concerned primarily with the management of his cows, but on

³²Michigan Agricultural Statistics, 1971, Michigan Department of Agriculture, Lansing, Michigan, p. 31.

³³Project 80, 1964, The Dairy Industry. Research Report 45, Farm Science, Michigan State University, East Lansing, pp. 4-5.

³⁴Hughes, Earl M., Jr., and Stanton, B. F., 1965, Time Spent on Entrepreneurial and Related Activities (44 New York Dairy Farms 1964-65) Department of Agricultural Economics, A. E. Res. 187, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York, pp. 12-17.

these large dairies
ows. This manager
agement.

Realizing the
angers of these
ersonnel management
these large operations
ordered with more
the highly qualified
that this study assess
agement as provided

RELATIONS OF PERSONNEL

It now becomes
of personnel management
might be given
directing and controlling
these operative functions
development, compensation
of an organization
a good idea of some
all of the personnel
into its component

these large dairies the manager is now managing people rather than cows. This manager is concerned, or certainly should be, with personnel management.

Realizing the importance of personnel management to the owners or managers of these large dairy farms, this research is directed towards personnel management as it applies to large scale dairy operations. These large operations would have more people employed, possibly be concerned with more functions of personnel management and possibly have more highly qualified and skilled managers. Again, it is emphasized that this study assumes the universality of the functions of personnel management as previously pointed out.

THE FUNCTIONS OF PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT

It now becomes necessary to establish what indeed are the functions of personnel management. Another definition of personnel management which might be given at this time is that it is the planning, organizing, directing and controlling of the operative functions of personnel. These operative functions can be specified as the procurement, development, compensation, integration and maintenance of the personnel of an organization, Flipppo (1966)³⁵. This definition already gives a good idea of some of the details of the personnel function. Almost all of the personnel management texts break down the personnel function into its component parts or sub-functions. From a review of these

³⁵Op. Cit., p. 14.

ness; Filippo (1966)
1969³⁹, Strauss and
personal functions
all of the following
identified here as
major function by s
these functions has
this research, it is
heard that it does
by a personnel depart
functions was ident

1. Planning -
2. Maintaining
3. Setting up
4. Hiring per
5. Training
6. Wage and
benefits.
7. Motivation

³⁶ Op. Cit.

³⁷ Jucius, W.
Richard D. Irwin

³⁸ Kindall,
and Cases. Rich

³⁹ Op. Cit.

⁴⁰ Strauss,
Prentice Hall,

⁴¹ Op. Cit.

texts; Flippo (1966)³⁶, Jucius (1967)³⁷, Kindall (1969)³⁸, McFarland (1968)³⁹, Strauss and Sayles (1967)⁴⁰ and Yoder (1962)⁴¹, a list of personnel functions was established. Not all of the authors identified all of the following functions. In some instances some of the functions identified here as being separate were considered as sub-functions of a major function by some of the authors. Although some regrouping of these functions has been carried out for the purpose and convenience of this research, it is thought that the list of functions is a comprehensive one and that it does cover all those functions that would be performed by a personnel department of a large business. The following list of functions was identified:

1. Planning manpower requirements.
2. Maintaining personnel records.
3. Setting up the organizational structure.
4. Hiring personnel (recruiting, selecting and placing).
5. Training and development.
6. Wage and salary administration including incentives and benefits.
7. Motivation and discipline.

³⁶Op. Cit.

³⁷Jucius, Michael J., 1967, Personnel Management. 6th Ed., Richard D. Irwin, Inc., Homewood Illinois.

³⁸Kindall, Alva F., 1969, Personnel Administration, Principles and Cases. Richard D. Irwin, Inc., Homewood, Illinois.

³⁹Op. Cit.

⁴⁰Strauss, George and Sayles, Leonard R., 1967, Personnel 2nd Ed., Prentice Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey.

⁴¹Op. Cit.

8. Communic
9. Health a
10. Labor re

GENERAL APPROACH-

The first or
tation and identifi
literature pertinent
agriculture has be
programs in agricu
established throu
to all types and
has been shown to
where the manager
Finally, the fun

Chapter II
It will discuss
development, da

The success
of personnel ma
relevant litera
results of the
discussed in
practices in
these farms b
these will be
based on the
research res

8. Communications.
9. Health and safety.
10. Labor relations (management-union relations).

GENERAL APPROACH

The first chapter was intended to generally introduce the subject matter and identify the objectives of this thesis. A broad review of literature pertaining to personnel management in industry and in agriculture has been presented. The lack of personnel policies and programs in agriculture has been discussed. Their need has been established through showing the universality of personnel functions to all types and sizes of organizations. This function of management has been shown to be even more important on large scale dairy operations, where the manager becomes a manager of people rather than of cows. Finally, the functions of personnel management have been identified.

Chapter II will deal with the methodology used in the research. It will discuss sample size and sampling procedure, questionnaire development, data collection procedure and the method of analysis.

The succeeding chapters will be devoted to the individual functions of personnel management. Each chapter will begin with a review of relevant literature pertaining to the particular function. Next, the results of the research will be presented. These results will then be discussed in light of previous research findings and prevailing practices in business. Where specific improvements could be made on these farms by adopting or adapting some practices from industry, these will be suggested. Finally, some conclusions will be drawn based on the observations made by the researcher and in light of present research results and industrial practices.

THE CASE-METHOD

The research
analysis of the
United States. The
review of literature
of the case-method
in his book, And
Harvard Business
of individual co-
Stern Jacobs (19

One of the
little was known
or are practice
underlying the
hypotheses could
does have a well
hypothesis that
could not be tested
firms. The fu

¹ Copeland,
Harvard Business
Review, pp. 20

² Jacobs, G.
New York.

CHAPTER II

METHODOLOGY

THE CASE-METHOD APPROACH

The research method used was a descriptive multi-case-study analysis of the large scale dairy farm operations throughout the United States. This case study approach was chosen after a careful review of literature pertaining to social science research. The value of the case-method of research is shown by Melvin T. Copeland (1958)¹ in his book, *And Mark an Era*, which describes the development of the Harvard Business School and its reliance on case studies. The value of individual observation on the part of the researcher is shown by Glenn Jacobs (1970)² in his book, *The Participant Observer*.

One of the characteristics of this present research is that very little was known about how the functions of personnel management apply or are practiced on large scale dairy operations. Thus, there was no underlying theory of personnel management on dairy farms from which hypotheses could be developed and tested. The industrial sector does have a well-developed theory of personnel management, but the hypothesis that these principles and practices also apply to farming could not be tested without carrying out a similar study of industrial firms. The funds or time were not available to do this. It was decided

¹Copeland, Melvin T., 1958, And Mark an Era, The Story of the Harvard Business School. Little, Brown and Company, Boston and Toronto, pp. 208-238.

²Jacobs, Glenn, 1970, The Participant Observer. George Braziller, New York.

use a descriptive
ally principles
Simon (1969)
usually the jump
sciences, and re
of other discipli
is also supported
and Hatt (1962),⁶
tion that a c
records, unstruc
other approach.
case method and
again point out
the investigation
of information
the method to
technique in w
predisposition

³Simon, H.
Science. Pan

⁴Rigby, J.
Research. Co

⁵Janoda, J.
Research Meth
New York.

⁶Good, J.
Research. Mc

⁷Stouffer
The Free Pres

to use a descriptive case-study approach, to break new ground and to apply principles developed in industry to dairying.

Simon (1969)³ points out that descriptive case-studies are usually the jumping-off point for the study of new areas in the social sciences, and rely heavily on borrowing from the theories and concepts of other disciplines. This value and place of the case study method is also supported by Rigby (1965)⁴, Jahoda, et al (1965)⁵ and Good and Hatt (1952)⁶. Jahoda, et al in discussing this method of research mention that a case study may involve the examination of existing records, unstructured interviewing, participant observation or some other approach. Stouffer (1962)⁷ defends the use of the qualitative case method and the use of unstructured questions. Jahoda, et al again point out that this approach relies on the integrative power of the investigator and his ability to draw together many diverse bits of information into a unified interpretation. This has led critics of the method to view this method of analysis as a sort of projective technique in which conclusions reflect primarily the investigator's predisposition rather than the object of study. Even if this reproach

³Simon, Julian L., 1969, Basic Research Methods in Social Science. Random House, New York, pp. 276-278.

⁴Rigby, Paul H., 1965, Conceptual Foundations of Business Research. John Wiley and Sons, Inc., New York.

⁵Jahoda, Marie, Deutsch, Morton and Cook, Stuart W., 1965, Research Methods in Social Relations. Holt, Rhinehart and Winston, New York.

⁶Good, William J., and Hatt, Paul K., 1952, Methods in Social Research. McGraw-Hill, New York, pp. 330-340.

⁷Stouffer, Samuel A., 1962, Social Research to Test Ideas. The Free Press of Glencoe, New York, pp. 253-260.

is valid in certa
necessarily unders
test hypotheses.

the individual ca
the predictive it

An excellent
was given as far
his article shows

1. The case

merely to

2. Individual

classifica

uniform

3. The stat

method o

in case stud

tion of, and gene

random, qualitat

through the syst

method.

As has been

the precursor to

the absence of

procedure. It

senses unaided

subject.

is valid in certain case studies, the characteristic is not necessarily undesirable when the purpose is to evoke rather than to test hypotheses. Stouffer points out that there is no reason why the individual case record should not be an explicit entry as one of the predictive items in a formal statistical analysis.

An excellent discussion of case work and the statistical method was given as far back as 1926 by George A. Lundberg⁸. A summary of his article shows:

1. The case method is not in itself a scientific method, but merely the first step in scientific method.
2. Individual cases become of scientific significance only when classified and summarized in such a form as to reveal uniformities, types and patterns of behavior.
3. The statistical method is the best, if not the only scientific method of classifying and summarizing large numbers of cases.

In case study analysis, the question arises whether the classification of, and generalizations from, the data will be carried out by the random, qualitative and subjective method of common observation or through the systematic quantitative and objective procedure of statistical method.

As has been seen, empirical generalizations have always been the precursor to the more accomplished statistical method and while in the absence of definite quantitative data, it is a necessary and desirable procedure. It is subject to all the dangers and fallacies to which the senses unaided by tools, symbols or other objectifying processes are subject.

⁸Lundberg, George A., 1926, Case Work and the Statistical Method. Social Forces, Vol. 5, p. 61.

It is felt,
symbols to work
out the ability
frequency reports
and qualitative
Pool (1959)¹⁰ state
are insightful, a
creating hypotheses
ideas new insight
(1964)¹¹ successful
to analyze open

THE POPULATION

Having decided
step was to deter
calls to the Cair
cluding Alaska an
respective states
through the exte
it was obtained

⁹ Holsti, C.
and Humanities.
p. 11 and p. 23.

¹⁰ Pool, I.
of Illinois Pres

¹¹ Scheuch,
Approach to an
Gen. Behav. Sci

It is felt, however, that content analysis gives us the tools and symbols to work with in this particular research. Holsti (1969)⁹ points out the ability to work with both quantitative data, obtained from frequency reporting of categories developed from unstructured questions and qualitative data which may aid in clarifying the quantitative data. Pool (1959)¹⁰ states, "It should not be assumed that qualitative methods are insightful, and quantitative ones merely mechanical methods for checking hypotheses. The relationship is a circular one; each provides new insights on which the other can feed." Scheuch and Stone (1964)¹¹ successfully demonstrated how content analysis could be used to analyze open ended questions.

THE POPULATION

Having decided on using the multi-case study approach, the next step was to determine the population size. This was done by telephone calls to the Dairy Extension Specialists in the various states (excluding Alaska and Hawaii) asking them for a list of herds in their respective states of 500 cows or more. The information was obtained through the extension service in all states except California, where it was obtained from the California Department of Agriculture. The

⁹Holsti, Ole R., 1969, Content Analysis for the Social Sciences and Humanities. Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Reading, Massachusetts, p. 11 and p. 23.

¹⁰Pool, I. de S., 1959, Ed., Trends in Content Analysis. University of Illinois Press, Urbana, p. 192.

¹¹Scheuch, E. K., and Stone, P. J., 1964, The General Inquirer Approach to an International Retrieval System for Survey Archives. Amer. Behav. Scientist, Vol. 7, pp. 23-28.

ing included 31

y state (see Appen

It was decided

ased on differences

r geographic locati

tion, total num

ion in Table 1.

Strata

Mid-west

Northeast and East

Southeast

South

California

North and Northwest

The regions c

1. Mid-west.

Missouri, Kansas,

This area is

shipped in the re

as the grain

plements are p

2. Northeast

listing included 399 dairies with 500 cows or more and a break down by state (see Appendix A).

It was decided to stratify the United States into dairying regions, based on differences in the type of dairying typically practiced and on geographic location. Six different strata were identified. The location, total number and selected sample size of these strata are shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1

NUMBER OF DAIRY HERDS WITH 500 COWS OR
MORE BY DAIRYING REGIONS AND IN THE SAMPLE

<u>Strata</u>	<u>Number of Herds With 500 Cows or More</u>	<u>Sample Size</u>
Mid-West	6	6
Northeast and East	11	5
Southeast	116	10
South	49	5
California	210	10
North and Northwest	<u>7</u>	<u>0</u>
	399	36

The regions comprised the following states: (see Appendix A)

1. Mid-West. Michigan, Ohio, Kentucky, Illinois, Indiana, Missouri, Kansas, Iowa, Wisconsin and Minnesota.

This area is typically considered as a geographical region and dairymen in the region typically produce their own forage supplies as well as the grain for the concentrate ration. Proteins and other supplements are purchased.

2. Northeast and East. New York, Vermont, New Hampshire, Maine.

Massachusetts, Delaware, Maryland

Dairymen in
but purchase the

3. Southeast

Arkansas, Louisiana

The region
located in Florida

typically character-
izing on free range

northern Florida
their own forage

4. South

and Nevada.

A large geog-
are located in west

Arizona. Dairymen
lot -- with cows

is purchased.

5. California

qualify as a second

The type of

The greatest concen-
state with the type

described for Texas
unionized while the

6. North and

Wyoming, Nebraska

Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Delaware, Maryland, West Virginia and Virginia.

Dairymen in this region typically produce their own forage supplies but purchase the entire concentrate ration.

3. Southeast. North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Arkansas, Louisiana, Mississippi, Alabama, Georgia and Florida.

The region contains a large number of big herds, most of which are located in Florida. Dairying in Central and Southern Florida is typically characterized by the purchase of all feeds with the cows exercising on free range which has little, if any, nutritive value. In Northern Florida the climate permits dairymen to produce almost all their own forage, though concentrates are generally purchased.

4. South. Oklahoma, Texas, Colorado, New Mexico, Utah, Arizona and Nevada.

A large geographical region in which most of the large dairies are located in Western Texas, Southwestern New Mexico and around Phoenix, Arizona. Dairying in this region is typically characterized as dry lot -- with cows confined to corrals all the year round. All feed is purchased.

5. California. The state has a sufficient number of herds to qualify as a separate region.

The type of dairying practiced varies greatly from South to North. The greatest concentration of herds is in the Southern part of the state with the type of dairying practiced being analogous to that described for Texas and Arizona. Many dairies in California are unionized while those in the other regions are not.

6. North and Northwest. Washington, Oregon, Idaho, Montana, Wyoming, Nebraska, South Dakota and North Dakota.

A catch-all
the small number

SAMPLE SIZE

Sample size
the financial bu
factors, the max
visit was 36. T
proportional bas
west region, it
the Northeast an
to that of the "
the region were

CHOOSING CANDIDATES

Appendix A
more in the vari
from each region
regions herds wo
of herds in a s
a result some s
states out was
for selection.

Sampling,

In choosi
Extension Spec
made to the sp
sought in sele
criteria were

A catch-all geographical region that was not sampled because of the small number of herds and the extra distance involved.

SAMPLE SIZE

Sample size was primarily influenced by the time available and the financial budget allocation for this research. Considering these factors, the maximum number of herds that it was thought possible to visit was 36. The number selected from each stratum was somewhat on proportional basis. Because of a premium on information from the Mid-West region, it was decided to visit all herds in the region. Since the Northeast and Eastern type of dairying is the most nearly similar to that of the Mid-West, a relatively larger proportion of herds from the region were selected.

CHOOSING CANDIDATES

Appendix A gives a list of the number of herds of 500 cows or more in the various states. Once it was decided on the sample size from each region then a decision was made on what states within the regions herds would be chosen from. This choice was based on the number of herds in a state and their proportion relative to other states. As a result some states were left out. Another factor in leaving some states out was that they did not have herds which met the criteria for selection.

Sampling, by states, is shown in Appendix A.

In choosing the individual farmers to visit the help of the Dairy Extension Specialists was again sought. Again, telephone calls were made to the specialists in the various states and their cooperation was sought in selecting those dairymen that should be visited. The following criteria were used in selecting these herds:

1. 600 con

2. That tr

3. That tr

judged

4. That it

instituted

This proced

were due to exte

of needs. As me

In Californ

feed companies w

meet the criteri

be successful.

In a stat

a study of this

with a small sa

method of selec

the biases of t

this bias by pr

selection of ca

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The quest

in mind. The

questions and

management. A

response is sh

vital aspect o

guide an int

1. 500 cows or over in size.
2. That the owner or manager be willing to cooperate.
3. That the farm be known to have good labor relations (as judged by the specialists).
4. That it be a commercial dairy enterprise, not a hobby or institution.

This procedure proved very effective in all states except California, where due to extension policy they were unable to assist in the selection of herds. As mentioned previously all herds in the Mid-West were visited.

In California, the assistance of the Dairyman Magazine and various feed companies was sought to arrive at a consensus on what farms would meet the criteria for inclusion in the sample. This approach appeared to be successful.

In a statistical study it is important to avoid bias. Yet, in a study of this nature which is exploratory, descriptive and deals with a small sample size, a certain amount of bias is tolerable. The method of selecting candidates for inclusion in the study does reflect the biases of the extension service. It was endeavored to minimize this bias by providing the extension specialists with criteria for selection of candidates.

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The questionnaire was designed with roughly a two-hour interview in mind. The organization of the questionnaire started with general questions and then proceeded into the various functions of personnel management. A copy of the questionnaire along with the categories of response is shown in Appendix B. Design was not considered to be a vital aspect of the questionnaire, since it would be used primarily to guide an interview which would be tape recorded. The guidelines

suggested by Ba
Festinger and Ma
designing the qu
which were oper
was Stanley L. J
was pretested o
questions and tr

INTERVIEW PROCEDURE

One complet
manager had been
specialist who a
or by the author
manager confirm
two or three day
the owner or man
period to interv
facilities. In
would like to ta

12. Backstrom
Research. North

13. Sellitz,
W., 1965, Resear
and Winston, Nev.

14. Festinger
Social Sciences

15. Kerlinger
Holt, Rinehart &

16. Payne, S.
University Press

suggested by Backstrom and Hursh (1968)¹², Sellitz, et al (1965)¹³, Festinger and Katz (1953)¹⁴ and Kerlinger (1964)¹⁵ were followed in designing the questionnaire and in structuring the questions, all of which were open ended. Another source of help in designing the questions was Stanley L. Paynes, The Art of Asking Questions¹⁶. The questionnaire was pretested on three dairymen in Michigan to check the validity of the questions and the approximate length of the interview.

INTERVIEW PROCESS

One complete day was set aside to visit each farm. The owner or manager had been prepared for the visit either by the extension specialist who also sent him a short synopsis of the research project or by the author through a telephone conversation with the owner or manager confirming an appointment. Appointments were typically confirmed two or three days in advance. In almost all cases the interview with the owner or manager was conducted before lunch, leaving the after lunch period to interview some of the employees and to look over the physical facilities. In interviewing the employees the author specified that he would like to talk to a herdsman, a milker and a feeder. Where one or

¹²Backstrom, Charles H., and Hursch, Gerald D., 1968, Survey Research. North Western University Press, pp. 67-128.

¹³Sellitz, Claire, Jahoda, Marie, Deutsch, Morton and Cook, Stuart W., 1965, Research Methods in Social Relations, Rev. Ed. Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York, pp. 236-268.

¹⁴Festinger, Leon and Katz, Daniel, 1953, Research Methods in the Social Sciences. The Dryden Press, New York, pp. 327-378.

¹⁵Kerlinger, Fred N., 1964, Foundations of Behavioral Research. Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., New York, pp. 467-476.

¹⁶Payne, Stanley L., 1951, The Art of Asking Questions. Princeton University Press, Princeton.

more of these will
questions to be
manager first in
cases. In asking
interview it was
process and prob
was agreed to in

METHOD OF ANALYSIS

The responses
firm back onto the
was categorized as
1964¹⁷. These
purpose of the re
to be mutually ex
a single classifi
frequency of resp
under the appropri

It is sugges
ment of objectivi
and not time depe

The major ta
and the salient f
frequency tabulat
however, be suppl
development of so

more of these were absent no substitutions were made. The list of questions to be asked to the employees was shown to the owner or manager first in order to gain his approval. This was obtained in all cases. In asking the owners or managers for permission to tape the interview it was pointed out that taping would speed up the interview process and protect against mis-interpretation of what was said. This was agreed to in all cases.

METHOD OF ANALYSIS

The responses which were taped were later transferred in summary form back onto the original questionnaires. Each individual question was categorized according to the guidelines established in Kerlinger (1964)¹⁷. These are: (1) that the categories should reflect the purpose of the research, (2) that the categories should be exhaustive, (3) be mutually exclusive, (4) be independent and (5) be derived from a single classification principle. These categories along with the frequency of response within each category are shown in the Appendix B under the appropriate question.

It is suggested that this approach does meet the research requirement of objectivity and that the measures and procedures are reliable and not time dependent.

The major tables of frequency tabulation will be left in Appendix B, and the salient facts will be referred to in the discussion. Simple frequency tabulations are not considered sufficient. Frequencies can, however, be supplemented by the use of qualitative data or through the development of scales to show intensity of feeling. The former approach

¹⁷Op. Cit., p. 606.

is being used in
descriptive nat
the maxim of
quantitative an
supports this vi

There is no
results are cons
existing research
sample size.

Certain fun
differences and
certain differen
and those that a
some influence o
instances. When
will be used to

¹⁸Op. Cit.,
¹⁹Op. Cit.,

is being used in this study since the main purpose of the research is descriptive rather than to show intensity of feeling. This is relying on the maxim of Pool (1959)¹⁸ -- already referred to -- that both quantitative and qualitative data are important. Holsti (1969)¹⁹ also supports this view.

There is no reason to suspect the content validity since the results are considered plausible, and will be discussed in light of existing research. The predictive validity, however, is limited by sample size.

Certain functions of personnel management will have regional differences and these will be discussed in the appropriate chapter. Certain differences will exist between dairies that are unionized and those that are not. Personnel management considerations do have some influence on the physical facilities being built in certain instances. Where necessary, objective measures of herd size, etc. will be used to emphasize points.

¹⁸Op. Cit., p. 192.

¹⁹Op. Cit., pp. 5-12.

In industrial
staffing function
function of man-
agement (dealt with
orientation, p. 1
1932)¹.

The current
of hiring as ne-
growing tendency
this respect, s
policy, which p
become more cos
technical requi
labor (Yoder, 1

French (1932)
right jobs at t
become so ineff
Manpower plann
(1932)⁴, in the

¹Yoder, C. A.
Prentice-Hall,

²Ibid., p.

³French, W.
Resources Admin

⁴Yoder, C. A.
Harold C., 1932
McGraw Hill Book

CHAPTER III

MANPOWER PLANNING

In industry manpower planning is considered a part of the overall staffing function of personnel management. Staffing is a never ending function of management. It involves: determination of manpower requirements (dealt with in this chapter), recruitment, selection, placement, orientation, promotions, demotions, transfers and terminations (Yoder, 1962)¹.

The current practice in staffing is getting away from the old idea of hiring as needed and releasing when the need ceases. There is a growing tendency to employ for careers rather than simply for jobs. In this respect, staffing policy should be consistent with general manpower policy, which proposes to maintain full employment. Human resources have become more costly and shorter in supply and the growing educational and technical requirements of jobs mean that few jobs can be filled with raw labor (Yoder, 1962)².

French (1964)³, points out that "without the right people in the right jobs at the right time, any of the vital management processes can become so inefficient as to threaten the existence of the organization". Manpower planning is a prerequisite to achieving this. Yoder, et al (1958)⁴, in their Handbook of Personnel Management and Labor Relations

¹Yoder, Dale, 1962, Personnel Management and Industrial Relations. Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, p. 272.

²Ibid., p. 295.

³French, Wendell, 1964, The Personnel Management Process, Human Resources Administration. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, p. 120.

⁴Yoder, Dale, Heneman, H. G., Turnbull, John G., and Stone, Harold C., 1958, Handbook of Personnel Management and Labor Relations. McGraw Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, pp. 5.1-5.45.

discuss this f

the use of cont

It is nece

large firms can

far more comple

include extens

comprehensive

and complex job

but that the ef

does not depend

that of large c

are utilized an

of the overall

of large compa

that perspective

to a smaller co

In his stud

found that the

to hire persons

25 employees, or

quirements. Two

planned ahead.

market for labor

5. Broom, H.
Management. So

6. Baker, A. J.
Bureau of Business
The Ohio State U

discuss this function of planning very thoroughly and they recommend the use of continuous five-year staffing plans.

It is recognized, however, (Broom and Longenecker, 1961)⁵, that large firms can and do utilize personnel tools and procedures that are far more complex than those found in small concerns. Examples might include extensive recreational programs, elaborate testing methods, comprehensive personnel records, a multiplicity of training programs and complex job evaluation procedures. The authors go on to point out that the effectiveness of a small business's personnel program does not depend on its complexity, or the degree to which it mimics that of large concerns. It is the efficiency with which personnel are utilized and harmony achieved which determines the effectiveness of the overall program. This is not saying that more of the practices of large companies should not be adopted by smaller ones, but merely that perspective should be maintained in evaluating their contribution to a smaller concern.

In his study of personnel management in small plants, Baker (1955)⁶, found that the prevailing practice in small companies at that time was to hire persons only as they were needed. Of the firms with less than 25 employees, only seven percent planned ahead for their manpower requirements. Twenty-four percent of companies with 150-299 employees planned ahead. The author points out that where there is a stable market for labor, planning ahead may not be a prerequisite for efficient

⁵Broom, H. N., and Longenecker, J. G., 1961, Small Business Management. South-Western Publishing Company, Cincinnati, p. 532.

⁶Baker, Alton W., 1955, Personnel Management in Small Plants. Bureau of Business Research, College of Commerce and Administration, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, pp. 38-49.

hiring in a
is rapidly
otherwise
infrequent
company from
require some

STEPS IN MAN

Manpower

personnel de

enter to be

In order

the design o

job duties a

abilities re

Job des

There are ma

These includ

union policie

supply, (6)

requirements

The mos

job design i

narrow, mean

lines. So tu

hiring in a small company (less than 25 employees), unless the company is rapidly increasing or decreasing in size or volume of production. Otherwise the need for new employees may be sufficiently small or infrequent to make advance planning unnecessary. As the size of the company increases, however, the labor needs become more complex and require some degree of advance planning.

STEPS IN MANPOWER PLANNING

Manpower planning is concerned with determining the kind of personnel desired for each job as well as a specification of the number to be hired (Flipppo, 1962)⁷.

In order to determine the kind or quality of personnel desired, the design of the job must first be studied and secondly a study of the job duties and responsibilities should be made to determine the human abilities required for its execution.

Job design involves creating a job or unit of work to be manned. There are many factors which should be considered in designing the job. These include: (1) principles of organization, (2) technology, (3) labor union policies, (4) abilities of present personnel, (5) available labor supply, (6) psychological and social needs of man and (7) interaction requirements among jobs.

The most commonly cited human relations problem in the area of job design is employee dissatisfaction with jobs that are repetitive, narrow, meaningless and routine. Such work is found on most assembly lines. Solutions to these problems have included: (1) allowing

⁷ Flipppo, Edwin B., 1966, Principles of Personnel Management. McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, pp. 109-140.

employees

and (4) C

benefits.

have

This inv

and respo

obtained

1.

2.

3.

4.

The

of job de

The

duties an

would not

summary,

(5) relat

(7) work

which acc

Pig

assets in

operation

prise has

effort".

employees to work up the line, (2) job rotation, (3) job enlargement and (4) compensating the employees for such work by enlarged fringe benefits.

Having basically designed the job, the next step is job analysis. This involves the collection of information relating to the operations and responsibilities of a specific job. Such information may be obtained by:

1. Questionnaires; asking present job holder about his job.
2. Logs; keeping daily record of duties performed and time taken.
3. Observation.
4. Interviews.

The results of this job analysis lead directly to the development of job descriptions and job specifications.

The job description is an organized, factual statement of the duties and responsibilities of a specific job. Such a description would normally include: (1) job identification (title, etc.), (2) job summary, (3) duties performed, (4) supervision given and received, (5) relation to other jobs, (6) machines, tools and materials, (7) working conditions, (8) definitions of unusual terms and (9) comments which add to and clarify the above.

Pigors and Myers (1969)⁸ state that "job descriptions can be assets if they cover every position in the organization, offering an operational view of the whole, and showing that every job in the enterprise has been designed and analyzed as an integral part of a total effort". But a job description "can be a liability if it is inaccurate,

⁸Pigors, Paul and Myers, Charles A., 1969, Personnel Administration. McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, p. 369.

incomplete

its main

Bar

25 employees

150-200

The

human

particular

relation

has

the next

load and

no

determine

analysis

work

no

assert

and pe

the re

the

the q

incomplete, out of date or if suspicion and antagonism were aroused in its making".

Baker (1955)⁹ found that 10.5 percent of companies with less than 25 employees had job descriptions, while 31.2 percent of companies with 150-299 employees made use of them.

The job specification is a statement of the minimum acceptable human qualities necessary to perform the job properly. Items included pertain to age, education, skills, experience and other characteristics relating to the job.

Having determined the quality of personnel needed for each job, the next step is to determine the number. This involves the use of work load analysis and work force analysis (Flipppo, 1962)¹⁰.

Work load analysis involves forecasting sales, scheduling work and determining labor requirements per unit of product. The result of this analysis will tell the number of personnel required to process a certain work load.

Work force analysis is needed also since there will always be some absenteeism. This analysis should cover absentee rates, turnover rates and pending transfers and retirements. The analysis will modify somewhat the results of the work load analysis.

The end result of this manpower planning is the specification of the quantity and quality of employees needed.

⁹Op. Cit., p. 60.

¹⁰Op. Cit., pp. 125-130.

The author
planning in
1993, 1994, 1995
is a basic
its lack of
and seeming
Speaking at
specifying
for us in
for the act
important
We don't
Let's not

SUMMARY OF

The r
questions
as well as
Appendix B

11. St.
notes base
Group V, C
University

12. Ho
Paper pres
New York,

13. Kin
Development
Education

MANPOWER PLANNING IN AGRICULTURE

The author was unable to discover literature pertaining to manpower planning in agriculture, other than references to its need (Sturt, 1969¹¹, Holt, 1967¹², and King, 1970¹³). Sturt points out that planning is a basic essential to obtaining an adequate supply of farm labor. Its lack of practice by farmers is possibly due to the past abundance and seeming unlimited supply of workers, including foreign workers. Speaking at a macro level, Sturt states that "a farm labor profile specifying needs by skills and days has proven a most useful approach for us in Michigan". Holt states that "systematic analysis and planning for the acquisition and use of labor is just as important if not more important than any other type of farm planning". Finally King states, "we don't go out to buy a truck today without a set of specifications. Let's not do it when we wish to hire a man".

SUMMARY OF RESULTS OF PRESENT RESEARCH

The results presented in this section will cover the responses to questions 28 through 33 and questions 118 through 121. The questions as well as the categories of response and their frequencies are shown in Appendix B.

¹¹Sturt, Daniel W., 1969, The Manpower Game. A compendium of notes based on previous papers, presented to the Kellogg Farmers Group V, October 20, 1969. Rural Manpower Center, Michigan State University, East Lansing, p. 12.

¹²Holt, James S., 1967, How to Hold Your Farm Labor Force. Paper presented at the Northeastern Dairy Conference, Niagara Falls, New York, April 6, 1967, p. 26.

¹³King, Walter P., 1970, Employee Selection, Orientation and Development. The Four State Committee on Cooperative Research and Education. Florida/Georgia/North Carolina/South Carolina, p. 6.

Responses

or make other

next expansion

again these we

very general

paper.

Labor fig

planning. In

was used. Due

two farmers me

The major

target for mil

of the market

ment programs,

milk products.

ANTICIPATING

In anticip

response was "

instances to t

and the amount

Figures q

on the milking

estimation, i.e.

One man reported

In the eve

the supervisor

relied on an ou

Responses indicated that 14 farms had definite plans to expand or make other major changes within a year. Nine of these plans were for herd expansion. Eighteen had plans in mind for five years or so and again these were mostly for herd expansion. Most plans appeared to be very general in nature. Only one manager produced a five year plan on paper.

Labor figured prominently among the types of information used in planning. Information on both labor availability and labor efficiency was used. Due to their proximity to city limits and tax considerations two farmers mentioned location.

The major unknowns as far as planning was concerned were: the market for milk, labor availability and waste disposal. Uncertainty of the market for milk reflected concern about the future role of government programs, consumer demand and price and competition from synthetic milk products.

ANTICIPATING LABOR REQUIREMENTS

In anticipating future labor requirements, by far the most frequent response was "cows per man". This statement was modified in some instances to take into consideration the level of technology being used and the amount of milk production.

Figures quoted for cows per man varied from 100-220 cows, depending on the milking system being used and which men were included in the estimation, i.e. whether outside help or just milkers were included. One man reported that he went strictly by union requirements.

In the event of a man suddenly leaving, 13 of the farms relied on the supervisor or herdsman to fill in until a replacement was found. Six relied on an outside dairy hand such as a cow pusher, feeder or clean-up

er to fill in.
elp on the farm
not typically

Most common
ore by the own
approach to pla
and their manag
ertain planning
ticular executiv
all the planning

USP Outlook

Responses
ality of labor
for that wages
ould be better
the industrial
employment in
caliber man ava
situation were
of motivation d
pessimistic out

Labor Problems

Finding the
biggest problem
as one who was
appeared to be
routine on the

man to fill in. Of the eight respondents who said they carried extra help on the farm, seven were located in the East and Mid-West regions, which typically carried on farming as well as dairy operations.

Most commonly, all the planning pertaining to the operation was done by the owner or one of the owners who managed. The conference approach to planning was used in 12 cases, either of owners or owners and their manager. Five owners or managers found that they could delegate certain planning tasks to a supervisor or herdsman. One large dairy had an executive committee comprised of the corporate staff that did all the planning. This dairy had written five-year plans.

LABOR OUTLOOK

Responses indicated that the general outlook was for good availability of labor for dairy farms. This view was based on the expectation that wages would be higher, working hours and working conditions would be better in the future, making dairying more competitive with the industrial labor market. Many expected it to be good while unemployment in industry is high and some said that this made a higher caliber man available for dairy work. Those expecting a poor labor situation were mostly located in the South and cited turnover and a lack of motivation due to welfare programs as being their reasons for this pessimistic outlook.

Labor Problems

Finding the right caliber of man and motivating men were the two biggest problems with labor. The right caliber of man was considered as one who was willing to work and take responsibility. These factors appeared to be more important than having the skill, which they could acquire on the job. Difficulty in motivating men was due to their

"don't care attitude", an unwillingness to work attitude, or as one dairyman summed it up "a socialistic attitude". Personal problems included drinking, financial problems and family problems. These were mentioned mostly in the Southeast.

When asked had they made any changes recently to help alleviate these problems, there were almost as many different replies as respondents. Better communications was mentioned four times and included using meetings, giving pep-talks and trying to generally improve communications throughout the organization.

Research

Research was considered needed in methods of improving labor efficiency and improving the image of dairying as a source of employment. Most farmers wanted a lot more training done in all areas but particularly to have information and courses available on techniques of personnel management, motivation and communications.

SOURCES OF INFORMATION

The sources of information found most effective in helping dairy-men to solve their labor problems are shown in Table 2.

Radio and T.V.

Meetings

Individual con

University bu

Farm magazines

Industry

*The inde
time a s
ranked r
was trer

Individual

companies and

farmers. Infor

labor managemen

a better overal

Individual con

much difference

DISCUSSION

Some of t
in general rat
done to determ
responses.

TABLE 2

SOURCES OF INFORMATION FOUND MOST EFFECTIVE IN HELPING
DAIRY FARMERS SOLVE THEIR LABOR PROBLEMS

	<u>% Time Ranked No. 1</u>	<u>Index*</u>	<u>Index Base 100</u>
Radio and T.V.	0	45	20.8
Meetings	14	135	62.5
Individual consultation	49	182	84.3
University bulletins	3	107	49.5
Farm magazines	14	139	64.6
Industry	20	131	60.6

*The index was developed on the basis of giving six points every time a source was ranked number one, down to one point when ranked number six and zero points if not ranked. This index was then converted to base 100.

Individual consultation with other farmers and specialists from companies and universities was ranked number one by almost half the farmers. Information from industry and looking at industrial trends in labor management was ranked number one by 20 percent. The index gives a better overall idea of the relative importance of the various sources. Individual consultation is still the highest, but there is not too much difference between meetings, farm magazines and industry.

DISCUSSION

Some of the questions in this section were addressed to planning in general rather than specifically to manpower planning. This was done to determine the manpower content and implications of the responses.

The fact
expansion is
future market
and projection
research in the
patterns as we
known as far
American Dairy
the Associated
Incorporated
promotion prog
ment and publi
unknowns. In
under the Unit
to act as a ce

Great op
demand for mi
size of the s

Future h
individual fa
however, can

More ski
for training
supervisory tr
by these dairy
factor to herd

The cow
would correspo

The fact that many of these large herds are planning for future expansions is an indication of the confidence of these dairymen in the future market for their product and their desire for more information and projections about market trends would appear natural. Lack of research in the past in this area of consumer demand and changing taste patterns as well as changes in areas of population have left many unknowns as far as the dairy industry is concerned. In recent years the American Dairy Association (A.D.A.), the National Dairy Council (N.D.C.), the Associated Milk Producers Incorporated (A.M.P.I.) and Dairy Research Incorporated (D.R.I.N.C.) have been carrying out advertising and sales promotion programs, nutrition and education programs, new produce development and public relations and market research to help solve many of these unknowns. In 1970, A.D.A., N.D.C. and D.R.I.N.C. were brought together under the United Dairy Industries Association (U.D.I.A.) who were to act as a central funding agency and to coordinate program activities.

Great optimism was expressed in Florida about the future increased demand for milk. This is largely due to the rapidly expanding population size of the state.

Future herd expansion will increase the need for dairy labor on individual farms. Advances in technology and increased labor efficiency, however, can be expected to reduce labor need per unit of output.

More skilled dairy workers will be needed in the future and the need for training programs in all areas was strongly indicated. The need for supervisory training and personnel management training is widely realized by these dairy owners and managers. Some mentioned that the only limiting factor to herd size was management ability.

The cow per man approach to anticipating manpower requirements would correspond closely to what was discussed earlier under work load

analysis. The
rate would also
the rate at which
have them available
practiced.

The use of
an integral part
dairies have
One other dairy
others are con
unionized.

Six of the
union does not
descriptions
employees.
classification
system of man
day. Only one
guideline to
endeavor to
ability of
this service

The re
labor outlo
pointed out
in the South

analysis. The fact that many herds suffer from a very high turnover rate would also indicate a need for some work force analysis to determine the rate at which new men are required, so that plans can be made to have them available when needed. Such planning did not appear to be practiced.

The use of job descriptions and job specifications was seen to be an integral part of manpower planning in industry. Only two of these dairies have written job descriptions covering all jobs in the dairy. One other dairy is just starting to develop job descriptions while three others are considering it. This refers to dairies that are non-unionized.

Six of the dairies visited in California were unionized. The union does have job descriptions for the various jobs performed. Job descriptions were found to be a help both to management and to the employees. The wage rates negotiated with the union depended upon job classifications and in the case of milkers the wages depended on the system of milking being used and the number of cows milked per man per day. Only one man indicated that he used the union exclusively as a guideline to determining future labor requirements. The unions also endeavor to provide a relief milking pool and to guarantee the availability of milkers, though several managers were not too confident in this service.

The responses reported in this study pertaining to the future labor outlook were favorable to the future availability of labor. As pointed out those who thought it would be poorer were located mostly in the South. This would agree with the observations of Anderson and

greene (1969)

the labor sit

in dairy work

programs.

The major

in this study

(1969)¹⁵. The

and inefficie

a close connec

nature of man

observation w

the higher tu

found that of

in Michigan a

help the major

reported that

the incentive

14. Anders
Labor and La
Agricultural
pp. 28-30.

15. Ibid.

16. Given,
relations on
State Univers

17. Shaple
farms. Rural
East Lansing,

18. Bratto
County, New Y
Cornell Unive

Greene (1969)¹⁴ who found that most dairy farmers in Florida expected the labor situation to be worse in the future, due to lack of interest in dairy work, competition from industry and government "give-away" programs.

The major problems and methods of improving the situation reported in this study, parallel closely the results of Anderson and Greene (1969)¹⁵. They listed rapid turnover, undependability, lack of interest and inefficiency as being the main problems. There would appear to be a close connection between turnover and caliber of man. The transient nature of many dairy workers was referred to by many farmers and this observation was also made by Given and Hundley (1967)¹⁶ in explaining the higher turnover of dairy workers in Michigan. Shapley (1969)¹⁷ found that off farm competition for labor was one of the main problems in Michigan and Bratton (1966)¹⁸ found "getting good, dependable" help the major problem in Lewis County, New York. Anderson and Greene reported that 83 percent of their respondents said that welfare removed the incentive to work. To relieve problems they found farmers changing

¹⁴Anderson, Charles L., and Greene, R. E. L., 1969, Use of Labor and Labor Management Practices on Florida Dairy Farms. Agricultural Economics, Mimeo Report EC 69-12, Gainesville, Florida, pp. 28-30.

¹⁵Ibid., pp. 28-30.

¹⁶Given, Charles W., and Hundley, James R., Jr., 1966, Human Relations on Dairy Farms. Rural Manpower Center, No. 2, 1966, Michigan State University, East Lansing, p. 12.

¹⁷Shapley, Allen E., 1969, Full-Time Employees on Michigan Dairy Farms. Rural Manpower Center, Report No. 20, Michigan State University, East Lansing, p. 12.

¹⁸Bratton, C. A., 1966, Labor Practices on 71 Dairy Farms, Lewis County, New York. A. E. Ext. 467, Department of Agricultural Economics, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York, p. 8.

from a split of
practices, and
training. The
time and motion
management. S
ner could not
while the other
herd size or f

CONCLUSIONS AND

Based on
researchers and
sector, the fo
appropriate:

1. Dairy
atten
2. Addit
in tr
chang
prefe
milk
3. The h
trans
are fr
affair

from a split to a straight shift for milkers, improving hiring practices, paying more, using bonuses, shorter work hours and more training. They reported a need for research into automated equipment, time and motion studies and more training and techniques of personnel management. Shapley (1969)¹⁹ reported that half of Michigan's dairy-men could not deal with the problem of industrial competition for labor while the other half said they would increase salaries, cut back on herd size or find new employees to try and solve their problems.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the results of this study, the observations of other researchers and in light of tested personnel practices in the industrial sector, the following conclusions and recommendations would appear appropriate:

1. Dairy-men may find it to their advantage to pay more attention to the need to plan their manpower requirements.
2. Additional research is needed to eliminate some of the unknowns in the area of milk marketing. Particular emphasis should be on changing population centers, consumers' changing tastes and preferences for dairy products and the impact of synthetic milk products.
3. The high turnover of labor on many dairies is due to the transient nature of many dairy workers. Typically these workers are from minority groups and do not partake in community affairs. This sociological problem should be investigated

¹⁹Op. Cit., p. 12.

to s

a co

to s

4. The

to l

tre

also

a re

prog

dair

to see if these transients can become a permanent part of a community. Retirement plans and various other inducements to stay have failed on Florida dairy farms.

4. The development of job descriptions may prove beneficial to large dairy operators. They would help dairymen clarify their own organizational set up and responsibilities and could also contribute to a pool of job descriptions for dairying in a region. On the basis of this, more realistic training programs could be established to serve the future needs of these dairymen.

The
first made
trained empl
factual ma
loss held
penalties
to the origi
records for
the rates
data was ha

Later
the person
various be
stave off
of manage

which
the person
grievances
rown as la
titles char
departments

Despit
departments

CHAPTER IV

PERSONNEL RECORDS

The vast majority of personnel departments in industrial companies first made their appearance as record keeping departments. They maintained employment records for workers and managers, including such factual material as date hired, background information, successive jobs held in the Company with dates and wages received, disciplinary penalties imposed and other events in the relationship of the individual to the organization. Sometimes they maintained time and production records for the purpose of preparing payrolls and kept a record of the rates paid for various jobs. Generally up to this time payroll data was handled by the accounts department.

Later as the threat of unionization became evident in the 1920's, the personnel departments became responsible for the development of various benefit programs for the employees. This was an effort to stave off unionization and represented the "paternalistic" approach of management referred to in the introduction.

With the coming of unionization during the 1930's and 1940's the personnel departments took over the role of handling union grievances and negotiating union contracts. This function became known as labor relations and many personnel departments had their titles changed to labor relations departments or industrial relations departments.

Despite the changing emphasis and broadened scope of the personnel departments, record keeping was still important and, in fact, became

a growing fund
1963¹.

The infi
be kept perta
through their
management, t
inclusive.
organization

In this respec

(1) serve spe

(2) be kept t

(3) be design

(4) be worth

reports that v

(5) be consid

Consider

not surprisin

Management In

then Morgan (

¹ Strauss
Urban Problem
New Jersey, p.

² Yoder, J.
Harold C., 196
McGraw-Hill 30

³ Morgan,
Data. Person

⁴ Berry, W.
20. Personnel

a **growing** function that needed to be carried out (Strauss and Sayles, 1963)¹.

The infinite variety and types of records and reports that can be kept pertaining to employees was shown by Yoder, et al (1958)². Though their list is long, covering almost all functions of personnel management, the authors state that it is "neither exhaustive nor all inclusive". The authors point out that it is essential that every organization develop its own records to suit its own specific needs. In this respect they state that all employment records should:

- (1) serve specific needs, (2) have specific objectives and purposes,
- (3) be kept to a minimum with respect to number, scope and content,
- (4) be designed for least expensive handling, (5) be up to date,
- (6) be worth their cost, (7) be related directly to tabulations and reports that will stem from them, (8) be available when needed and
- (9) be considered valuable by supervisors and line management.

Considering the extent of this record keeping function, it is not surprising that the modern trend is the development of Personnel Management Information Systems (P.M.I.S.). Several authors, among them Morgan (1966)³ and Berry (1969)⁴ have pointed out the prerequisites

¹Strauss, George and Sayles, Leonard R., 1963, Personnel, the Human Problems of Management. Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, pp. 397-399.

²Yoder, Dale, Heneman, H. G., Jr., Turnbull, John G., and Stone, Harold C., 1958, Handbook of Personnel Management and Labor Relations. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, pp. 22.1-22.42.

³Morgan, Philip L., 1966, Automatic Data Processing of Personnel Data. Personnel Journal 45, 9, 553-557.

⁴Berry, William E., 1969, What a Personnel E.D.P. System Should Do. Personnel Journal 46, 1, 18-21.

of a P.M.I.S.

tion. The S

1. Esta

pers

know

2. Be a

reco

3. Allo

not

4. Add

conv

are

5. Be i

in s

be a

6. Prov

to b

info

Though s

larger plants

do have to ke

arises primar

1. Manag

system

infor

of a P.M.I.S. and what such a system should accomplish for the organization. The system should:

1. Establish a data base which will incorporate the items of personnel information which the personnel director should know about his employees.
2. Be able to integrate all personnel data and a useful composite record and provide a simplified method of updating.
3. Allow for controlled retrieval of data and analysis that could not be achieved with conventional clerical methods.
4. Adopt a systematic approach to data handling that will convince employees that the organization's personnel policies are being applied consistently day in and day out.
5. Be integrated in the overall Management Information System in such a way that multiple handling and storage of data will be avoided.
6. Provide cost savings, either through allowing the present work to be done more efficiently, or through allowing much more information and analyses to be handled.

Though small plants do not handle the same volume of data as larger plants, Baker (1955)⁵ found that most managers of small plants do have to keep a large number of records. The need for these records arises primarily from three sources:

1. Management itself needs to have certain data available. A system of personnel records is the only method by which current information can be accumulated. These records serve two

⁵Baker, Alton W., 1955, Personnel Management in Small Plants. Bureau of Business Research, College of Commerce and Administration, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, p. 153.

fund

deba

effi

2. Late

been

prom

3. Seve

avai

In a sma

recorded on fi

would appear

for employee

employment.

program, many

The only effie

record system.

roll and time

functions incor

In his st

found that sep

greater degree

percent of the

personnel reco

increased stea

150-299 employ

⁶Op. Cit..

⁷Op. Cit..

functions. The first is to record the entrance progress and departure of each employee. The second is to establish efficient personnel policies and practices.

2. Labor has also influenced the type of records kept. It has been interested in such matters as seniority status, employee promotion and reasons for termination of employment.
3. Several Federal and State laws require having information available about employees.

In a small company, most of the needed personnel data may be recorded on its payroll or time keeping records, Baker (1955)⁶. This would appear logical since most of the small company's requirements for employee data are related to the wages, hours and conditions of employment. In a larger company with its more complex personnel program, many more types of information about its employees are needed. The only efficient method of keeping this is to have an orderly personnel record system. Such personnel records should be kept separate from payroll and time keeping records in a large company since their primary functions increasingly diverge as the size of the company increases.

In his study of small manufacturing companies, Baker (1955)⁷ found that separate personnel records were maintained to an ever greater degree as the size of the company increased. Fifty-seven percent of the companies with less than 25 employees kept separate personnel records. The percentage of companies following this practice increased steadily to 100 percent in the case of companies employing 150-299 employees.

⁶Op. Cit., p. 154.

⁷Op. Cit., p. 154.

The fact
records other
But the true
Reports on in
tion and deci
tion, utiliza

PERSONNEL RECORDS

This sub
from all farm
these texts pe
efficiency. P
small size of
of employees.
of the human r
up-to-date far

One of the
payroll records
This author su
for control pu
said when he c
man. This, he
and also be a v

⁸Op. Cit.,
⁹Witcher, "The
Farm Labor. 1930.

The fact that many of the very small companies do keep personnel records other than payroll records is an indication of their value. But the true value of records depends on the use that is made of them. Reports or information gained from these records are needed in evaluation and decision making with respect to efficient manpower allocation, utilization and conservation (Yoder, et al 1958)⁸.

PERSONNEL RECORDS IN AGRICULTURE

This subject of personnel records is noticeable by its absence from all farm management texts. The only labor records referred to in these texts pertain to the amount of work performed and the labor efficiency. Part of this lack is possibly explained by the traditional small size of farm enterprises employing a correspondingly small number of employees. Another part of the lack is undoubtedly due to the slowness of the human relations movement to affect agriculture and the lack of up-to-date farm management texts introducing newer concepts of management.

One of the very few references to personnel records, apart from payroll records, discovered by the author was by Mitcheltree (1966)⁹. This author suggested that the farm manager carry a notebook with him for control purposes. This would enable him to write down what was said when he criticized a man and what the response was from the hired man. This, he said would prevent exaggerations and misunderstandings and also be a valuable record in case dismissal was required.

⁸Op. Cit., p. 22-23.

⁹Mitcheltree, Wallace A., 1966, Supervision of Management of Farm Labor. Journal of Farm Economics, 48, 5, 1149.

In 1967,
published a s
This report s
labor regular
social secur
the farmer ne
are suggested
field record,
record of ear
Examples of tr
allow for any
than the reaso
accidents, nea
not considered
a cost, and no
modern managem
records outlin
essential, but
a successful p
numbers of emp

SUMMARY OF RES

The result
Questions 34-39

In 1967, the Rural Manpower Center of Michigan State University¹⁰ published a short mimeograph report on "Suggested Farm Labor Records". This report suggested means of maintaining records needed to satisfy labor regulations (Federal and State minimum wage, workmen's compensation, social security and internal revenue) and to provide information which the farmer needs to pay his employees. Four general types of records are suggested: (1) an employee data sheet, (2) a detailed employee field record, (3) a statement of earnings and (4) some type of permanent record of earnings, wages paid, social security withholdings, etc. Examples of these suggested records are shown. None of these records allow for any qualitative information with regard to performance other than the reason for termination of employment. Records of grievances, accidents, health, sick leave, absenteeism or performance review are not considered. The employee is considered as a mechanical input, with a cost, and not as a human person as the human relations movement and modern management practice suggests. This is not suggesting that the records outlined in the mimeograph are not useful -- for they are essential, but simply that other records are also needed in developing a successful personnel management program, especially where large numbers of employees are maintained.

SUMMARY OF RESULTS OF PRESENT STUDY

The results presented in this section are concerned with questions 34-39. The original questions along with the categories

¹⁰Rural Manpower Center, 1967, Suggested Farm Labor Records. Mimeograph No. 5, Rural Manpower Center, Michigan State University, East Lansing.

response and

types of responses

One half

information

security num

total earnings

also noted an

the responder

and in the de

firms were re

conuses and p

included socia

lars and unio

The other

information to

information wa

the dairy made

of the largest

policy. Only

West managers

a continuous p

There did

union dairies

Almost all

and payroll nee

West seemed to

be gained and o

response and reported frequency are shown in Appendix B.

KINDS OF RECORDS KEPT

One half of the 36 respondents said that they kept basic payroll information only. This information included name, address, age, social security number, marital status, date hired, hours worked, rate of pay, total earnings and deductions. Vacations and wage rate changes were also noted and insurance forms were kept by all employers. Eight of the respondents did not carry any health or life insurance policies and in the case of the six unionized dairies in California these forms were kept by the union. Total earnings was supplemented by bonuses and profit sharing where these were in operation. Deductions included social security, income tax, insurance policies, savings, loans and union dues, where applicable.

The other half of the respondents reported keeping some additional information to the above. The most common form of additional personnel information was the use of job application forms by fourteen respondents. One dairy made use of a screening test in selecting candidates and two of the largest dairies required physical examinations as part of company policy. Only one dairy carried out performance reviews of employees. Most managers relied on memory to evaluate their employees and this was a continuous process.

There did not appear to be any difference between union and non-union dairies in the type of records kept.

Almost all the respondents said that it was legal requirements and payroll needs that influenced the types of records they kept. Most seemed to regard record keeping as a chore, without any return to be gained and only three said that they used this information in

determining

Separate Period

The major

all information

application for

four had had

application for

Use of Records

All the

records was for

appraisal and

The major

to the more d

Keeping Farm

The pers

of the dairy

handling its

close to the

men or secret

to keep their

California were

Most of the f

had other busi

offices. Seve

had an office

determining individual performance.

Separate Personnel Records

The majority (20) relied solely on their payroll sheets to keep all information pertaining to their workers. Twelve of the 14 using application forms had a separate file for applications, while only four had individual worker files, apart from payroll data, keeping application forms and other personal data.

Use of Records

All the respondents indicated that the main use of their personnel records was for wage and salary purposes. Their use in performance appraisal and wage increases was mentioned twice in each case.

The majority of time clocks were found on the larger farms, due to the more difficult task of keeping track of workers.

Keeping Farm Records

The personnel records kept were part of the business records. All of the dairy operations visited had some sort of office arrangement for handling its herd and business records. Herd records were always kept close to the dairy barn, whether they were kept by the manager, herdsman or secretary. Ten of these dairies utilized outside accountants to keep their business records. This was particularly evident in California where some accounting firms specialize in this activity. Most of the farms that were part of another business or where the owner had other business offices had their business records kept in these offices. Seven farms utilized secretary-bookkeepers, while four farms had an office staff of more than one person, actually on the farm.

DISCUSSION

Maintaining
to most managers
rest legal requi
over use was m
management info
olicies and pr
fell short of t
plans. There
these dairy far
of the benefits
records. These
olicies and imp
comprehensive pe
personnel manage
de development
de descriptions
appeared pleased

It is inter
es part of ano
employed a perso
officer did not
firm. The most
for forms and t
ere entirely us

DISCUSSION

Maintaining personnel records appeared to be very much of a chore to most managers, and they found it necessary to keep these records to meet legal requirements as well as their own payroll needs. Very little other use was made of these records from the point of view of giving management information or being used to establish efficient personnel policies and practices. The types of information included in the records fell short of that reported by Baker (1955)¹¹ for small manufacturing plants. There is no apparent reason for this lack on the part of these dairy farmers, other than a lack of attention to or knowledge of the benefits to be gained from keeping more comprehensive personnel records. These records could then be used to develop sound personnel policies and improve overall efficiency. Only one large dairy had a comprehensive personnel management program and this was developed by a personnel management specialist from industry. This program included the development of a Personnel Handbook for the company, the use of job descriptions and the use of performance evaluations. The company appeared pleased with the results.

It is interesting to note that in cases where the farm or dairy was part of another business, that even though this other business employed a person to take care of personnel problems, this personnel officer did not concern himself (or herself) with labor problems on the farm. The most this office did was to run advertisements, file application forms and take care of payroll. All other personnel matters were entirely up to the farmer or dairy manager.

¹¹Op. Cit., pp. 153-167.

Though E
personnel need
the unions keep
for promotion,

CONCLUSIONS AND

Based on
comments made
practices the

1. There

regard

area n

of per

farmer

set up

2. Dairym

forms

necessa

sometim

prosper

desired

view on

this pu

Though Baker (1955)¹² found that unionized companies kept more personnel records, this is not shown in this study. It appears that the unions keep most of the records with regard to seniority, eligibility for promotion, grievances and reasons for termination of employment.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the results of this study and in light of various comments made by dairy farm managers as well as successful industrial practices the following conclusions and recommendations seem appropriate:

1. There is a distinct lack of information in dairying with regard to the types of personnel records to keep. This area needs to be examined very closely, to develop the kinds of personnel management information most useful to the dairy farmer and to show him how this information can be used to set up policies and improve personnel practices.
2. Dairymen may find it to their advantage to use application forms when hiring a new man. Bi-lingual forms may be necessary in certain areas. These application forms could sometimes be filled out by the manager as he interviews a prospective employee and remarks with regard to quality of man desired noted. There are many commercially available interview check lists and application forms that would serve this purpose.

¹²Op. Cit., p. 161.

3. The following types of personnel records have been of benefit to industry. Dairymen may find it to their advantage to adopt some of the following:

- A. Job descriptions and specifications for all jobs on the farm.
- B. Individual Application forms -- showing name, address, social security number, etc. Also giving skills possessed, the type of employment desired, an employment history, educational record, military record, citizenship, marital status, physical limitations record and references. An interview check list can also be incorporated into the application form and space left for the interviewer to make comments.
- C. Employment records
 - 1. Job title
 - 2. Wages or salary rate and dates of changes
 - 3. Training record
 - 4. Wage or salary information
 - production records where wages are based on production hours worked,
 - total earnings and deductions
 - yearly earnings record
 - 5. Seniority status
 - 6. Requests for leave, transfer or promotion
 - 7. Vacation record
 - 8. Health and accident record
 - 9. Absentee record
 - 10. Grievances and action taken

11. Suggestions made and action taken

12. Termination record and reasons

D. Yearly Work Force Summary Record

1. Labor turnover report

2. Attendance report

3. Vacation report

4. Health and accident report

5. Grievance report

Organic
which are
ment's train
various part
relationships
by Ernest I

help for
an org
For the
be pro
prosper
assign
is ess
man, fi
The al
when t

The ter

The first ne
specified ne
The second
executive f
growth are c

1. Haiman
the Modern
p. 158.

2. Dale,
Organizational
p. 23.

CHAPTER V

ORGANIZATION

Organizing is based on the goals and objectives of the enterprise which are formulated during the planning process. It reflects management's thinking on the structure of and the relationships among the various parts of the organization, (Haimann and Scott, 1970)¹. This relationship of objectives to organization has been clearly stated by Ernest Dale (1951)² who says:

The organization structure is a mechanism designed to help in achieving the goals of the enterprise. However small an organization, it must start by determining its objectives. For the resources of any organization are limited and must be properly utilized if the company is to survive and to prosper. This requires a formulation of objectives and an assignment of responsibilities. Allocation of responsibilities is essential, even if the organization consists of only one man, for he must divide his time as effectively as possible. The allocation of responsibilities becomes even more important when there is more than one person in the organization ...

The term organization is commonly used with at least two meanings. The first refers to an organization as a structure or a network of specified relationships among individuals. This is a static concept. The second is the concept of organization as a process, or as an executive function in which the dynamics of organization change and growth are central. Both these meanings are important in the study

¹Haimann, Theo. and Scott, William G., 1970, Management in the Modern Organization. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, p. 158.

²Dale, Ernest, 1951, Planning and Developing the Company Organization Structure. American Management Association, New York, p. 23.

of management

organization

Dalton

pattern or

the position

organization

is generally

of the inter

the organization

have structure

informal or

comprehensiveness

in the organization

or executive

The model

model (McFar

³Yoder
Harold C.,
McGraw-Hill

⁴Yoder
Prentice-Hall

⁵McFar
The MacMillan

⁶Ibid.

⁷Ibid.

⁸Massachusetts
Inc., Engle

⁹Op.

of management (Yoder et al, 1958³, Yoder, 1962⁴, McFarland, 1970⁵).

ORGANIZATION STRUCTURE

Dalton McFarland (1970)⁶ defines organization structure as "the pattern or network of relationships between the various positions and the position holders". As well as possessing formal structures, organizations also have informal structures. The former type of structure is generally the result of planning, while the latter type develops out of the interactions and sentiments of particular individuals comprising the organization. Both formal and informal organizations do, however, have structure (McFarland, 1970)⁷. Massie (1964)⁸ points out that informal organizations can help improve communications, develop cohesiveness in groups and help maintain the self respect of members in the organization. This fact should be recognized by the planners or executives who set up the formal organization.

The most common form of organization structure is the hierarchial model (McFarland, 1970)⁹. This model consists of a vertical dimension

³Yoder, Dale, Heneman, H. G., Jr., Turnbull, John G., and Stone, Harold C., 1968, Handbook of Personnel Management and Labor Relations. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, p. 6.3.

⁴Yoder, Dale, 1962, Personnel Management and Industrial Relations. Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, pp. 79-80.

⁵McFarland, Dalton E., 1970, Management Principles and Practices. The MacMillan Company, Collier-MacMillan Limited, London, p. 336.

⁶Ibid., p. 337.

⁷Ibid., p. 337.

⁸Massie, Joseph L., 1964, Essentials of Management. Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, p. 54.

⁹Op. Cit., p. 338.

of different

horizontal

branches or

COMPONENTS

The bas

enterprise

component

horizontal

The ve

are arrange

vertically

executive

bottom (Mc

Depart

and activi

of particu

mentalizat

that execu

activity (

department

1. E

2. E

10 Sp.

11 Sp.

12 Sp.

Of differentiated levels of authority and responsibility and a horizontal dimension of differentiated units such as departments, branches or divisions.

COMPONENTS OF ORGANIZATION STRUCTURE

The basic components of organizational structure in the business enterprise center on its horizontal and vertical dimensions. The basic component in the vertical dimension is the scalar level, and that of the horizontal dimension is departmentalization (McFarland, 1970)¹⁰.

The vertical dimension is comprised of levels of authority which are arranged into a hierarchy. All organizations distribute authority vertically in gradations called levels ranging from that of the executive at the top to the supervisory level of management near the bottom (McFarland, 1970)¹¹.

Departmentalization is the process of setting up groups of functions and activities or tasks, for purposes of assigning them as responsibilities of particular positions or people. The primary purpose of departmentalization is to subdivide the organization structure vertically so that executives or managers may specialize within restricted ranges of activity (McFarland, 1970)¹². There are four main types of departmentalization.

1. By function; eg. finance, production, sales.
2. By process; eg. bottling, crating, storing, shipping.

¹⁰Op. Cit., p. 340.

¹¹Op. Cit., p. 340.

¹²Op. Cit., p. 342.

3. By geographical area of location; eg, branch plants and branch offices.
4. By product; eg. engines, bodies, accessories, exports.

The primary problem involved in departmentalization is one of coordination of all the functions or units (Haimann and Scott, 1970¹³, McFarland, 1970¹⁴).

THE OVERALL FORM OF ORGANIZATION

The growth of an organization creates problems for the manager who must decide how to expand the structure. Both vertical and horizontal dimensions may be combined in various ways to achieve the desired result.

Basic Structural Types

Line Organization. Consists of the direct vertical relationship which connects the positions and tasks of each level with those above and below it -- often called the chain of command. McFarland (1970)¹⁵ points out that the line structure is indispensable to all organized effort; any other form must relate to it in such a way that its integrity and effectiveness of action are not impaired. The line structure provides channels of communication upward and downward linking the various parts together through connections with the ultimate source of authority in the organization.

Line and Staff Organization. Is similar to the line organization in that each worker reports to a single supervisor. However, as the

¹³Op. Cit., pp. 175-187.

¹⁴Op. Cit., pp. 342-346.

¹⁵Op. Cit., p. 354.

size and c
in the busi
staff depa
the areas
personnel
president

Function

as account
This enable
to exercise
accounts on
efficient co
1970-1971.

Committee

permanent co
differ from
investigative
Example of
who are char
carry powers

16 Broom
Management.

17 Op. C

18 Op. C

19 Op. C

20 Op. C

size and complexity of a business increases, the need for specialists in the business enterprise grows. These specialists are set up in staff departments and their function is to aid the line organization in the areas or functions assigned to it. Examples of staff include the personnel manager, quality control specialist and assistant to the president (Broom and Longenecker, 1961¹⁶, McFarland, 1970¹⁷).

Functional Organization. Is one where various activities such as accounting and quality control are organized as separate departments. This enables personnel in the accounting or quality control departments to exercise authority over line personnel in matters pertaining to accounts or quality. This division of authority may interfere with efficient operations (Broom and Longenecker, 1961¹⁸, and McFarland, 1970¹⁹).

Committee Organization. Involves designating key executives to a permanent committee with authority for action and decision -- these differ from special ad hoc committees whose purposes are generally investigative rather than decision making (McFarland, 1970)²⁰. An example of the committee organization is found in executive committees, who are charged with formulating broad company aims and policies and carry powers of decision.

¹⁶Broom, H. N., and Longenecker, J. G., 1961, Small Business Management. South-Western Publishing Co., Cincinnati, pp. 241-242.

¹⁷Op. Cit., pp. 355-357.

¹⁸Op. Cit., p. 241.

¹⁹Op. Cit., pp. 357-361.

²⁰Op. Cit., p. 361.

Designing and

Peter D.

A
produce
does not
moral s
good per
individ.

when see

keep in mind

the following

1. Prov

2. Prov

3. Prov

orga

4. Prov

Choice of Type

The dec

the work rec

analyzing t

plan and de

Broom

practical

21. Druck
and Row, Puc

22. Op. Ci

23. Op. Ci

24. Op. Ci

Designing and Organization Structure

Peter Drucker (1954)²¹ points out that,

A good organization structure does not by itself produce good performance -- just as a good constitution does not guarantee great presidents, or good laws, or a moral society. But a poor organization structure makes good performance impossible, no matter how good the individual managers may be.

When speaking of designing an organization structure it is well to keep in mind the functions of this structure. McFarland (1970)²² lists the following functions of organization structure.

1. Providing an efficient production system,
2. Providing a system of communication,
3. Providing satisfactions to individual members of the organization,
4. Providing organizational and individual identities.

Choice of Type of Organizational Structure

The decision as to what kind of structure will best accomplish the work required of it presents first the problem of describing and analyzing the presently existing structure and secondly developing a plan and design for the desired structure (McFarland, 1970)²³.

Broom and Longenecker (1961)²⁴ point out that the only two practical alternatives for most small firms are the line organization

²¹ Drucker, Peter F., 1954, The Practice of Management. Harper and Row, Publishers, Inc., New York, pp. 225-226.

²² Op. Cit., pp. 368-271.

²³ Op. Cit., p. 379.

²⁴ Op. Cit., p. 243.

and the 11th

two types of

company's s

the 11th

That

vice versa

The chief

is a tender

condition

holding tr

fluence tr

part of tr

often desi

particular

ACTIVITY

McFar

to guide c

which are

An importa

authority

ment's aut

25 Fli
McGraw-Hill

26 Op.

27 Op.

and the line and staff organization. The decision as to which of these two types should be utilized can usually be made on the basis of the company's size.

THE INDIVIDUAL AND ORGANIZATION DESIGN

That the organization structure has an effect on individuals and vice versa is pointed out by Flipppo (1962)²⁵ and McFarland (1970)²⁶. The chief effect of organization structure upon individuals within it is a tendency to fix the nature and scope of their activities and to condition the direction of the growth and development of the executives holding the various positions. On the other hand executives also influence the structure, through exercising leadership and altering that part of the organization which is under their responsibility. It is often desirable to adapt a structure in order to accomodate to the particular weaknesses or strengths of executives.

AUTHORITY AND RESPONSIBILITY

McFarland (1970)²⁷ defines authority in management as "the right to guide or direct the actions of others and to exact from them responses which are appropriate to the attainment of the organization's purposes". An important aspect of authority discussed by many authors is that authority must be accepted. They all agree that the source of management's authority is acceptance by subordinates (Haimann and Scott,

²⁵Flipppo, Edwin B., 1962, Principles of Personnel Management. McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, p. 64.

²⁶Op. Cit., pp. 394-396.

²⁷Op. Cit., p. 403.

1970²⁸, VC

Manac:

vests a S:

WATER RESOURCES

ment de l'écologie.

on the part

assigned d.

Parader Cr.

responsibility

have been:

have been a

1. Primary or secondary amine

REMARKS:

Struct

organization

Management

communicat

tion for f

החברה

2802.

29 Op.

3002

3100

3200

33

1970²⁸, McFarland, 1970²⁹).

Management delegates authority to subordinates and in so doing vests a subordinate with a portion of its own authority to operate within prescribed limits (Haimann and Scott, 1970)³⁰. When management delegates authority to a subordinate it also creates an obligation on the part of the subordinate for the satisfactory performance of assigned duties. The acceptance of such an obligation by the subordinate manager creates responsibility. It is important that authority and responsibility be commensurate. This means that the subordinate must have been delegated enough authority to undertake all the duties which have been assigned to him and for which he has accepted responsibility (Haimann and Scott, 1970)³¹.

ORGANIZATION CHARTS

Structure of the organization may be graphically portrayed by organization charts. Such charts can be of considerable assistance to management in portraying the existing organization, in improving communications and personnel relations, and in analyzing the organization for future planning purposes (Broom and Longenecker, 1961)³², Haimann and Scott, 1970³³).

²⁸Op. Cit., pp. 190-193.

²⁹Op. Cit., p. 404.

³⁰Op. Cit., p. 194.

³¹Op. Cit., pp. 202-204.

³²Op. Cit., p. 248.

³³Op. Cit., p. 221.

Altho
about 95 per
which prese
arrangement
the success
form. Hor
and Scott,
Baker
employees
employing
charts.

ORGANIZATION

The au
pertaining
there was a
and the fam
division of
Florida dair

For pur
of the farms

34 Op. C

35 Op. C

36 Cash,
For milking
of Illinois,

37 Ande
and Labor Ma
Economics M

Although different types of organization charts are available, about 95 percent of companies use the vertical organization chart, which presents the different levels of the organization in a step arrangement with the senior executive at the top of the chart and the successive levels of management depicted vertically in pyramid form. Horizontal and circular charts are sometimes used (Haimann and Scott, 1970)³⁴.

Baker (1955)³⁵ found that in companies with less than 25 employees less than 10 percent had organization charts. In firms employing 150-299 employees close to 50 percent maintained organization charts.

ORGANIZATION STRUCTURE IN AGRICULTURE

The author was unable to discover any significant literature pertaining to this function in agriculture. Cash (1968)³⁶ found that there was a tendency on farms with larger herds to separate the dairy and the farming enterprises. Anderson and Greene (1969)³⁷ reported a division of the labor between milkers, feeders and clean-up crew on many Florida dairy farms.

For purposes of this study it was thought that the size of many of the farms visited would be approaching the organizational complexity,

³⁴Op. Cit., pp. 222-224.

³⁵Op. Cit., p. 25.

³⁶Cash, J. G., 1968, Some Factors for Consideration When Planning For Milking Herds of 150+ Cows. Department of Dairy Science, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois, p. 5.

³⁷Anderson, Charles L., and Greene, R. E. L., 1969, Use of Labor and Labor Management Practices on Florida Dairy Farms. Agricultural Economics Mimeo Report EC 69-12, Gainesville, Florida, pp. 18-20.

where the t
be helpful

RESULTS OF

The re
to question
questions d
are conside
the more sa
these stat
Due to the s
analyzed sta

SOME STATIS

The ave
rends were 1
majority of
20 years and
Many had cha
to economic

Farms i
it more diff
the average
to 2.0 in the
The smaller s
small land a
purchasing la

Ten dair
farms the ave

where the theories of complex organization or organization theory would be helpful in explaining what is happening.

RESULTS OF PRESENT STUDY PERTAINING TO ORGANIZATION

The results and observations discussed in this section pertain to questions three through 27, as shown in Appendix B. Many of these questions do not pertain directly to the topic of organization, but are considered important from the point of view of presenting some of the more salient statistics of the farms visited. Where appropriate these statistics have been presented separately for the five regions. Due to the small sample size these figures cannot be meaningfully analyzed statistically, though certain trends can be observed.

SOME STATISTICS

The average size herd in the study was 1,579 cows. The largest herds were located in California and the smallest in the East. The majority of dairymen had been in the dairying business for more than 20 years and some had been in the business for more than 50 years. Many had changed the location of their business during this time due to economic pressures and the spread of urbanization.

Farms in the East were smaller in their conception, thus making it more difficult to amass a large unit. This fact helps explain the average of 3.7 parcels of land farmed by eastern dairymen, compared to 2.0 in the Southeastern region and 1.5 in the Mid-West and California. The smaller size of farms in the East appears to be the result of the small land allotments granted to early settlers and the difficulty of purchasing large blocks of land in such an old established society.

Ten dairymen operated more than one dairy herd. For these farms the average number of dairy herds was 3.3 with a range of two

to six.

The

to the av

that repo

arding a

rends ope

these had

In Califor

remainder

TYPE OF WORK

The t

and compon

however, fo

only one en

the partner

seven emplo

at least tr

employed pr

NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES

The re

tive and du

analysis ca

workers inte

major job ac

group of spe

are responsi

others (part

to six.

The average number of youngstock on the farms was closely related to the average number of cows. The herds in the Mid-West and East that reported a low percentage of replacements raised were rapidly expanding and, therefore, purchasing replacements from outside. Three herds operated under contract system for raising replacements. Two of these had an option to buy their own heifers back from the contractor. In California, two of the herds kept no replacements at all, while the remainder had 100 percent replacement programs.

TYPE OF OWNERSHIP

The three types of ownership, i.e., single ownership, partnership and corporation were found in all five regions. There was a preference, however, for the corporation in the Southeast. Of the 12 partnerships, only one employed a full-time professional manager. Generally, one of the partners managed the dairy operation. Of the 15 corporations only seven employed professional managers who managed the entire farm or at least the dairy enterprise. Of the nine single ownerships only four employed professional managers.

NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES

The responses to number and kind of employees were purely descriptive and due to the large differences between many of the farms little analysis can be carried out. An attempt was made to categorize the workers into various positions and the list does help to identify the major job activities on these dairy farms. Milkers stand out as a group of specialized people on every farm. On some farms the milkers are responsible for getting their own cows in to be milked, while on others (particularly in Florida and Texas) cow pushers are utilized to

bring the
cows per m
efficient,
busters and
efficient,

The la
indicated
Questi
organization
personnel -
in Appendix

WORK STRUCTURE

hirete
same milker
a straight-
The split s
farms with
Florida and
milking tec
more modern

There
as herd siz

HOURS WORKED

The mo
day, six da
was not se

bring the cows to the milkers. In looking at the number of milking cows per milker, it was found that the Southeast was the most efficient, with an average of 134 cows per milker. Again, when pushers and milkers were considered the Southeast was still the most efficient, with 126 cows per milker and pusher.

The labor force was constant on 23 of the farms. The remainder indicated higher requirements in summer for silage and hay making.

Questions 12 through 22, though generally concerned with farm organization are not particularly relevant to this discussion on personnel management. The responses to these questions are categorized in Appendix B and where necessary individual items will be referred to.

WORK STRUCTURE

Nineteen of the farms operated on a split-shift basis, using the same milkers for morning and evening milkings. The remainder operated a straight-shift, utilizing different milkers in the morning and evening. The split shifts were most notable in Florida and California and on farms with flat-barn milking systems. Flat-barns were most common in Florida and California also. These barns represented an older type of milking technology and many were being, or about to be replaced by more modern parlor-type barns.

There was a tendency to move towards the use of straight shifts as herd sizes increased and as the milking facilities were modernized.

HOURS WORKED

The most common arrangement for milkers was to work nine hours per day, six days a week, having one day off. In most instances the day off was not set, but in a few cases the day off was rotational, thus giving

amar a cha

ten hours p

cotton.

Outside

day being b

Unioniz

tioned prev

systems. Th

amount of w

The co.

observed in

RELIEF WORK

The ma

In some cas

relief work

appeared to

outside me

ORGANIZATI

None

attempt wa

Chart for

organizati

in the eve

classified

The r

structure

quite com

a man a chance of having two days off together every seventh week. Ten hours per day was quite common also, and eight hours per day less common.

Outside workers typically worked longer hours, with ten hours per day being the most common, and six days a week.

Unionization did not affect the hours worked -- though as mentioned previously they did have set rates per cow milked by various systems. This insured a man of being paid for the time he worked and amount of work done.

The couple of instances of very long hours of outside work were observed in the Mid-West.

RELIEF MILKING

The majority of dairies had set relief men to relieve milkers. In some cases the supervisor was the relief man, while in other cases relief work was handled by family members. The larger dairies appeared to have a very good system for relief of both milkers and outside men. On these farms relief work was a full-time job.

ORGANIZATION STRUCTURE

None of the farms visited maintained organization charts. An attempt was made, however, through questioning to establish such a chart for each farm. As shown in Figure 1, six classifications of organization structure were identified. They represent different levels in the evolution of the management function. The respondents were classified in the closest appropriate category.

The most common types of structure were III and IV. The simplest structure, type I, was followed in five dairies. Type V which is quite complex was observed on six dairies, while type VI which is the

1000

1

1

1000

1

1

1

1

1

1

1

1

1

1

1

1

1

1

1

1

1

1

1

1

1

1

1

1

1

1

1

1

1

1

1

1

1

1

1

1

1

1

1

1

1

1

1

1

1

1

1

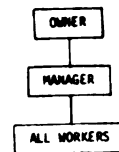
FIGURE 1. ORGANIZATION CHARTS SHOWING TYPES OF ORGANIZATION STRUCTURE FOR THE SAMPLE OF LARGE SCALE DAIRY FARMS.

QUESTION 25

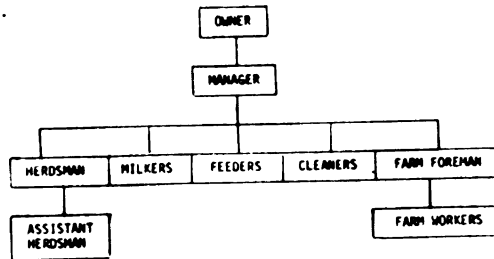
I.



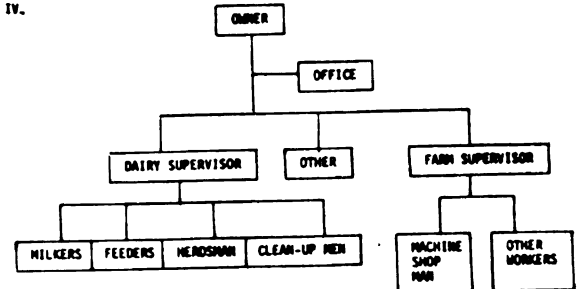
II.



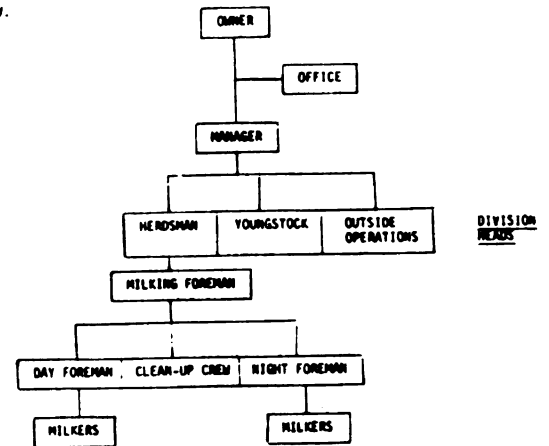
III.



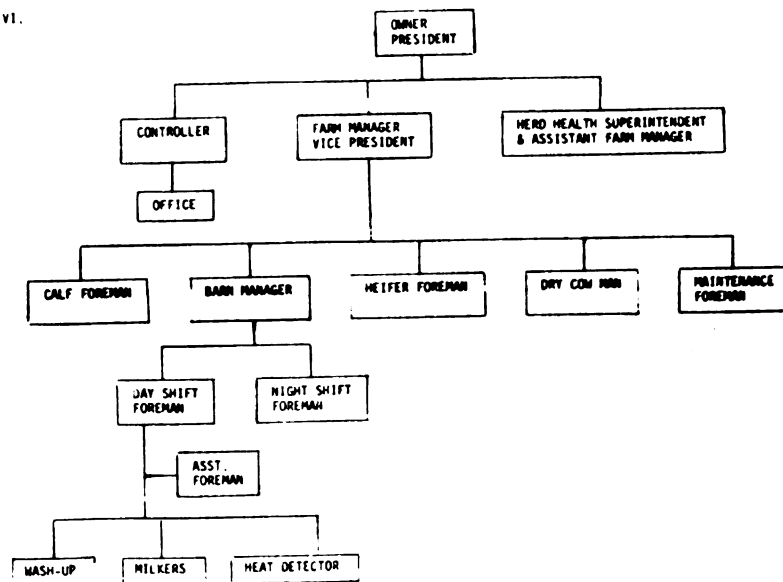
IV.



V.



VI.



the most complex was observed on one dairy. In general, as the size of herd increased and as more people were employed so did the complexity of organization structure.

RESPONSIBILITY FOR LABOR MANAGEMENT

In most cases the owner or his manager were responsible for labor management. Two owners mentioned that they and their managers did this jointly. Eight respondents said that their supervisors were directly responsible for the men under them and would only refer problems they could not handle to the owner or manager.

DISCUSSION

It was obvious from discussion organization structure with these dairymen, that very few had given much thought to this function of management. That some structure did exist was evident from the charts which were established through questioning and the dairymen became very interested in these charts as a way of viewing their organization. The charts developed were of the hierarchial model showing both the vertical and horizontal dimensions of the organizations.

In the classification developed, types I and II show only a vertical dimension, while all other classifications show both vertical and horizontal division of management. Type IV shows the clear use of departmentalization between dairy and farm activities with a supervisor in charge of each. This decentralization by process is carried further in type V with the creation of more divisions, and there is also greater use of the scalar level within the division headed by the herdsman.

Some of these larger farms, having more than one dairy, were

decentralized to an extent and each dairy or division was set up as a profit center. Organization types I to V represented line organizations, there was no use of staff other than office personnel.

Type VI was the most complex organization visited. It was comprised of the President, Vice President (Farm Manager), Herd Health Superintendent (Assistant Farm Manager) and the Controller. This corporate staff comprised the executive committee also, which had responsibility for planning. Four barn managers as well as other division heads reported directly to the Vice President and Farm Manager and each milking barn was set up as a profit center.

It was evident that many of these farms lacked an organization structure that would enable them to operate more efficiently. There was an unwillingness among many owners and managers to delegate authority to workers and to create supervisory positions of responsibility. Some managers, though conscious of this, said that they lacked the caliber of man willing to take on any responsibility. This, however, left too much responsibility with the owner or manager himself and severely limited the time he could devote to planning and organizing functions of management.

STRAIGHT VS. SPLIT SHIFT

A common topic for discussion among large scale dairymen is the shift arrangement. The tendency to move toward the use of a straight shift as herd sizes increase and as facilities are modernized represents an effort to give dairy workers hours and conditions more in line with their industrial counterparts.

Some of the dairies that tried changing to a straight shift where different men milked the cows in the morning and in the evening were

forced to
relating
straight
and even
problems
and vice
bacterial
shift.

It w
none clos
to the ty
certain c
appears t

The
previous
not be wi

CONCLUSION

The
based on
individual
practices

1.

2.

3.

forced to change back to a split shift due to mastitis problems developing in the cows. Indeed, this is the main objection to the straight shift for the same man no longer milks the same cows morning and evening. This means that there is a loss of control in identifying problems and the morning shift man can blame the evening shift man and vice versa. On the other hand, some dairymen reported improved bacterial counts and mastitis condition when changing to a straight shift.

It would appear that the milk quality and herd health status are more closely related to management and control systems established than to the type of shift used. The use of a straight shift does necessitate certain changes in herd management but provided these are adopted there appears to be no reason why the straight shift cannot work.

The workers themselves prefer a straight shift and those who previously worked a split shift and are now on a straight shift would not be willing to change.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The following conclusions and recommendations would appear justified, based on the type and frequency of response and comments made by individual operators and also in light of the review of industrial practices.

1. Large scale dairymen are not particularly conscious of the part an organization can play in helping them to manage.
2. The establishment of simple organization charts of their present organization may help dairymen to view it more objectively.
3. There is an unwillingness among many owners and managers to delegate authority. This severely limits the capacity of these

4.

5.

organizations to grow.

4. Owners and managers should seek young men who are willing to take on responsibility and delegate to them the necessary amount of authority. Many owners are unwilling to pay the price for a man of this ability. They should consider the potential for growth, through having more capable employees.
5. The use of straight shifts will increase in the future in an effort to give dairy workers comparable working hours and conditions as enjoyed by industrial workers. This will be facilitated by improved systems of herd management and controls which will minimize the presently feared cow problems associated with changing from a split to a straight shift.

of new
for pr
organ
in to
numbe

serie
Selle
acci

DECP

rech
tion
tra

Mc.

501

CHAPTER VI

THE HIRING PROCESS

This chapter will discuss the recruitment, selection and placement of new employees.

Flipppo (1966)¹ defines recruitment as, "the process of searching for prospective employees and stimulating them to apply for jobs in the organization". The same author points out that recruitment is "positive" in that its objective is to increase the selection ratio, that is, the number of applicants per job opening.

The selection procedure is defined by Flipppo (1966)² as, "a series of methods of securing pertinent information about the applicant". Selection he states is "negative" in that it attempts to eliminate applicants, leaving only the best to be placed in the organization.

RECRUITMENT

Since the manpower needs of no company are completely static, the recruitment function is a continuous one. The Small Business Administration (1961)³ points out that sound employee recruitment practices demand that:

1. The short and long term manpower needs of the organization are considered, including the probable turnover of labor. Job descriptions and job specifications should be established, as

¹Flipppo, Edwin B., 1966, Principles of Personnel Management. McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, p. 47.

²Ibid., p. 137.

³Small Business Administration, 1961, Personnel Management Guides for Small Business. Small Business Management Series No. 26, p. 5.

po

ad

te

em

in

fi

tr

u

u

m

w

F

e

t

-

-

-

-

B

T

discussed in Chapter III on planning.

2. A regular recruitment program be organized, bearing in mind that the principles of selection involve having a large number of recruits from which to pick the most suitable. The labor supply will, of course, influence the number of applicants.
3. All sources of recruitment should be tapped so that the final selection can be made from the total pool of applicants.

The Small Business Administration (1961)⁴ lists the following

possible sources of manpower; present employees, former employees, chance applicants, trade and industrial associations, clergymen, schools and teachers, customers and suppliers, state employment agencies, commercial employment agencies, advertising in the local press and trade magazines in labor unions. These sources may be classified as external to the firm, as compared to promoting and transferring employees already within the company.

Baker (1955)⁵ found that the two external sources most frequently used by small manufacturing companies were casual applicants and recommended labor by present employees. The next most popular sources were public employment agencies and recommendations of former employees. Flippo (1962)⁶ points out that not every firm can afford to develop every source of labor to the fullest extent. It is, therefore, important to try and ascertain the most successful sources of employees so

⁴Ibid., pp. 8-9.

⁵Baker, Alton W., 1955, Personnel Management in Small Plants. Bureau of Business Research, College of Commerce and Administration, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, p. 53.

⁶Op. Cit., p. 135.

tra

SE

the

use

the

the

sa

eve

int

of

de

ca

vi

an

pa

re

de

a

that the recruitment program can be more carefully aimed.

SELECTION

Having secured as many applicants as possible from whom to choose, the next task is to screen them. The screening tools most commonly used and identified by Baker (1955)⁷ are: the preliminary interview, the application blank, the reference check, physical examination and the personal interview.

Preliminary Interview: Conducting a preliminary interview will save considerable time and expense, which would be involved in having every applicant go through the entire selection procedure. This interview is usually quite short and has as its purpose the elimination of the obviously unqualified (Flipppo, 1962)⁸. In order to insure that potentially successful candidates are not eliminated at this point, careful standards for rejection should be set up for use in this interview, Baker (1955)⁹.

Application Blanks: These may have several purposes, all or any of which may be utilized by a particular company, depending upon its particular need. These purposes include using the form as a permanent record, eliminating candidates with obviously unsuited characteristics, determining applicant's ability to follow instructions and providing a basis for a subsequent detailed interview (Baker, 1955)¹⁰.

⁷Op. Cit., pp. 63-66.

⁸Op. Cit., p. 140.

⁹Op. Cit., p. 64.

¹⁰Op. Cit., p. 64.

Though certain biographical information such as age, education, military service status, marital status, skills, past experience and social security number are common to all application blanks, the questions should not presume to pry too deeply into the applicant's personal affairs (Small Business Administration, 1961)¹¹.

References: The use of references is common to many selection procedures. The primary methods of checking references include telephone calls or personal calls to those close by; secondary methods include the use of written references and reports from outside agencies (Baker, 1955)¹². Flipppo (1962)¹³ points out that the closer one can get to the reference giver, the more accurate and valuable will be the information obtained. But, the Small Business Administration (1961)¹⁴ says that in judging references one should be circumspect, since an employer does not usually dwell on an ex-employee's weak points and does not wish to spoil the ex-employee's chances at another job.

Physical Examinations: The use of pre-employment physical examinations is more and more becoming recognized as an indispensable step in the selection process. This examination, according to Baker (1955)¹⁵ serves three functions. These are; placing individuals in jobs which are suitable to their health and physical conditions, safeguarding the health of present employees against communicable diseases and guarding the experience record of the company under workmen's

¹¹Op. Cit., p. 12.

¹²Op. Cit., p. 64.

¹³Op. Cit., p. 147.

¹⁴Op. Cit., p. 14.

¹⁵Op. Cit., p. 65.



compensation laws.

Testing: An employment test is an instrument designed to measure selected factors which contribute to a man's ability to perform his job (Flipppo, 1962)¹⁶. Baker (1955)¹⁷ states that "when properly validated tests are used discriminately and intelligently, they are useful instruments in helping to predict whether or not an applicant will be successful on the job, in which he is to be placed. Strauss and Sayles (1963)¹⁸ identify five general types of tests that can be used. These are; (1) performance tests, (2) intelligence tests, (3) aptitude tests, (4) personality tests and (5) situational tests.

Baker (1955)¹⁹ questions whether tests should be used at all in small companies. He states, that if tests are to be used, it is advisable to secure the assistance of trained testing personnel from outside the organization, rather than risk the possibility of misusing psychological tests.

Personal Interview: Flipppo (1962)²⁰ states, that although the interview is highly subjective and frequently inexact, that it is nonetheless essential. The primary objective of this interview is to gather information not obtainable by other means and to determine the

¹⁶Op. Cit., p. 155.

¹⁷Op. Cit., p. 65.

¹⁸Strauss, George and Sayles, Leonard R., 1963, Personnel: The Human Problems of Management. Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, pp. 442-445.

¹⁹Op. Cit., p. 65.

²⁰Op. Cit., p. 148.

individual's characteristics and qualifications in terms of his potential success. Secondary objectives include informing or teaching applicants about the essential facts connected with the job and with the company, and developing an attitude of understanding and goodwill between the prospective employee and the company (Baker, 1955)²¹.

Baker (1955)²² found that the methods of selection most frequently used by small manufacturing firms were the preliminary interview, the detailed interview, the application blanks and the reference check. Larger companies made wider use of formalized procedures than did small companies.

INDUCTION

The procedure of introducing or orienting a new employee to the organization is referred to as induction (Flipppo, 1962)²³. Baker (1955)²⁴ states that unless a new employee is cordially received and oriented to his new surroundings he will begin to wonder if he was wise in his choice of employment. It is, therefore, important that the new worker be made to feel that he is a member of the company family and not just another "hired hand". This author also found that companies of all sizes were increasingly developing systematic induction programs. In large companies this can be done on a group basis, but in a small company this would not be necessary. One method for a small company is to have

²¹Op. Cit., p. 66.

²²Op. Cit., p. 66.

²³Op. Cit., p. 151.

²⁴Op. Cit., pp. 71-72.

the supervisor take charge of the induction personally. Another method is for the supervisor to introduce the new employee to an older worker or "sponsor" who has been selected on the basis of his understanding, judgement and personality.

The induction program should provide the employee with information concerning the organization of the company, the nature of the production process and personnel programs.

HIRING EMPLOYEES FOR AGRICULTURE

Daniel Sturt (1969)²⁵ points out that although farm labor supply is a function of wages (or the wage package) as well as non-farm employment opportunities and unemployment levels in the non-farm sector, that this is not the whole story. Supply is also a function of employer recruitment practices, labor management and the work environment, coupled with the societal image of farm work. He states that farm employers have typically had an abundance of available workers and have not felt the need for aggressive recruitment procedures. The lack of job descriptions has also hampered the development of recruiting procedures.

Murrill and Pelissier (1967)²⁶ reported on the development and success of a recruiting program set up in the San Joaquin Valley, California, to encourage the entry of new people into the dairy labor pool. This program included the upgrading of the profession, the

²⁵Sturt, Daniel W., 1969, The Manpower Game. Rural Manpower Center, Michigan State University, East Lansing, p. 11.

²⁶Murrill, Frank D. and Pelissier, C. L., 1967, Dairy Labor-Management Relations in the San Joaquin Valley. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Dairy Science Association, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York, June 25-29, 1967, pp. 4-8.

formation of an employment clearing house and referral system and coordination and cooperation with pertinent agencies.

Dairy employment is no longer limited to men only and the fact that women make good farm employees is pointed out by Graden (1971)²⁷. This author shows the increased use of women milkers in Florida farms in order to solve labor problems particularly turnover, and gives some pointers for the successful use of women as milkers.

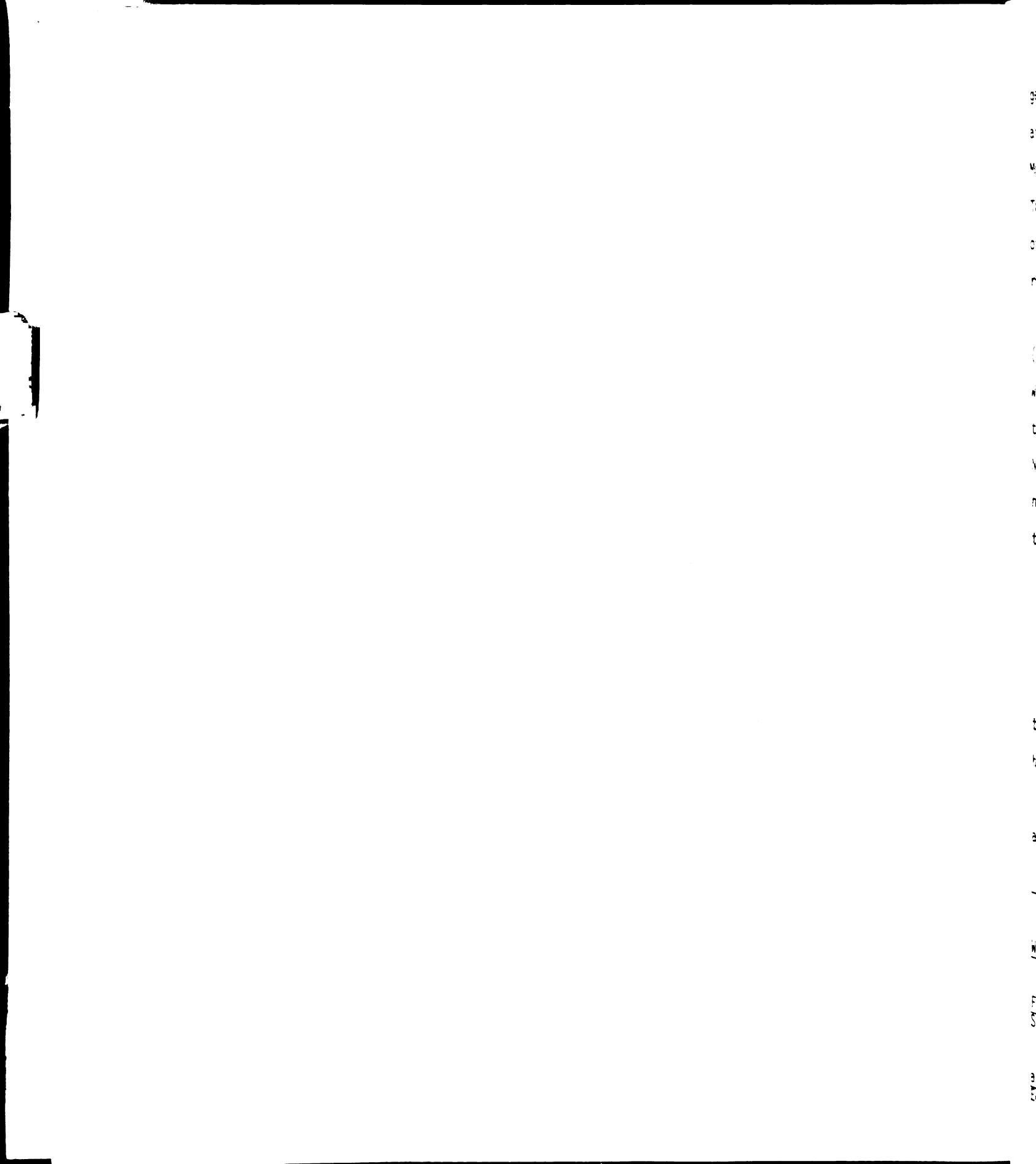
In these times of urban unrest and air pollution Murley (1970)²⁸ maintains that many workers and their families would welcome an opportunity to move to the country to a job with security, satisfactory working conditions, a place to raise their family, good schools, churches and clean community living. Reaching these people with an attractive job offer should be easy through newspaper or magazine advertisement, or perhaps through employment agencies, friends, relatives and by the grapevine. This author also points out the necessity for a good induction program involving the worker's family. This includes introducing them to their new associates, finding the church of their choice, acquainting them with the schools and generally making them feel that you are interested in them and that their living conditions and happiness is important to you.

Stevens (1966)²⁹ in a study of "Farmers' Use of the New York State Employment Service to Recruit Regular Labor" found that despite a

²⁷Graden, Arthur P., 1971, Women Are Good Farm Employees. Paper presented at the Southeast Dairy Conference, Jacksonville, Florida, March 23, 1971.

²⁸Murley, Ray W., 1970, Recruiting Dairy Farm Labor. Dairy Science Department, Virginia Polytechnic Institute, Blacksburg.

²⁹Stevens, Virgil J., 1968, Farmers' Use of the New York State Employment Service to Recruit Regular Labor, 1966, A. E. Res. 270, Department of Agricultural Economics, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York, p. 21.



generally tight labor market, only a small proportion of farmers adjacent to these employment offices made use of the services offered. Most farm workers found jobs without the direct aid of the offices. Those farm operators who did place job orders with the employment offices found that a creditable performance was turned in by the field representatives in placing applicants in a relatively short time.

In a study carried out by the United States Department of Agriculture (1969)³⁰ on "Regular Hired Workers on Dairy Farms in New York and Wisconsin", it was found that dairy farmers in both states were unable to satisfy their requirements for workers. As a result, 21 percent of New York dairy farmers and 13 percent of those in Wisconsin would have hired one or more additional workers in 1967. The reasons given for the low supply of dairy workers were:

1. A lack of sufficient recruiting practices.
2. Wages and benefits were not competitive with industry.
3. The working hours on dairy farms were too long.

In his study of Michigan dairy farms, Shapley (1969)³¹ found that about seven percent expressed a need for an extra man if they could have got one.

In regard to the qualities desired in dairy workers, Anderson and Greene (1969)³² found that the most frequently mentioned personal

³⁰United States Department of Agriculture, 1969, Regular Hired Workers on Dairy Farms in New York and Wisconsin. Draft received, p. 3.

³¹Shapley, Allen E., 1969, Full-Time Employees on Michigan Dairy Farms. Rural Manpower Center, Report No. 20, October, 1969, Michigan State University, East Lansing, p. 12.

³²Anderson, Charles L. and Greene, R. E. L., 1969, Use of Labor and Labor Management Practices on Florida Dairy Farms. Agricultural Economics Mimeo Report EC 69-12, Gainesville, Florida, p. 26.



traits desired were soberness, dependability, cleanliness, interest in work and promptness. Most dairymen preferred a man to have some dairy experience or at least some farm experience. Married men were generally preferred and there was a tendency to favor younger men. Dairymen were not too concerned with the educational level of employees (also found by Shapley, 1969)³³, but some were looking for high school graduates.

The most common method of recruitment found by Anderson and Greene (1969)³⁴ was through personal contact.

The use of employment agreements in hiring farm workers was studied by Armstrong (1969)³⁵. He found that the employment agreement or memorandum of understanding had the following advantages:

1. It aids the farmer in thinking through a sound labor-management program.
2. It stimulates discussion between the farmer and the worker at the time of employment rather than at a time of disagreement.
3. It communicates the critical issues between the parties.
4. It assures representation of both parties.
5. It provides a record if disagreement occurs.
6. It provides benchmarks when discussing changes or modifications for future agreements.

³³Op. Cit., p. 13.

³⁴Op. Cit., p. 27.

³⁵Armstrong, David L., 1969, Employment Agreements in Hiring Farm Workers. Rural Manpower Center, Special Paper No. 9, April, 1969, Michigan State University, East Lansing, p. 4.

Given and Hundley (1966)³⁶ in their study of Michigan dairy farms, found that hired men were seldom fired, but instead, were usually placed in a situation which they found to be intolerable and were thus forced to quit of their own accord.

RESULTS OF PRESENT STUDY PERTAINING TO THE HIRING PROCESS

The results presented in this section pertain to questions 40 through 56. The categories of response and their frequency are shown in Appendix B.

RECRUITING

The most common method of making it known that a new employee was needed was by word of mouth. This was mentioned 14 times. Closely related to this was personal contact with dairymen and workers in other areas. Ten said that they always had a backlog of applicants or people coming by looking for work. This they said was even more evident due to the generally high level of unemployment.

New employees came mostly from applicants who stopped by looking for a job or replied to advertisements. Present employees were the next most frequent source of employees. Where available, local men were preferred to outsiders by many dairymen. The majority of respondents found no particular source to be any more satisfactory than others. Some, however, preferred small farmers who had given up farming, while others preferred to get people from other dairies.

³⁶Given, Charles W. and Hundley, James R., Jr., 1966, Human Relations on Dairy Farms. Rural Manpower Center, No. 2, November, 1966, Michigan State University, East Lansing, p. 23.

S

S

C

C

A

B

B

F

A

F

t

f

B

E

S

A

B

C

C

O

C

F

t

C

C

SELECTION

All the respondents interviewed prospective employees, at least to some extent. Some interviews were very informal, while others in conjunction with the use of the application form were quite detailed. Only two dairies required their employees to have physical examinations.

In sizing up an employee the most frequently mentioned criterion was his general appearance. Married men were preferred because of their expected stability and responsibility and also because housing was available in most cases. A man's work history was important and showed his experience and background, giving some indication of whether he was a transient or not. References were sought by 14 respondents. Fourteen also said that experience was important, while eight said that it was not and that they were willing to train a man. In the interview many looked specifically for the man's general attitude and enthusiasm as giving some indication of his willingness to work. Eight said that they preferred young men of less than 30, while 11 said that age was not important. The tendency to prefer younger men was particularly noticeable where flat barns were used, due to the extra physical strain involved in milking in these barns as compared to a parlor barn.

Short milking tests were used by four respondents, as a check on a man's ability to milk. One manager had a short written test developed by a dairy equipment company. Applicants were asked to read two short books about milk production and were later quizzed on this. This test served as a screening device and the manager was very happy with the results.

HIRING A SUPERVISOR

When asked what differences would there be in recruiting a supervisor as compared to another employee, 19 of the respondents said that a supervisor would need more experience. A higher level of education was sought by 11 respondents. Some of these only had minimal requirements of being able to read and write, while many sought at least a high school education. College graduates were sought by two respondents. An ability to handle people was important for a supervisor and 10 said that they would need a lot of background information on a supervisory candidate. Eight said that they had no experience in this area and seven said that rather than hire a supervisor they would prefer to promote a man from their present work force.

EVALUATION OF THE HIRING PROCESS

Fourteen dairymen reported "good" success in hiring new employees and two thought that they were doing very well. Others were not so happy and the four who said they were not satisfied had high turnover problems. The most frequently reported turnover rate was in the 20 to 30 percent range. Six had less than 10 percent turnover and four reported none at all over the past year. A turnover of 31 to 50 percent was reported by five dairymen and a manager of one of the largest dairies said that he had a 900 percent turnover.

The most frequently mentioned problems in hiring new employees was getting good men who were willing to work. This included being able to find suitably experienced men for particular jobs. Closely related to this was the problem of finding men who were dependable.

USE OF CONTRACTS

Thirty of the 36 respondents had no written contract with any of their workers. They relied solely on a verbal agreement as to wages, hours and benefits. Six dairies in California were unionized and the men working on these dairies had contracts with the union, while the union had a contract with the dairy. The union contract specified in detail the wages, hours and working conditions expected for its employees.

INDUCTING AND ORIENTING THE NEW EMPLOYEE

When a new man was hired, he was at least verbally informed about his job by the manager or a supervisor. Two dairies made use of job descriptions to help the man to better understand his job. Two other dairies were considering developing job descriptions. An employee handbook outlining the basic conditions of the job and some information about the company was used by one dairy, while one other dairy was developing such a handbook.

The majority of respondents said that a new employee was introduced individually to his fellow workers by the manager or supervisor. Often, however, a man would be introduced to his immediate work group and left on his own to meet the other men. Six respondents did no introducing at all and left this entirely up to the worker himself. Two dairymen used informal meetings as an occasion to introduce a new man.

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

The fact that many of the farms had a waiting list of applicants is very likely due to the relatively larger size of the farms visited and the fact that they are well known throughout the surrounding area.

Farm employees generally know that there is a good chance of getting a job on these larger farms and this would explain the large number who reported that new employees generally came from casual applicants. Some Florida dairymen advertised in the states of Georgia, Tennessee and Alabama, in the hope of attracting some small farmers. This source though very limited was much preferred to the usual source of Chicano or Mexican workers who tended to be transient.

Although many dairymen would like to employ college graduates in supervisory or managerial positions, they were quite critical of this source because of their experiences. They found that the college graduate thought of himself more as an executive rather than as a working manager and were unwilling to perform this work function. College graduates also expected high starting salaries, rather than starting at a lower scale and proving their worth. Most dairymen appeared willing to pay attractive salaries to a capable graduate, but only after he had proved that he was worth it.

The selection process was not very comprehensive on many farms. Many dairymen said that they could not be very selective, as they just did not get the caliber of man they needed, applying for jobs. One farm which was very actively trying to upgrade its caliber of employees was insisting on a minimum of a high school education for new employees. The manager said that this was proving to be successful and through offering good wages and working conditions he was able to attract men who would otherwise look to industry for jobs.

The biggest problem faced by dairymen was trying to get the right caliber of man for the job. Due to the lack of desired candidates and the transient nature of many of those who were seeking these jobs, many dairies suffered high turnover rates. The turnover problem

was always worst with milkers. Rarely was there a turnover problem with outside men. The high turnover rate of milkers was thought to be in part due to boredom with their job, their social isolation within the community, their transient nature and the fact that moving was made very easy because most dairies supplied housing.

The complete absence of contracts among all dairymen, other than those that were unionized was surprising, especially in light of the advantages pointed out by Armstrong (1969)³⁷. When questioned as to why they did not use written contracts, most felt that they were unnecessary. Many felt also that while the employee could bind the employer to the contract, that there was no point in the employer trying to bind the employee since an unhappy employee was better to leave the organization.

In light of the increasing importance being placed on induction programs in industry, there was very little evidence of this trend among the dairies visited. While a few smaller dairies did an excellent job in this respect, most of the larger dairies did a very poor job.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the results of this research, the observations of other researchers and in light of proven industrial and business practices, the following conclusions and recommendations would seem appropriate.

1. Dairymen may find it to their advantage to develop job descriptions for the major categories of jobs. This would enable the manager to more logically view each position and

³⁷Op. Cit., p. 4.

to establish the specifications which must be met by the new employee.

2. In order to make dairy employment more attractive each manager may benefit from carefully reviewing the working conditions, hours, wages and benefits he offers and improve them where it is practical to do so. This would enable him to present an overall attractive employment package to a prospective employee.
3. Dairymen may benefit from more active recruitment campaigns in order to attract the caliber of men they are seeking. More advertising could be done on an individual and group basis, pointing out the attractiveness of the employment package and the advantages of country living.
4. Assuming that a more active recruitment program would make more high caliber men available for dairy employment, a more comprehensive selection process may prove beneficial. The use of application blanks and a detailed interview should be considered. References may be sought also and the use of a preliminary interview may prove worthwhile. Larger dairies may find a place for performance tests to check a man's ability to milk and his knowledge of the basic physiology of milk production.
5. Dairymen may find it to their advantage to utilize employment contracts to the mutual benefit of employer and employee. The availability of such contracts may prove attractive to a prospective high caliber employee as it gives him a chance to more carefully review the position.
6. More attention to induction and trying to make the worker

feel a part of the organization may prove beneficial to dairymen. Researchers have a definite role to play in this as more knowledge of the social patterns and transient nature of many of these present dairy workers is needed before effective curative programs can be established.

177

of

and

the

(F)

only

pro

the

road

(F)

the

tra

to t

is b

by a

view

McGr

Busi

P. 18

CHAPTER VII

TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT

INTRODUCTION

The efficiency of any organization depends directly on the ability of its members to do their job -- that is on their training (Strauss and Sayles, 1963)¹. Training may be defined as the act of increasing the knowledge and skill of an employee for doing his particular job (Flipppo, 1966)².

In general, no firm has a choice of whether to train or not. The only choice is that of method. The absence of a systematic training program has been proven to result in higher training costs. This is the result of a considerably lengthened training period and the likelihood that the employee will not learn the best operating methods (Flipppo, 1966)³.

In relation to small businesses it is interesting to note what the Small Business Administration (1961)⁴ has to say with regard to training; "owner-managers of small businesses often feel that they have no time or 'cannot afford' to train their employees". Such thinking is based on a gross misconception, since your employees are indeed

¹ Strauss, George and Sayles, Leonard R., 1963, Personnel -- The Human Problems of Management. Prentice Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, p. 490.

² Flipppo, Edwin B., 1966, Principles of Personnel Management. McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, p. 201.

³ Ibid., p. 201.

⁴ Small Business Administration, 1961, Personnel Guides for Small Business. Small Business Administration, Management Series No. 26, p. 16.

your
and
you
hand
this
for

prog
and
Stal
and
agen
Save
four
gene
the
trait
assi

is a
of t

Pres

Bure
The

your greatest asset. When they are receiving training they are "growing" and at the same time helping your business to grow. It follows that you simply cannot afford NOT to train your work force, both the "new hands" and the "old hands". Strauss and Sayles (1963)⁵ also point out this need for continually training existing employees to develop people for promotions and transfers.

Most large firms provide a wide range of training and development programs designed to help employees increase their knowledge and skills and qualify themselves for continued employment and advancement. Small firms on the other hand generally provide little formal training and lean heavily on the programs of larger businesses and government agencies (Yoder, 1962)⁶. This latter statement is borne out by Baker (1955)⁷ in a study of Personnel Management in Small Plants. He found that smaller plants did not have highly organized programs and generally relied on the worker's supervisor or an older employee to do the training. In very small companies with less than 25 employees the training was most frequently done by an older employee who is temporarily assigned to the job.

It is important to remember that to an employee a learned skill is an asset that can only be taken away by the complete elimination of the need for that skill.

⁵Op. Cit., p. 490.

⁶Yoder, Dale, 1962, Personnel Management and Industrial Relations. Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, p. 406.

⁷Baker, Alton W., 1955, Personnel Management in Small Plants. Bureau of Business Research, College of Commerce and Administration, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, p. 228.

Training, however, is only one function of personnel management and the success of any training program is dependent on the success of other aspects of the personnel program. Where employees are already highly motivated and closely identified with the goals of the organization, well conceived training programs will lead to better performance (Strauss and Sayles, 1963)⁸. Some of the advantages of training operative personnel are given by Flippo (1966)⁹. He cites the following values of training: (1) increased productivity, (2) heightened morale, (3) reduced supervision, (4) reduced accidents and (5) increased organizational stability and flexibility.

The subject matter of training is very broad and there are a multiplicity of approaches to this task. A great deal of detail pertaining to training and other functions of personnel management is given in the Handbook of Personnel Management and Labor Relations by Yoder, et al (1958)¹⁰.

A distinction is made in most texts between training and education. Training is concerned with increasing knowledge and skill of doing a particular job, while education is concerned with increasing general knowledge and understanding of the total environment. Both training and education are involved in the development of personnel to the desired level of skill, knowledge and attitude. In general, the higher the job in an organization the more important education becomes as a job requirement.

⁸Op. Cit., p. 505.

⁹Op. Cit., p. 202.

¹⁰Yoder, Dale, Heneman, H. G., Turnbull, John G., and Stone, Harold C., 1958, Handbook of Personnel Management and Labor Relations. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, pp. 12.1-12.62.

Mention has already been made to operative personnel and the value of training them. However, the strength of any organization depends largely on its management. If the organization is to remain strong, it must provide opportunities for the continuing development of competent replacements for those who retire or die (Strauss and Sayles, 1963)¹¹. Since the 1940's there has been great interest in management development programs. This is the result of a shortage of executives created during the war, but also due to the increasing complexity of management and that management should be regarded as a distinct type of work, with its own disciplines, its own criteria for achievement; something which is both learnable and teachable (Flipppo, 1966¹², Strauss and Sayles, 1960¹³, Waite, 1952¹⁴).

Systems of training may be divided into those commonly used for operative personnel (Flipppo, 1966)¹⁵ and those used in Management Development (Flipppo, 1966¹⁶, Haimann and Scott, 1970¹⁷, Strauss and Sayles, 1963¹⁸).

¹¹Op. Cit., p. 525.

¹²Op. Cit., p. 216.

¹³Op. Cit., p. 509.

¹⁴Waite, William W., 1952, Personnel Administration. The Ronald Press Company, New York, p. 238.

¹⁵Op. Cit., p. 201.

¹⁶Op. Cit., p. 201.

¹⁷Haimann, Theo. and Scott, William G., 1970, Management in the Modern Organization. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, pp. 369-374.

¹⁸Op. Cit., pp. 509-525.

1. Systems for Operative Personnel

1. On the job training (most common)
2. Vestibule training
3. Apprenticeship
4. Special courses

2. Approaches and Techniques to Management Development

On the Job Development

1. Experience
2. Coaching
3. Understudies
4. Position rotation
5. Special projects and task forces
6. Committee assignments
7. Selective reading

Off the Job Development

1. Special courses or classes
2. Role playing
3. Sensitivity training
4. Simulation
5. Conference training
6. Multiple management
7. Special meetings

Space precludes an indepth description of each of these methods, but they are covered in the references cited. All the authors stress the need for a constant review of the training program as an aid in identifying weaknesses and making improvements.

There are certain principles of training that are generally recognized in industry (Yoder, et al, 1958)¹⁹ and these might be cited at this point. They are:

1. There is a tendency toward training individuals rather than groups.
2. An increasing proportion of training is being done by foremen and fellow employees rather than by a formal training staff.

¹⁹Op. Cit., p. 12.7.

3. The part of the learner is growing more dynamic rather than more static, i.e. there is more participation on the part of the learner.
4. There is better selection of trainees.
5. Training is becoming more specific rather than more general.

TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT IN RELATION TO AGRICULTURE

None of the farm management texts reviewed paid any attention to the special requirements of training farm labor. Chapters in these texts devoted to labor management were primarily concerned with labor efficiency. In his thesis, *Industrializing Agriculture: A Typology of Entrepreneurial Farm Management Style* (1968)²⁰ Maurice Volland points out that as industrialization of agriculture continues the effectiveness of labor will be even more critical than it is today, since labor although more highly skilled, will still be required to operate the automated equipment now replacing large numbers of agricultural laborers. This point is also made by Hecht (1966)²¹. But in order to have a supply of skilled laborers, there must be training programs, and as far as agriculture is concerned this whole area is sadly lacking in policies and programs.

²⁰ Volland, Maurice E., 1968, *Industrializing Agriculture: A Typology of Entrepreneurial Farm Management Style*. Thesis Submitted for Doctor of Philosophy Degree, College of Social Science, Michigan State University, East Lansing, p. 8.

²¹ Hecht, Reuben W., 1966, *Farm Labor Situation -- Trends and Forces at Work*. Paper presented at National Extension Workshop on Farm Labor Problems, University of Nebraska, Center for Continuing Education, Lincoln Nebraska, Vol. 1-4, p. 16.

Sturt (1969)²² states that the lack of any meaningful and useful classification of farm jobs has inhibited the development of training programs designed to teach appropriate skills to farm workers. He goes on to state that "training, both on the job and off the job, is essential for most farm workers". He finds that a basic problem in training is the low level of education among farm workers. In 1967 farm workers had a median of 9.0 years of education compared to 12.3 years for all workers.

Some of the advantages of the management trainee in agriculture are shown in an article by John Russell (1970)²³ in which he refers to the management trainee as a new breed of "hired man", perhaps earning up to \$10,000 per annum. Employing this caliber of man is justified by labor scarcity, increasing size of operations, more technology and an increasing need for management. Such a trainee would gradually learn to operate the business, taking on added responsibilities through time and maybe eventually go into partnership with the owner.

Some attempts are being made, however, to fill this need for training farm workers. The University of California, Davis (1965)²⁴, developed a course and manual on, Training Supervisors of Farm Labor. The objectives of this course were to train farm foremen, superintendents and crew leaders to:

²²Sturt, Daniel W., 1969, The Manpower Game. A Compendium of Notes Based on Previous Papers, presented to Kellogg Farmers Group V, October 20, 1969, Rural Manpower Center, Michigan State University, East Lansing, p. 17.

²³Russell, John, 1970, The Management Trainee -- A New Breed of "Hired Man". Farm Journal, November, 1970, p. H.8.

²⁴University of California, Davis, 1965, Training Supervisors of Farm Labor, A Guide for Instructors, Department of Agricultural Education, University of California, Davis.

1. Understand and use principles of good supervision,
2. Maintain effective relationships with workers,
3. Handle personnel and relationship problems as they occur,
4. Instruct new and inexperienced workers how to perform farm jobs,
5. Analyze and break down jobs to determine time and labor saving shortcuts.

In 1968 William W. Frank²⁵ of Cornell University developed a manual and course to teach personnel management in agriculture entitled, "Human Relations Problems on the Farm". This course covered such topics as motivation, perception, communications, learning, management problems and how to get things done through people.

Allen E. Shapley (1970)²⁶ modeled his training manual entitled, "Personnel Management in Agriculture" on that developed by Frank. Shapley's manual is a detailed guide for teaching concepts and practices of personnel management. The concepts relate to motivation, perceptions, attitudes, communication and learning. The practices relate to salary, fringe benefits and human relations as they relate to the concepts studied. This course was specifically aimed at dairy farmers in Michigan.

In relation to training given on dairy farms, Given and Hundley

²⁵ Frank, William W., 1968, Human Relations Problems on the Farm, Discussion Leader's Instruction Manual. The New York State School of Industrial and Labor Relations and the College of Agriculture, Cornell University, New York.

²⁶ Shapley, Allen E., 1970, Personnel Management in Agriculture, Instructor's Manual, Rural Manpower Center, Special Paper No. 12, February, 1970, Michigan State University, East Lansing.

(1966)²⁷ found that most training periods on farms in Michigan were very brief and inadequate. In fact, the training that was given often led to confusion for the employee mostly through abiguities and misperceptions on both sides. Anderson and Greene (1969)²⁸ in a study of the Use of Labor and Labor Management Practices on Florida Dairy Farms found that almost all training was informal on the job training. They cited only one instance of an operator having a formal trainee program, though several operators sent men to university short courses and one man had been sent to the Graham Scientific Breeding School.

Some local or county training programs for dairy workers have been set up throughout the country. One such program was started in Kern County, California, as a result of research carried out by Murrill and Pelissier (1967)²⁹. This training program was set up by a sponsoring committee of dairy farmers with the active assistance of the Agricultural Extension Service, local veterinarians, health department officials and equipment and service men. The general success of the program is cited by Murrill and Pelissier. Another successful program whose philosophies were to hire, train and retrain the hard-core disadvantaged

²⁷ Given, Charles W., and Hundley, James R., Jr., 1966, Human Relations on Dairy Farms. Rural Manpower Center, Number 2, November, 1966, Michigan State University, East Lansing, p. 28.

²⁸ Anderson, Charles L., and Greene, R. E. L., 1969, Use of Labor and Labor Management Practices on Florida Dairy Farms. Agricultural Economics, Mimeo Report EC 69-12, Gainesville, Florida, pp. 26-28.

²⁹ Murrill, Frank D., and Pelissier, C. L., 1967, Dairy Labor-Management Relations in the San Joaquin Valley. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Dairy Science Association, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York, June 25-29, 1967.

for dairy work is cited by Riley Hogan (1971)³⁰, Manager of Tampa Independent Dairy Farmer Association. Maryland Agricultural Extension Service has developed short courses for dairy workers under the guidance of Dr. Ray Murray. Michigan State University started a Dairy Farm Labor School in 1965. The purpose of this school was to train young people in all aspects of dairying through classroom teaching as well as through practical experience working on the dairy farm. This six month program was funded by the Federal government and each participant in the course was paid for the farm work he did while receiving his tuition free. In 1968 the school was transferred to Andrew's University, Berrien Springs, Michigan. Michigan State University Dairy personnel have continued to give assistance to Andrew's University in many aspects of the program.

RESULTS OF PRESENT STUDY PERTAINING TO TRAINING

The results and observations discussed in this section pertain to questions 54 through 61 as shown in Appendix B.

Thirty-two of the 36 respondents said that a new man was given training when he came on the job. The most usual method of training was for the supervisor to see to it personally. Other methods of training included, putting a new man with an experienced man or starting him at a lower job and allowing him to work up gradually. These practices follow closely those reported by Baker (1955)³¹ for small businesses. The length of training period was found to vary greatly and depended very much on the experience of the man coming on the job. Generally,

³⁰Hogan, Riley, Jr., 1971, Labor Program Report. Paper presented at the Annual Southeast Dairy Conference, Jacksonville, Florida, March 23-24, 1971.

³¹Op. Cit., p. 228.

it was found that on these dairies milkers do have experience coming on the job while outside men (feeders, clean-up men, etc.) may or may not have experience. One farm had a six week training program for all workers, regardless of position or experience. Another farm that was utilizing all women milkers kept four women trained in advance to do relief work until a full-time position became available.

Probation

A probationary period for new employees was in effect on 28 farms. Thirteen of these had no set periods while nine reported a period of from two weeks to one month. The longer probationary periods were tied to insurance eligibility which will vary with companies from 30-90 days. In most cases, however, the probation period is nominal and there was a general lack of definite policies.

Retraining

Twenty-four of the farmers reported having some of their men retrained after they had been on the job. Fifteen of these farms sent a total of 18 men to special breeding schools. Milking schools and dairy shortcourses were not nearly so popular, but it is interesting to note that five farms held their own shortcourses for their dairy workers. This was done by their own trained herdsman and with the help of the veterinarian. It was found that most farms make use of the veterinarian to keep the herdsman and milkers up to date. Many farms make reading material available to their men to help keep them updated and interested in their work. The difficulty of getting workers to avail themselves of courses even though they were encouraged was commonly expressed, but just as often there was criticism of available courses or the lack of same.

1

Perhaps, some of this latter criticism is justified since 30 farmers said they would like to see their men receive more in-service training. Though not much detail was forthcoming as to the type of training preferred, 21 indicated general training, one specified milking, while two dairies in Texas said they would like some courses in Spanish since most of the milkers were Chicano. One man mentioned his reluctance to have his men trained since as soon as he had invested his money in the training the man would move to a better job. A comment made by one farmer was, that "if one of his men needed to brush up on anything, then he didn't stay".

There was a lack of overall consensus as to who should perform this training function. The frequencies reported in the Appendix indicate that the Extension Service and equipment and feed manufacturers were the most frequently mentioned by the 30 farmers indicating they would like to see their employees get more training. Nine of these 30 though they recognized the need were unsure as to who should perform this training function or how it should be organized. Some farmers expressing their private opinions were critical of the value of the Extension Service and its relevancy to their particular problems as large herd owners. These farmers tended to look more to their suppliers for professional advice, since these people had a financial interest in the success of the farm.

Extent of Personnel Management Training

Only five of the 36 farms had supervisors with any training in personnel management. Although 12 supervisors are reported as having had some personnel training, six of these all came from one farm in Florida which sent all its supervisors to an Extension shortcourse in personnel

management. The vast majority of supervisors, therefore, rely on experience to perform this managerial function.

One-half of the operators or managers had received some formal training in personnel management. The most common sources were agricultural and other degrees and special Extension shortcourses. However, exposure to personnel work in most degrees in agriculture is normally minimal. Three of the operators held business degrees and one of these had a degree in industrial relations. Although half the operators relied solely on experience in dealing with personnel problems, they were all acutely aware of the need for good personnel practices and many of them said that personnel problems occupied almost 50 percent of their time. They also tried to read as much as possible in this area.

DISCUSSION

The extent of training given to new men coming on the job might be quite surprising considering what is reported in the literature, e.g. by Given and Hundley (1966)³² and what is commonly believed by dairy specialists. It should not be too surprising, however, considering the size of herds being considered in this study (average size 1,579 cows). Anderson and Greene (1969)³³ reported finding informal on the job training on the farms in their study where the average size of the herd was 545 cows. The average size of herd studied by Given and Hundley was only 85 cows. Considering the size of many of these dairies, it might have been expected to find more than one formalized training program.

³²Op. Cit., p. 28.

³³Op. Cit., p. 5.

One of the big problems that dairymen have concerns breeding. This would seem to be reflected in the number of farms who sent people to breeding schools. Since the efficiency of milking determines to a great extent the final profit of the operation or as one dairyman put it, "unless our milkers do a good job of getting the milk out of the cows, all our farm and other work is a waste of time, since our end product is milk", it is surprising that more people had not attended milking schools. This is possibly due to most milkers being somewhat experienced combined with their general unwillingness, as expressed by many farmers, to attend courses and finally by a lack of available courses in many areas.

The lack of a concensus as to who should perform the training function of dairy employees may be significant and indicate a lack of unification of purpose among the various service organizations serving dairy farmers. An indication of the success of such a joint effort is pointed out by Murrill and Pelissier (1967)³⁴ in Kern County, California.

Though the number of supervisors who have received training in personnel management is very low, this very likely reflects a lack of available shortcourses, which are only of recent vintage. Many farmers remarked that their foremen were poor handlers of men, or that they would like to promote a man to foreman if only he could deal with people.

As far as the operators themselves are concerned, they all recognized that with their size of operations a knowledge of business as well as dairying is essential. This was reflected by some of these

³⁴Op. Cit., pp. 6-8.

men who had sons interested in the business, going to business school or at least taking a number of business courses.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the type and frequency of response and comments made by individual operators in the area of training and looking at these in light of industrial practices the following conclusions can be drawn:

1. Generally, these large dairymen were conscious of the value of training.
2. Before courses are set up for dairy workers or supervisors, their particular needs should be studied more closely and it may be advantageous to develop job descriptions and job specifications.
3. Benefits may be gained by various organizations serving dairy farmers pooling their resources together in developing programs for their clients.
4. Supervisory training programs are needed to serve these large dairy farms and as farm size in general increases the need for these courses is expected to increase.
5. Managers of these large dairies need to be very good businessmen and it is possible that as agriculture becomes industrialized the managers with business degrees will be employing technically qualified personnel in various areas of agriculture. Surely there is a lesson here for farm management students.

One final comment should be made. Though this study has dealt exclusively with large operations, there is no reason why the smaller dairies should not also participate in and benefit from training programs.

CHAPTER VIII

WAGES

Employers in all organizations are vitally concerned with determining the best means of establishing sound wage and salary practices or insuring that their present practices are adequate. Strauss and Sayles (1963)¹ define wage administration as "a systematic procedure for establishing a sound compensation structure".

Yoder, et al (1958)² point out that the first step in establishing a wage program is to develop job descriptions and specifications. When the various jobs are related to one another within the organization they form what is known as the job structure classification. A wage structure or classification is a job structure that has been priced in dollar and cent terms.

When the wage structure has been priced, methods of wage payment must be set up to pay individual employees. Forms of extra financial compensation including profit sharing, incentive programs, bonuses and fringe benefits are then added to the basic wage structure to give the total compensation structure.

Baker (1955)³ points out that employees are more and more becoming concerned with the "total attractiveness" of jobs, that is, wages,

¹ Strauss, George and Sayles, Leonard R., 1963, Personnel -- The Human Problems of Management. Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, p. 581.

² Yoder, Dale, Heneman, H. G., Turnbull, John G., and Stone, Harold C., 1958, Handbook of Personnel Management and Labor Relations. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, pp. 16.1-16.81.

³ Baker, Alton W., 1955, Personnel Management in Small Plants. Bureau of Business Research, College of Commerce and Administration, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, p. 95.

hours, fringe benefits, working conditions and related matters. The Small Business Administration (1961)⁴ says that it is important for business firms to recognize that both the basic rate and also the extra financial compensation are all a part of the total cost of hiring, utilizing and keeping employees. In order to attract and keep good employees a business must establish a firm and equitable wage policy and offer fringe benefits which compare favorably with those offered by similar or competitive enterprises.

Types of Wage Payment Plans

The principal types of wage payment plans in use are identified by Baker (1955)⁵ as follows:

1. Day work or time wages, those paid per hour, per day or per week.
2. Individual piece rates that are paid on a straight unit basis.
3. Group piece rates, where the unit basis of payment includes a group of workers rather than individuals.
4. Premium or bonus plans, in which extra production is paid for by some more complicated plan than that provided by simple piece rate compensation.

Selection of a Wage Payment Plan

Baker (1955)⁶ points out that the adoption of time rates is generally advisable under the following conditions:

⁴Small Business Administration, 1961, Personnel Management Guides for Small Business. Small Business Management Series, No. 26, p. 22.

⁵Op. Cit., p. 96.

⁶Op. Cit., p. 99.

1. Standards of individual output cannot be readily or accurately set.
2. Output is mainly composed of odd-lot jobs which differ as to details of materials, process or operation involved.
3. Quantity of output is less important than quality, material and machine costs and workmanship.
4. Output can be regulated by management through the use of conveyors or other means and is not influenced by the worker's efforts.
5. Workers insist upon their use.

The experts are by no means in agreement as to which method of **payment** is best and more conducive to greater production -- the time **rate** or the piece rate. The latter is often referred to as incentive **wages** and is always so defined when it calls for different rates **for** different levels of performance. The Small Business Administration (1961)⁷ says that the piece-work or incentive wage system increases **production** and/or sales, but that it may also give rise to discord, **bickering**, production limitation on the part of workers and other unpleasant byproducts. Some unions have largely opposed this system.

Incentive wages are more practical and effective when:

1. The units of output are measurable and readily distinguishable.
2. A clear relationship exists between output and workers effort.
3. The job is standardized, the flow of work and raw materials is regular and breakdowns are few.
4. Quality is less important than quantity.
5. Supervisors do not have sufficient time to devote much attention to individual performance.
6. You need to know in advance the definite labor cost per unit.

⁷Op. Cit., p. 24.

Where applicable, piece rates almost invariably lead to greater production.

Setting Wage Rates by Job Evaluation

Job evaluation attempts to establish an equitable relationship among jobs within the company as well as with similar and identical jobs in the community, Baker (1955)⁸. Flippo (1966)⁹ points out the fact that most employees are interested in both relative and absolute wages. The morale and efforts of employees are affected when they feel that certain jobs receive pay that is either too high or too low with respect to other jobs. Thus, an important problem concerning management, unions and individual employees is how to establish and maintain a wage structure that satisfies all parties. The recognized systematic approach to this is to adopt a system of job evaluation and wage classification. Job evaluation is largely a process of measurement, that is, measuring the worth of jobs within the firm for purposes of establishing its base compensation.

There are four basic systems of job measurement:

1. Simple ranking system.
2. Grading (classification system).
3. Point system.
4. Factor comparison system.

With the simple ranking and grading systems the job is treated as a whole and job descriptions rather than job specifications are

⁸Op. Cit., p. 109.

⁹Flippo, Edwin B., 1966, Principles of Personnel Management. McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, p. 281.

9

2

3

4

5

6

7

8

9

10

11

12

13

14

15

16

17

18

19

20

21

22

23

24

25

26

27

28

generally utilized in establishing job categories. These systems are non-quantitative.

The point system and facto comparison system represent quantitative approaches. Job factors are selected and measured and job specifications are definitely required. These systems are discussed in detail by Yoder, et al (1958)¹⁰, Yoder (1962)¹¹ and Flippo (1966)¹².

Baker (1955)¹³ found that the majority of firms included in his study of small manufacturing plants did not use job evaluation to help determine wage differentials between the various jobs in the organization.

External Influences

As well as achieving a sound internal relationship among rates paid for jobs, the rates should also be in line with wages paid for similar jobs in the community. The common method for attempting to achieve this sound external alignment is the use of the locality wage survey. The maximum and minimum rates to be paid for the various jobs in each labor grade or job class may be established by arbitration, the application of a fixed percentage to the average actually paid for the key job to get the maximum and minimum rate, or other method, Baker (1955)¹⁴.

¹⁰Op. Cit., pp. 16.31-16.42.

¹¹Yoder, Dale, 1962, Personnel Management and Industrial Relations. Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, pp. 477-483.

¹²Op. Cit., pp. 282-293.

¹³Op. Cit., p. 109.

¹⁴Op. Cit., p. 108.

Fringe Benefits

The Small Business Administration (1961)¹⁵ points out that the line between compensation proper and fringe "benefit" is so fine that it is difficult to determine just where one ends and the other begins. There is no general agreement on the subject and on the other hand, yesterday's "fringe" has become an integral part of today's total. Broom and Longenecker (1961)¹⁶ state that employers should stress the nature of the benefits and their cost, as otherwise employees will begin to take them for granted and think only in terms of their paycheck.

The best method of calculating proposed fringe benefits according to Baker (1955)¹⁷ is to translate them into cents per man hour. This same author identified the following as those items that are most commonly considered fringe benefits:

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. Paid vacations | 9. Group insurance |
| 2. Paid unworked holidays | a. Life |
| 3. Sick pay | b. Health and accident |
| 4. Call-in-pay | c. Hospitalization |
| 5. Severance or termination pay | d. Medical and surgical |
| 6. Paid rest periods | 10. Bonuses |
| 7. Paid lunch periods | 11. Pension or retirement plans |
| 8. Paid wash-up and clean-up time | |

Baker (1955)¹⁸ found that the vast majority of small manufacturing firms in his study granted some fringe benefits to their employees. The four most common were paid vacation, paid holidays, sick pay and group insurance.

¹⁵Op. Cit., p. 22.

¹⁶Broom, H. N., and Longenecker, J. G., 1961, Small Business Management. South Western Publishing Company, Cincinnati, p. 545.

¹⁷Op. Cit., pp. 116-117.

¹⁸Op. Cit., p. 118.

Profit Sharing

Broom and Longenecker (1961)¹⁹ state that profit sharing plans have functioned successfully in many small companies. They further state that the larger company probably has greater difficulty than the small firm in using profit sharing as a production incentive.

Flippo (1966)²⁰ identifies two main types of profit sharing plans: (1) cash or current distribution and (2) trust or deferred distribution. Under the current arrangement, benefits are distributed among participants in cash at least once a year. The deferred type involves a trust fund, the benefits from which are distributed in the event of death, retirement or disability. Some managements prefer to place part of the profit share in trust and to distribute the remainder in cash each year.

The Small Business Administration (1961)²¹ points out that bonuses, profit sharing and pension plans can be deducted as business expenses for tax purposes, provided the rules of the Internal Revenue Service are followed with regard to such deductions.

WAGE ADMINISTRATION IN AGRICULTURE

No comprehensive treatment of wage administration in agriculture was found by the author. However, the comments of various researchers and Farm Management Specialists show the need for a more comprehensive treatment of this subject in agriculture and the need to adopt some of the practices already discussed in industry.

¹⁹Op. Cit., p. 544.

²⁰Op. Cit., p. 320.

²¹Op. Cit., p. 27.

The trend already noted in industry to offering a total remuneration package was noted by Holt (1970)²². He stated that in addition to wage rates, the hours worked per week, provisions for overtime and incentive pay and regularly scheduled wage increases are all part of a competitive wage package. He states that farm employers will be forced to consider a remuneration policy rather than a wage rate in attempting to become and remain competitive.

Murrill and Pelissier (1967)²³ in their study of Dairy Labor-Management Relations in the San Joaquin Valley, California, found that some dairymen were beginning to adopt wage scales based on job classifications. The wage scales also reflected performance and tenure. They found that few dairymen had been successful in using bonuses or incentives to increase production. Housing, as a fringe benefit, was found to have increased in popularity due to complaints from both employers and employees. The trend was towards giving extra cash in lieu of housing. Both dairymen and their employees appeared to prefer this arrangement.

Fuller (1957)²⁴ discusses both monetary and non-monetary rewards and incentives for farm work. He points out the need to establish specified working hours and overtime for additional work. The use of some system of profit sharing and/or production bonus is suggested, but

²²Holt, James S., 1970, Impact of the Industrialization of the Reduced Farm Work Force Upon the Agricultural Economy. American Journal of Agricultural Economics, Vol. 52, No. 5, p. 782.

²³Murrill, Frank D. and Pelissier, C. L., 1967, Dairy Labor-Management Relations in the San Joaquin Valley. Paper presented at Annual Meeting of the American Dairy Science Association, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York, pp. 7-8.

²⁴Fuller, Varden I., 1957, Labor Efficient Dairy Farm Organizations. Econ. No. 690, Michigan State University, East Lansing, pp. 84-88.

in order to make these systems work great understanding is needed on the part of both employer and employees. Due to the confining nature of dairy work, vacations of up to four weeks are suggested. The housing supplied should be comparable to urban housing. The farm employee has an opportunity to get meat, eggs and garden produce and many workers could be leased some land and the machinery to work it in their time off. The author points out again that it is the total of monetary and non-monetary rewards and incentives that must be competitive with industry.

Brown (1967)²⁵ examined the nature of the farm - nonfarm competition for employees. He states that the general areas in which employers compete for the services of employees include: (1) the cash wage package, (2) fringe benefits, (3) the wage and benefit agreement, (4) working conditions and (5) employer-employee relations. Each of these areas is discussed in some detail and guidelines suggested as to how farmers can better compete.

Holt (1970)²⁶ recommended the adoption of many of the fringe benefits, already used by industry, in agriculture. He stated that agriculture still relied on fringe benefits mainly of food and housing, and often left to informal understanding questions of illness, injury or old age.

²⁵Brown, Lauren H., 1967, Making Farm Employment Competitive. Rural Manpower Center, Special Paper No. 1, Michigan State University, East Lansing.

²⁶Op. Cit., p. 782

A point in favor of the fringe benefits now offered by agriculture was made by McAllister (1967)²⁷. He pointed out that although farmers paid lower cash wages than industry that they made up for some of the difference by providing housing, farm produced food, job security and other benefits not associated with industry.

Shapley (1969)²⁸ found that a dairy farmer in Michigan could offer wages and hours competitive with industry and still make a return well above his opportunity cost if he uses up to date technology and operates at the optimum level within the limits imposed. The limits imposed included a minimum of one full-time hired man working 40 hours per week, plus seasonal labor available during the summer months.

Examples of incentive programs and fringe benefits used in agriculture are given by Armstrong (1969)²⁹.

RESULTS OF THIS RESEARCH PERTAINING TO WAGE ADMINISTRATION

The results presented in this section pertain to questions 64 through 72. These questions along with the categories of response and the frequency are shown in Appendix B.

Setting the Basic Wage

In unionized dairies the wage rates were set by the union contract. Ten respondents said that they set their basic wage rate according to

²⁷McAllister, W. T., 1967, Dairyman's Big Problem: Labor. The Milkpail, H. P. Hood Company, Boston.

²⁸Shapley, Allen E., 1969, Alternatives in Dairy Farm Technology to Meet High Labor Costs. Research Report 80, Agricultural Business, Michigan State University, East Lansing, p. 1.

²⁹Armstrong, David L., 1969, Employment Agreements in Hiring Farm Workers. Rural Manpower Center, Special Paper No. 9, Michigan State University, East Lansing, pp. 39-45.

local competition or the going rate in their area. Closely related to this were eight dairymen who said that they kept their basic wages in line with other dairies. Eight also said that a new man started at the minimum wage and advanced from there depending on his ability. This latter response was most frequently mentioned in Florida and Texas. The basic rate was also influenced by the job that a man was seeking and by his experience.

Incentive Programs

Twenty-one of the respondents did not operate any kind of incentive program. Incentive programs based on amount of milk produced were used by nine dairymen. These programs generally involved having a basic wage or salary for a certain level of milk production, with all milk produced over this basic quota being eligible for the incentive. Incentives were generally paid on a per pound or per hundred weight basis and paid monthly.

In an effort to encourage men to stay on the job and cut down on turnover, two dairymen had established incentive systems on the amount of time worked. One such system involved paying a man \$15 per month for each consecutive month worked. A man could only collect this amount on the anniversary of his employment and if he quit working before this time he forfeited the bonus.

Twelve dairymen paid yearly bonuses ranging from \$25 to \$600. Many of these bonuses were given at Christmas, and it appeared that employees got approximately the same amount each year.

Profit Sharing

Profit sharing programs were being used by eight respondents, while some others were considering establishing such a program. The trust or deferred type of profit sharing program was the most popular.

Most programs demanded that a man be working for two years before being eligible to join the program and a further 10 to 12 years before he could reap the full benefit. One program asked that the employees contribute two percent of their wages to the program and that this would be matched by the company.

Fringe Benefits

Paid Vacations. Twenty-one of the respondents said that their vacations were operated on a scale system. This system typically allowed one week paid vacation after one year, two weeks after two years and three weeks after 10 years. Some stopped at a two week maximum, while one went to four weeks paid vacation after 15 years. Five said they had no policy on vacations and that if employees wanted to take some time off they would have to ask for it individually.

Insurance. All respondents paid social security. This expense was shared by employer and employee. Six respondents were not subject to workmen's compensation and had a separate liability insurance to cover accidents and injuries. One individual carried both workmen's compensation and a separate liability insurance.

Life and Health insurance policies were carried by 26 of the respondents. Eight had hospitalization and major medical insurance. Eleven had hospitalization, major medical and life insurance while seven had all of this plus dental and vision care plan. Retirement or pension plans were in operation on seven dairies. Six of the seven dairies that had a comprehensive life, health insurance and a retirement program were the unionized dairies in California. These programs were operated by the union, with the employer paying the total contribution. Apart from these unionized dairies the percent of the insurance programs paid by the employer ranged from 25 to 100 percent.

Housing. Twenty-one dairymen supplied housing, utilities and maintenance for all or the majority of their dairy workers. A further seven supplied housing and maintenance but not utilities. Four did not supply any housing.

Personal and Sick Leave. Respondents were almost equally divided on the question of whether personal leave would be deducted from wages or whether a man could make this up another time or trade time with another man. Twenty-six said that sick leave was deducted, while seven said they would normally pay a man for sick time unless it was a prolonged illness. One dairyman had a set program of so many days personal leave and sick leave being allowed per year.

Farm Supplied Food. The majority of dairies allowed their men a supply of milk. This varied from one gallon per day to all they needed for their family. Meat was not normally supplied to workers, though twelve said they did kill a beef for employees from time to time.

Loans. Twenty-three said that they did on occasion loan money to employees. They did, however, try to keep this to a minimum and were selective in the employees they made loans to.

Transport. Twenty-two respondents mentioned that their supervisors had pick-up trucks for their job and could also bring these to and from work. Two respondents said that whenever an employee was stuck for transport that he could get a loan of the company pick-up truck.

Uniforms. Uniforms or coveralls were supplied by seven dairymen. In some cases this was organized through a laundry service, while in others the workers were expected to do their own laundering.

In determining the benefits to provide to workers, 13 said that they did this through looking at the employees' need for security or what they as managers would like to receive. Others looked at the

prevailing practices on other dairies, in industry or were subject to the union contract.

Wage and Payment System

The majority of respondents had all of their men on a salary basis. In some cases only the supervisors were salaried, while outside men were hourly. Twenty respondents paid bimonthly, 15 paid weekly and one man who had a bunkhouse and a cookhouse and employed mostly single men paid monthly.

All but one respondent paid by check, either showing the itemized deductions on the check or on a separate pay slip. Housing was not shown as a deduction as it was considered part of the wage package for tax purposes.

Nineteen of the respondents said that overtime was paid at the regular hourly rate, while four said they paid time and a half for overtime. Ten respondents did not pay overtime.

Wage Increases

Merit was the most frequently mentioned system of deciding on wage increases. Next most frequent was an across the board cost of living increase. Tenure was mentioned on eight occasions and competition in the labor market on five occasions. Unionized dairies had their wage increases negotiated by the union and this increase also set a precedent for non-unionized dairies in the area.

ACTUAL WAGES

The summarized responses to question 72 show approximately what a herdsman, milker and outside man could expect to make in the five regions. Except for the cases pointed to by the asterisk, housing is supplied in addition. Benefits are in addition to those figures shown.

The figures shown for a herdsman which vary from \$680 per month in the South to \$1,127 per month in California are complicated by the fact that not all herdsmen had equal responsibilities and authority. As a result of this their salaries varied greatly. The figures shown are at best a general indication.

In the case of milkers, the figures shown vary from \$427 per month in the Mid-West to \$661 per month in California. These figures are further complicated by various forms of incentive programs which, where they are used, are in addition to the figures shown.

Outside men are generally on a much lower wage scale and often just above minimum wage level.

DISCUSSION

There was little evidence of a systematic approach being used to establish the wage structure, other than where it was done by the unions. This was not surprising considering the fact that the job descriptions and specifications which are basic to such an approach were lacking.

Approximately 40 percent of the dairymen operated bonus and incentive programs. This is a bit lower than the 51 percent reported by Shapley (1970)³⁰. Although many dairymen would like to operate on an incentive wage basis, their big problem was finding a system with adequate control, that is, one that could not be abused too easily.

³⁰Shapley, Allen E., 1969, Full-Time Employees on Michigan Dairy Farms. Rural Manpower Center, Report No. 20, Michigan State University, East Lansing, p. 5.

Newer milking systems being installed are now taking this into consideration in an effort to measure the amount of milk produced by each man per day. Milk often goes into a separate milk tank and permits quality testing. These changes in technology and associated herd management changes will make the adoption of incentive programs more attractive.

Dairymen operating profit sharing programs appeared happy with the results on worker satisfaction and morale. Some respondents were afraid that such profit sharing programs would be good for building morale while profits were good, but that workers would not be so understanding when earnings were not satisfactory. Anderson and Greene (1969)³¹ in their study of Florida Dairy Farms did not find any profit sharing programs in operation. Such programs are expected to increase in popularity in the future, as dairymen will continue to catch up on the programs of their industrial counterparts.

Many of the fringe benefits offered by industry were evident on many of the dairy farms. These included paid vacations, personal leave and sick leave and insurance programs. Housing and farm produced food was an extra benefit not offered by industry. The use of fringe benefits appeared to be expanding, especially the use of various types of life and health insurance packages. The employees themselves were conscious of the need for life and health insurance and the need for some form of retirement or pension program. Some respondents looked to retirement programs as a possible means of reducing labor turnover. Although retirement plans are a form of deferred compensation and are not incentives

³¹ Anderson, Charles L. and Greene, R. E. L., 1969, Use of Labor and Labor Management Practices on Florida Dairy Farms. Agricultural Economics Mimeo Report EC 69-12, Gainesville, Florida, pp. 21-26.

for performance, they do foster loyalty.

Shapley (1969)³² found that 90 percent of dairy farmers in Michigan offered their employees some kind of fringe benefits. These were mostly in the form of housing, paid vacation and farm produced produce. Similar results were reported by Anderson and Greene (1969)³³ for Florida dairy farms. The majority of Florida dairies provided housing and paid vacations. Almost 50 percent provided milk and allowed sick leave. Forty-four percent had insurance programs, but less than two percent had retirement programs.

Some dairymen had mixed feelings about offering housing as a benefit. One of the problems with offering housing is that it makes it easy for a man to move, as he does not have an investment in his home. Another problem with housing on dairy farms is that the houses tend to be close together, and while this can reduce building costs, it can add to the social problems. In many cases it is these social problems, for example, wives not getting along that cause a man to move.

There was little evidence of a systematic program of wage increases on the dairy farms. Most dairymen appeared content to pay just the minimum they could get away with, as they could not find the caliber of man that would justify a higher wage. This situation needs to be re-evaluated, however, and research into the social aspects of dairy workers should be undertaken.

³²Op. Cit., p. 6.

³³Op. Cit., p. 21-26.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the results of this research and in light of successful industrial practices and the research findings of others, the following conclusions and recommendations would appear appropriate.

1. The lack of a systematic approach in wage determination may possibly be overcome through the adoption and use of some forms of job evaluation and the establishment of wage classifications. The wage classifications established should allow an adequate range within each to allow rewards for extra performance.
2. Incentive programs based on milk production and milk quality appear to have a definite positive role to play on dairy farms. In order to successfully operate these systems, more and better controls are needed to truly evaluate the individual's performance. Incentives based on the amount of time worked would also appear beneficial, especially in cutting down on turnover.
3. The use of bonuses, especially Christmas bonuses should be carefully evaluated for their contribution. The use of any bonus system should be based on something tangible that the employee can appreciate and not be left solely to the discretion of the employer.
4. It is expected that the use of profit sharing programs will expand in the future. Such programs, though difficult to organize, have the advantage of giving an employee a sense of belonging and a deeper interest in the success of the company. This can also generate an atmosphere of cooperation among workers, directed towards the overall goal of company success. Trust programs have the added attraction of helping

to keep men for the minimum period of the program whether it be 10 or 12 years or more.

5. Satisfying the employees' need for life and health insurance policies may prove beneficial to dairymen. Ten of the respondents in this study did not carry life or health insurance on their workers. Such insurance policies appear essential to the security of the employees and their families. Pension plans are also expected to increase in popularity as the dairymen offer a more attractive and comprehensive compensation package to their employees.
6. The use of housing as a fringe benefit needs to be re-evaluated by dairymen, in light of the possible social problems associated with it. Wider spacing of housing might alleviate many of these problems.
7. In advertising their jobs, dairymen should emphasize the benefits of country living, good housing, farm produced produce and other benefits not available to the industrial workers. Farm employment is basically secure and with adequate insurance policies and basic wage rate dairymen should be able to attract the higher caliber individual they are seeking.

la

of

He

or

of

st

me

de

re

to

2

(

(

i

i

i

-

i

3

i

3

i

Pr

p.

CHAPTER IX

MOTIVATION AND DISCIPLINE

Nature of Motivation

The leader's or manager's fundamental responsibility in any form of organization is to get work done through people. Huneryager and Heckmann (1967)¹ say this statement implies that getting the work of an organization done is immediately and finally dependent upon the behavior of the employees of that organization. Behavior, they say, can be simply described as the total response of an individual to various motivating forces. This means, therefore, that all rational human behavior is caused, and that people behave as they do because they are responding to forces that have the power to prompt - motivate - them to some manner or form of action (Huneryager and Heckman, 1967)².

Dimensions of Motivation

Three dimensions of motivation are identified by McFarland (1968)³: (1) the forces and influence operating within the individual, (2) internal influences within the organization itself and (3) external influences in the organization's environment. In order to understand motivation it is necessary to observe and understand all three dimensions.

¹Huneryager, S. G., and Heckmann, I. L., 1967, Human Relations in Management. South Western Publishing Company, Cincinnati, p. 323.

²Ibid., p. 324.

³McFarland, Dalton E., 1968, Personnel Management -- Theory and Practice. The Macmillan Company, Collier-Macmillan Limited, London, p. 377.

The Individual and Motivation

Scientific management thinking which began in the early 1900's viewed motivation mainly from the point of view of the individual and overlooked the impact of organizational factors (McFarland, 1968)⁴. Money and material acquisitions were considered the primary source of employee's motivation and rank and file workers were the primary problem in motivation. It is now known that money is not the sole motivating force in employee behavior, that numerous organizational characteristics are at work in motivation and that members of middle and top management also have problems of motivation.

Organizational Motivation

There is an important interrelationship between the elements of motivation pertaining to the individual and those concerning the organization (McFarland, 1968)⁵. This author points out that current motivation theory treats the individual as a whole person with multiple, complex, changing motivations. Motivation is a dynamic attribute. It is also highly situational in character and tasks, technological systems, physical facilities and other aspects of the organization's environment having varying motivational impacts. Among the important organizational variables affecting motivation are: (1) the organization's structure, (2) company climate, (3) communication patterns and (4) number of levels (McFarland, 1969)⁶.

⁴Ibid., p. 378.

⁵Ibid., p. 379.

⁶Ibid., p. 380.

External Motivation

The external dimensions of motivation have not yet been widely studied by researchers. McFarland (1968) states that careers and occupations have varying degrees of built-in natural or intrinsic motivation. Careers and occupations tend to attract people who see in them a central life interest and a source of motivation. The culture, customs and norms of society also play a strong motivational role. The community and neighborhood have expectations about the way people earn a living and their life style -- all of these play a part of motivation.

MOTIVATION THEORY

The individual behavior and organizational components of motivation have received most attention from researchers.

Human Needs

McFarland (1968)⁸ points out that motivation theory starts out with human needs. Maslow (1954)⁹ provides a systematic classification of human needs that other researchers have widely used in theory building and to test concepts of motivation. Accordint to Maslow human needs exist in a hierarchy composed of five levels.

1. Physical or physiological needs.
2. Safety and security needs.
3. Social needs, such as love, affection or friendship.

⁷Ibid., p. 380.

⁸Ibid., p. 381.

⁹Maslow, Abraham H., 1954, Motivation and Personality. Harper and Brothers, New York, Chapter 3.

4. Esteem and self respect.

5. Self-actualization.

The lowest order of needs are the physiological ones such as hunger, thirst, sex, elimination and so on. Self-actualization, the highest level of need is the most difficult to describe. It may be thought of as the need "to become what one is capable of becoming". Unlike the other needs, which can be satisfied, self-actualization is never fully realized.

Maslow states that individuals move through the levels in the hierarchy in the order listed. As the individual satisfies needs at one level, the next higher level of need asserts itself to occupy the individual's energies and efforts. Individuals will vary in the progress they make along the continuum, and it is more difficult, as a person moves towards the ultimate goal of self-actualization.

Dissatisfiers and Motivators

Frederick Herzberg (1966)¹⁰ identified dissatisfying and motivating techniques. He named these KITA procedures and motivators. His acronym is a brevity code derived from the observation that the fastest way to get a man to do something is to kick him in the pants. KITA's come in at least three packages -- negative physical, negative psychological and positive.

Negative physical KITA's involve the use of corporal punishment to motivate employees though this approach is rapidly disappearing. The negative psychological KITA is still very much in use and involves the subtle ways an employer can have an employee figuratively mentally

¹⁰ Herzberg, Frederick, 1966, Work and Nature of Man. World Publishing Company, Cleveland.

kick himself into action. Negative KITA's result only in movement by the actor, rather than in the deep down motivation desired. They do not build esprit de corps; in fact, they may destroy it.

The dissatisfiers identified by Herzberg were: (1) company policy and administration, (2) supervision, (3) salary, (4) interpersonal relations and (5) working conditions. These factors were found to serve primarily as preventatives to job dissatisfaction. Because these factors dealt with the environment, Herzberg named these factors the "hygiene" factors in an analogy with the way the term is used in preventive medicine. The hygiene factors meet a man's need to avoid unpleasantness but they do not satisfy man's basic human need for psychological growth.

Herzberg's positive factors are motivating factors. They are the satisfiers needed for personal growth and self-actualization. These motivators are: achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility and advancement.

Theory X and Theory Y

McGregor (1960)¹¹ studied organizational climate and motivation. He labeled two basic ideas about motivation and people as Theory X and Theory Y. A manager who fits into the Theory X group leans toward an organization climate of close control, centralized authority, autocratic leadership and minimum participation in the decision process. The reason why such a manager accepts this combination is that he makes certain assumptions about human behavior. Theory X assumptions

¹¹McGregor, Douglas, 1960, The Human Side of Enterprise. McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York.

according to McGregor are:

1. The average man dislikes work and will avoid it to the extent he can.
2. Stemming from this, according to Theory X, most people have to be forced or threatened by punishment to get them to make the effort necessary to accomplish organizational goals.
3. The average individual is basically passive and, therefore, prefers to be directed, rather than to assume any risk or responsibility. Above all else he prefers security.

A manager who fits into the Theory Y group operates with a different set of assumptions regarding human behavior. He feels that an effective organizational climate embraces looser more general supervision, greater decentralization of authority, less reliance on coercion and control, a democratic leadership style and more participation in the decision process.

Theory Y assumptions are:

1. Work is as natural to man as play or rest and, therefore, is not avoided.
2. Self-motivation and inherent satisfaction in work will be forthcoming in situations where the individual is committed to organizational goals. Hence, coercion is not the only form of influence that can be used to motivate.
3. Commitment is a crucial factor in motivation, and it is a function of the rewards coming from it.
4. The average individual learns to accept and even seek responsibility given the proper environment.
5. Contrary to popular stereotypes an ability to be creative and innovative in the solution of organization problems is widely, not narrowly, distributed in the population.
6. In modern business and organizations human intellectual potentialities are just partially realized.

While endorsing the positive human values of Theory Y, or democratic management, McGregor says implicitly that Theory X, or an autocratic climate, may be more effective in certain situations. Management should not allow itself to be locked into a strategy which may prove inappropriate to its particular situation.

Classifying Organizational Climate

Likert (1967)¹² identified four classifications or organizational climate:

System 1 - Exploitive

System 2 - Benevolent Authoritative

System 3 - Consultative

System 4 - Participative

Each of these systems is composed of six elements which Likert feels are key ingredients of organizational climate. These elements are leadership, motivation, communication, decision, goals and control. These dimensions can be measured on a continuous scale so that a manager may rate his organization's climate. Likert feels that managers should consciously strive to adapt their organizational climate to participation because people will experience higher levels of need satisfaction and, hence, become better employees.

The Current Consensus

Haiman and Scott (1970)¹³ summarized that most writers underscored the "situation" as the leading determinant of organizational climate. In organizations having a stable environment and using employees of low-level skill, a more non-participative, autocratic kind of climate appears to be effective. In rapidly changing firms, however, with highly educated and skilled people, more democratic forms of management get the best results. The authors state, however, that in 20 to 30 years

¹²Likert, Rensis, 1967, The Human Organization. McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, pp. 14-24 and 120-121.

¹³Op. Cit., p. 4405.

from now autocratic bureaucracy will be nothing more than a curiosity. The forces bringing about this change and requiring a more democratic climate are technology, education and professionalization of management.

Motivation and Transfers and Promotions

The importance of developing adequate policies governing promotions, transfers and layoffs is shown by Strauss and Sayles (1963)¹⁴. These areas affect the vital process of the firm as well as employee motivation. A firm that fails to develop satisfactory procedures must be prepared to pay highly in terms of administrative costs, misallocation of personnel, low morale and ineffectual performance.

Baker (1955)¹⁵ found that relatively few small companies had a definite plan of promotion, demotion or transfer. Even in those companies that had definite plans, the plans were unwritten. Baker advocates the development of simple written plans for small companies based on job analysis. "Job families" could be developed and a listing made of the prerequisite training and experience needed.

DISCIPLINE

Just as the individual makes certain demands upon the organization, so the organization expects certain things from its members. Codes of behavior are established. Flipppo (1966)¹⁶ summarizes the forms of

¹⁴ Strauss, George and Sayles, Leonard R., 1963, Personnel -- the Human Problems of Management. Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, p. 486.

¹⁵ Baker, Alton W., 1955, Personnel Management in Small Plants. Bureau of Business Research, College of Commerce and Administration, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, p. 183.

¹⁶ Flipppo, Edwin B., 1966, Principles of Personnel Management. McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, p. 404.

discipline used in business and suggests guidelines in carrying out disciplinary action. He states that a supervisor should seek to condition behavior and not merely to punish. The penalties that can be used in business are identified as: (1) oral reprimand, (2) written reprimand, (3) loss of privileges, (4) fines, (5) layoff, (6) demotion, and (7) discharge. The following guides to disciplinary action are given: (1) disciplinary action should be administered in private, (2) an application of a penalty should always carry with it an explanation of what constitutes proper behavior, (3) disciplinary action should be applied by the immediate supervisor, (4) promptness is important in the taking of disciplinary action, (5) consistency in penalty is highly essential, (6) an immediate supervisor should never be disciplined in the presence of his own subordinates and (7) after the disciplinary action has been taken, the manager should attempt to assume a normal attitude toward the employee.

MOTIVATION THEORY APPLIED TO AGRICULTURE

The author was unable to find much literature pertaining to the motivation of farm employees. Some agricultural researchers and educators, among them Beckett (1965)¹⁷, Frank (1969)¹⁸ and Shapley (1970)¹⁹ have used the theory of motivation based on human needs in

¹⁷Beckett, James W., 1965, Training Supervisors of Farm Labor -- A Guide for Instructors. Department of Agricultural Education, University of California, Davis.

¹⁸Frank, William W., 1969, Human Relations Problems on the Farm -- Discussion Leader's Instruction Manual. College of Agriculture and School of Industrial and Labor Relations, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York.

¹⁹Shapley, Allen E., 1970, Personnel Management in Agriculture -- Instructor's Manual. Rural Manpower Center, Special Paper No. 12, Michigan State University, East Lansing.

the development of personnel management courses for farm personnel. The approach used by these authors deals with what McFarland (1968)²⁰ classified as the individual and motivation. The organizational aspects of motivation have not yet been applied to agriculture.

The lack of personnel management practices on farms has been noted by many agricultural researchers, but reference to motivation has been rare. Mitcheltree (1966)²¹ in an article on "Supervision and Management of Farm Labor" pointed out that wages only motivate to minimal achievement. "The difference between minimum and maximum achievement is the area in which profit lies in the management of people."

RESULTS OF PRESENT STUDY PERTAINING TO MOTIVATION AND DISCIPLINE

The results presented in this section will cover the responses to questions 73 through 85. The questions as well as their categories of response and frequency are shown in Appendix B.

Motivating Employees

The most frequent response to how employers try to motivate their employees was that they tried to help them to take pride in their work and their working conditions. This was mentioned by 12 respondents. Dairies that showed cattle or who won production rewards would have a picture of the employees involved in the local paper or dairy magazine. They felt that this greatly boosted the employees' morale and pride. Nine respondents mentioned that they tried to show a genuine interest

²⁰Op. Cit., p. 378.

²¹Mitcheltree, Wallace A., 1966, Supervision and Management of Farm Labor. Journal of Farm Economics, Vol. 48, No. 5, p. 1149.

in their employees and their welfare through frequent discussions with them. Incentive wages were mentioned as a source of motivation on eight occasions. Meetings and pep talks were used by seven dairymen since they favored the group approach to stimulating discussion and generating an atmosphere of teamwork. Six dairymen mentioned that they complimented a man for good performance. Four said that they tried to instill an atmosphere of competition among the workers, either between barns or between milkers.

Employee Attitudes

The majority of employers felt that their employees' attitude towards their work and the farm was generally good. Seven felt that their employees did have some commitment to the dairy and its success. Five dairymen said that while some of their employees were committed to the farm, most regarded it as just a place to work and earn a living.

The average lengths of employment reported were the respondents estimates for full-time employees. The most frequent categories were three to four years and five to seven years, being reported by ten and 11 dairymen respectively. Three reported less than one year average length of employment, while two had over eight years.

Family Influences

All the dairymen felt that the worker's family and his home life had an influence on his work performance. When asked what they did to encourage this source of motivation, 11 said that they organized picnics, parties or barbeques during the year, so that all the families could get together and feel that they were all part of the farm organization. Six respondents said that they relied on providing good housing and utilities to the families in order to keep them happy. Other activities organized by dairymen included the establishment of a wives

club, a little league baseball team and one employer took all his employees out to dinner once a year. Many respondents though they realized the importance of family influence found it difficult or did not do anything to get the families involved so they too would feel a part of the organization.

Keeping Employees Informed

Twenty-nine of the dairymen felt that it was important to keep employees informed as to the long run objectives of the business and its recent successes or failures. This was thought to increase the employee's understanding of the business and the role he played in making it a success. It thus helped to motivate the employee to better performance. Four respondents said that only some key men should be informed about the business as others would not be interested or would be even more confused as to what was going on.

Transfers and Promotions

The majority of employers were willing to allow employees to transfer from one job to another within the organization. This depended on the availability of an opening and on the man's qualifications for the other job. These employers felt that such transfers helped to improve employee relations while also enabling a man to seek a more satisfying job. Eight respondents said they discouraged transfers and two did not allow them at all. The reason for discouraging or not allowing transfers was that it would cause too much disruption of work schedules and could also cause friction among employees.

Twenty-three dairymen said that they did have promotions on their farms, but that there were few opportunities. In order to be promoted a man would have to have the necessary ability and experience and a

vacancy would have to exist. Milkers in particular had very little room for promotion. In all cases promotions were preferably made from present employees.

The same 23 dairymen said that all workers in their organization had an opportunity for promotion provided they had the incentive and the ability and a position was available.

Discipline

The two major rules to break on a dairy farm were to be late for work or to beat cows. The disciplinary action used did not vary greatly. Fourteen respondents said that they would give a man one or two warnings and then dismiss him, while eight said they would give three to four warnings before dismissing a man. Twelve dairymen used a more democratic approach to trying to solve these problems. They called a man in to discuss the problem with him and try to solve it. If after this the man continued to break the rules, he would be dismissed. Two employers said that they simply deducted pay for lateness.

Absenteeism

Only five respondents said that absenteeism was a problem. Three of these said that they would replace a man who failed to call in sick or did not report for work. The other two dairymen were prepared to give a man a chance before they would dismiss him. One of the largest dairies and the only one that could give figures for absenteeism reported an average of 10 days per year absenteeism among over 100 employees.

Internal Disputes

In handling internal disputes among workers the most popular method of solving the problem was to get the men together to discuss it. The supervisor or manager would act as an arbitrator. Closely

related to this was the idea of talking to both men individually at first, and if this did not solve the problem, then to bring them both together for discussion. Five dairymen said they had never experienced this problem, while five others said they would leave it to the men themselves to solve the problem.

Exit Interviewing

Thirty-three of the dairymen said that they talked to a man before he left to find out why he was leaving and what his problems were. If a man was exceptionally good they would try to dissuade him from leaving. One manager kept a note in the employee's personal file as to why he left. The one dairyman who did not find out why a man was leaving said that he used to do this, but that he found it to be a waste of time. One respondent had no experience in this area as he employed all family labor, five brothers and seven nephews.

Discharge

On 21 dairies the owner or the manager were the only ones having the authority to dismiss an employee. The supervisor in charge had the authority on the other 15 dairies. Some managers found it a problem to get a supervisor to exercise his authority to dismiss a man.

Notice of dismissal was always given verbally and generally a man left that same day, getting one week's pay in advance as severance pay. The unions did not interfere much with an employer's right to dismiss a man, providing there was due cause. The unions did have formal grievance procedures for such cases, but no instances of a man being reinstated due to union action were encountered.

DISCUSSION

Dairy employers, in general, did not pay much attention to motivating their employees. Mostly they appeared to want to prevent dissatisfaction among employees rather than motivate them. It would appear that most dairy employees did not have the opportunity to advance very far along the continuum of needs identified by Maslow (1954)²² Physiological needs were generally well taken care of through providing good housing and some farm produced food. It was seen in Chapter VIII that 10 dairies did not supply any health or life insurance for their employees, thus failing to meet some security needs. The social needs of many dairy workers appear complex and as a group they appear to live in social isolation. Whether this is their choice, or a choice forced upon them is not known. Though some dairymen tried to instill a sense of pride into their workers it is doubtful if their need for esteem and self-respect is realized due to their social position. Considering the lack of satisfaction with these needs, it is difficult to imagine how these employees could even partially realize their need for self-actualization.

Few of the motivators mentioned by Herzberg (1966)²³ were evident on these farms. This is not surprising since the motivators identified by Herzberg correspond closely to the higher needs of Maslow's.

The three dimensions of motivation identified by McFarland (1968)²⁴ have direct application to dairy organizations. It has already been

²²Op. Cit., Chapter 3.

²³Op. Cit., Chapter 3.

²⁴Op. Cit., p. 377.

seen that many of the individual's needs are not met by employers on dairy farms. The organizational climate in general would appear to have been good, since the majority of respondents felt that their employees' attitude towards their work and towards the farm was good. It will be seen in a later chapter that employees themselves were generally content with their jobs and the employers they were working for. The type of management would appear to be more Theory X than Theory Y (McGregor, 1960)²⁵ or according to Likert's classification it would be benevolent authoritative (Likert, 1967)²⁶.

The foregoing are general observations made by the author. These observations are based on the nature of the work on large dairy farms, which involves a reasonably high degree of specialization among the workers. The workers have a certain job to do and appear in general to do the job well. The work is mostly routine and does not require a great deal of supervision, other than to see that the men are on the jobs. It is the caliber of individual that is employed on dairy farms that brings about the type of management that is prevalent. The majority of dairy workers do not appear to be willing to take responsibility and would prefer to be told exactly what to do and then do it, rather than act on their own initiative. With this in mind, perhaps, the more Theory X approach is justified.

The external dimensions of motivation, such as the intrinsic or built in natural motivation of jobs would appear to be an important aspect of motivation on dairy farms. This is especially true in light

²⁵Op. Cit.

²⁶Op. Cit.

of the generally lower social status of dairy workers in the local community. Employees seek dairy work for its security of employment and relatively high wages compared to what these workers could command in other occupations with the same level of education. These reasons would appear to be associated with the lowest level needs in Maslow's hierarchy and not have intrinsic characteristics as McFarland (1968)²⁷ states the professions have.

The average length of employment figures would appear to be better than expected, based on previous comments about very high turnover problems. This can possibly be explained by the fact that almost all dairies had some employees who had been there for a long time and that the high turnover was limited to a certain group -- generally milkers. Also, the figures reported are guesstimates on the part of the managers and may not be exact.

The size of the dairy organizations greatly limited their scope for both promotions and transfers. Generally there were many functions to be performed, with a small group of individuals in each. Also, the number of levels within the organizations was generally limited to two or three, thus limiting even further the scope for promotion. Managers should, however, pay more attention to the possibility of creating responsibility centers and encourage men to seek these positions. One manager who tried this was most happy with the results and said he discovered qualities in some men that he never thought they had.

Discipline would not, in general, appear to be a big problem on dairy farms. Many dairymen were reluctant to use disciplinary action,

²⁷Op. Cit., p. 380.

other than warn an employee or speak to him, as they feared losing the man.

The fact that on the majority of these large dairies the owner or manager only had the authority to dismiss an individual would suggest the need for more decentralization of authority. Supervisors should be encouraged to accept and utilize this authority knowing that management will support them in their decision.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the results presented in this chapter and in light of motivational theory developed for business organization, the following conclusions and recommendations seem appropriate:

1. As part of a social study of dairy farm workers, attention should be paid to the needs of these workers and how they are satisfied. This study could be based on the hierarchy of needs developed by Maslow (1954).
2. The results of such a study would yield valuable information to dairymen. It would show what needs are presently being satisfied and what ones are not. Motivators could then be identified and incorporated into a new approach to managing and motivating dairy workers.
3. Dairymen may benefit by continually encouraging their employees to accept responsibility for their job and by trying to identify those with supervisory capability. More responsibility centers could then be established.
4. If dairymen can establish more responsibility centers and have them headed by capable supervisors, they will then be

able to adopt a more participative management approach which some authors feel will characterize all business in the future.

CHAPTER X

COMMUNICATIONS

Effective communications are indispensable to effective leadership. A leader cannot influence his subordinates toward the attainment of enterprise goals without communicating with them. According to French (1964)¹ "communications are the basic connecting and facilitating threads which weave all organizational processes together toward the attainment of enterprise goals. Human collaboration and cooperation in the management of these processes would be impossible without communications."

McFarland (1968)² points out that communication occurs at many levels within the organization and takes many forms. There are two basic kinds of communication situations: (1) interpersonal communications and (2) communications between the company and its employees as a group. Both areas of communication may be formal or informal, official or unofficial, latent or manifest, symbolic or direct.

FRAMEWORK OF COMMUNICATIONS

A framework for understanding the communication process is provided by Berlo (1960)³. He describes the communication model as consisting of:

1. A communications source -- a person or entity with an idea to be communicated.

¹French, Wendell, 1964, The Personnel Management Process: Human Resources Administration. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, p. 453.

²McFarland, Dalton E., 1968, Personnel Management -- Theory and Practice. The Macmillan Company, Collier-Macmillan Limited, London, pp. 511-512.

³Berlo, David K., 1960, The Process of Communication. Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York, p. 32.

2. The encoder -- mechanism for translating idea into the message
eg. writing implements.
3. The message.
4. The channel -- the pattern of flow through the organization
structure and the medium used, eg. typewritten, T.V., etc.
5. The decoder -- the eye or ear, or sensory device to decode
the message for the receiver.
6. The communication receiver.

The elements of this model are not always separate, and they do not necessarily occur in a fixed order. They are not separate things or people, but rather elements that are necessary for communication to occur.

ELEMENTS OF COMMUNICATION

Management within a company is responsible for the coordination of all communications. McFarland (1968)⁴ has identified five key elements of the communications system of a firm: (1) the individual organization member, (2) groups of various types and sizes, (3) data processing and other computer based processes, (4) organizational networks and (5) outsiders with whom the company deals for example, clients, suppliers and servicemen.

Individuals

People in organizations spend much of their time talking to each other both directly and by telephone, etc. They also write memoranda, orders, directives and reports.

⁴Op. Cit., p. 513.

The most important kind of interpersonal communications in an organization is that of superior and subordinate. This communication is greatly affected by relative differences in status, prestige and authority. The greater authority of the superior emphasizes the downward flow of communications. It is important, however, that the relationship between superior and subordinate is not built on fears and insecurities as this will not bring forth the creative abilities and extra effort that most employers seek from their employees (McFarland, 1968)⁵.

Factors affecting interpersonal communications, according to McFarland (1968)⁶ are semantics, false assumptions and various rigidities, stereotypes and polar thinking on the part of either individual concerned.

Groups

All organizations consist of various groups such as divisions, departments, work groups and social groups. A characteristic of groups that is essential to their maintenance and development is known as cohesiveness (McFarland, 1968)⁷. Communication processes are necessary for groups to deal with one another. Management may also want to communicate directly with a group. There appears to be an increasing tendency in business to assemble groups of people for purposes of giving them information and for conference discussion (Flipppo, 1966)⁸.

⁵Op. Cit., p. 522.

⁶Op. Cit., p. 523.

⁷Op. Cit., pp. 513-514.

⁸Flipppo, Edwin B., 1966, Principles of Personnel Management. McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, p. 419.

Computers

The use of high speed computers for communications purposes applies mostly to large businesses. Smaller firms may operate on a time-sharing basis to have accounts, etc. processed and this does play a part in the communications process.

Organizational Networks

There is ample evidence to show that the organization structure of a firm affects the communications within it (McFarland, 1968)⁹. French (1964)¹⁰ points out that the number of levels in an organization affect the communications. Each level is a potential filter of both upward and downward communications. Physical distance between individuals within an organization or between different parts of an organization also creates barriers to communications.

The official channels of communication in a business correspond closely to the prescribed organizational relationships among positions or people. Informal patterns of communication, generally referred to as the "grapevine" are superimposed on the formal channels. It is important that management take into account the possible informal channels that will develop when they are planning the organization structure (McFarland, 1968)¹¹.

Within the organization structure, various dimensions of communication may be identified. These are downward, upward and lateral communication. Generally, downward communication initiates action by

⁹Op. Cit., p. 516.

¹⁰Op. Cit., pp. 457-458.

¹¹Op. Cit., p. 515.

subordinates since it is primarily of a directive nature. Upward communication is mostly informative and carries control information regarding what has happened at various points of performance. Lateral communication across departments or between people at same levels is essential to the overall coordination of the various functions (Haimann and Scott, 1970)¹².

Outside Groups

It is essential that a firm establish two-way communications with its customers, suppliers and servicemen. The Small Business Administration (1962)¹³ states that a good way for a firm to go about this is to first ask themselves, what the company expects of the suppliers, for example, and secondly, what the suppliers expect of the company. Listing these points will facilitate the establishment of better communications between the company and outside groups.

COMMUNICATIONS PROGRAMS AND MEDIA

The National Industrial Conference Board (1966)¹⁴ has described over 100 communication tools, programs, media or activities. Some of the more important ones relevant to this study will be mentioned briefly.

¹²Haimann, Theo. and Scott, William G., 1970, Management in the Modern Organization. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, p. 73.

¹³Small Business Administration, 1962, Better Communications in Small Business. Small Business Management Series No. 7. Small Business Administration, Washington, D.C., pp. 30-34.

¹⁴National Industrial Conference Board, 1966, Employee Communication: Policy and Tools. Studies in Personnel Policy No. 200, National Industrial Conference Board, New York, pp. 44-84.

Meetings and Conferences

A meeting can be described as a group of people being called together to be told something. Communication is just one way. Flipppo (1966)¹⁵ distinguishes a conference from a meeting by the fact that in a conference a group is called together for discussion and there is effective two-way communications between participants under the guidance of the leader. It is this latter approach, allowing full, free and frank discussion, that is most advantageous to a firm.

Employee Manuals

An employee manual is useful to a new employee. It gives him the company history and policies, the organization chart, safety regulations, grievance procedure and other details which will help him to feel at home in the new organization.

Bulletin Boards

A well kept, up-to-date bulletin board is excellent even for the smallest company. It should contain notices of holidays, changed schedules, layoffs, training and education opportunities, new orders received and any other piece of information which has not been covered verbally.

Posters

In the proper place, posters can be useful in reminding employees of health and safety regulations, housekeeping rules and so forth.

Employee Letters

An annual letter mailed to each employee's home is often a desirable and feasible method of promoting employee loyalty. Letters

¹⁵Op. Cit., p. 419.

can also be used to quell rumors or to explain why some specific action is being taken that may affect employees.

House Organs

Even if only a one-page mimeographed sheet, a house organ can do a lot for communications, especially if employees are encouraged to send in newsworth items.

Employee Suggestion Plans

Suggestion plans are widely used devices that achieve some of the goals of employee participation and upward communication (McFarland, 1968)¹⁶. They are generally designed to elicit practical suggestions of a technical or managerial nature, the plans are not recommended as a method of obtaining gripes and complaints. Suggestions should be processed promptly and as objectively as possible. If rewards are given, they can be based on a percentage of estimated savings.

Complaints and Grievances

Some grievance procedure whether simply a verbal one, or a written one should be available to employees. The Small Business Administration (1961)¹⁷ points out that to be effective a grievance procedure should:

1. Free the employee of the fear that stating a grievance will antagonize his immediate supervisor or top management.
2. State clearly how the employee should present his grievance and what will happen after that, step by step.

¹⁶Op. Cit., p. 533.

¹⁷Small Business Administration, 1961, Personnel Management Guides for Small Business. Small Business Management Series No. 26, Small Business Administration, Washington, D.C., p. 41.

3. Eliminate as much red tape as possible, getting to the problem and its solution in a minimum of time.
4. Eliminate any disadvantage an employee may have in being unskilled in putting his grievance into words.

COMMUNICATIONS APPLIED TO AGRICULTURE

The author was unable to find any literature or studies pertaining to the communication process within the farm firm.

Frank (1969)¹⁸ and Shapley (1970)¹⁹ have incorporated communications theory into the development of personnel management courses being taught to extension agents. The agents in turn are expected to pass this information on to the farmer in helping him to improve the overall management of his business.

RESULTS OF PRESENT STUDY PERTAINING TO COMMUNICATIONS

The results presented in this section refer to questions 86 through 96. The categories of response to these questions as well as their reported frequency are shown in Appendix B.

Coordination of Effort

All the owners or managers of the dairy enterprises were in daily contact with their supervisors or the employees. This was the principal method used to coordinate the efforts of all employees. Since dairy work was of a routine nature, each man knew exactly what had to be done

¹⁸Frank, William W., 1969, Human Relations Problems on the Farm: Discussion Leader's Instruction Manual. School of Industrial and Labor Relations, and the College of Agriculture, Cornell University, Ithaca, N.Y.

¹⁹Shapley, Allen E., 1970, Personnel Management in Agriculture: Instructor's Manual. Rural Manpower Center, Special Paper No. 12, Michigan State University, East Lansing.

each day. Generally the farm employees met with their supervisor or manager each morning after reporting for work, to receive their daily instructions.

Nine respondents made use of bulletin boards to keep their employees up to date. Six held weekly meetings with their supervisors where they discussed and planned the future week's work and problems. Monthly meetings were held by three dairymen. Occasional meetings were held by six respondents. These meetings were held only when a particular problem had to be solved or a new program was about to be started.

Delegating Responsibility

Fifteen dairymen said that they could delegate responsibility to their supervisors, but not generally to other men. Some were wary of the amount of responsibility a man could take. The general impression as regards employees accepting responsibility was that they could be depended on to do their job, rather than taking responsibility in the managerial sense. One problem that was mentioned with regard to delegating authority was that newly promoted supervisors sometimes got carried away with their new power of authority.

Almost all the dairymen felt sure that each man knew exactly who his boss was and who to take orders from. Two respondents said that sometimes their employees did get confused in this area, because they received orders from more than one partner. This problem was being solved by outlining definite areas of responsibility to the partners.

Twenty-six respondents said that they always used the chain of command when issuing orders to an employee. Some mentioned that they would automatically step in the supervisor's place if they saw something being done wrong. No real chain of command existed on nine dairies.

These were associated with the smallest and simplest types of organization structure.

Ideas From Employees

Thirty-one of the respondents said they had at some time or other received good ideas about possible changes from their employees. The majority of these suggestions were concerned with small items affecting the employees themselves, rather than the overall organization. Three dairymen said that the change from a split to a straight shift was their employees' idea. Some managers actively encouraged their employees to come up with ideas and three were considering installing suggestion boxes and giving rewards for the best suggestions.

Twenty-two respondents felt that their employees generally could be helpful in planning changes. A further five said that certain employees could be helpful. It was thought that each man could be helpful in his specific area since the employees were closer to many problems than management. Seeking the opinions of employees was considered by some managers to be very important and it helped them to feel more a part of the organization.

The Manager and Communications

Seventeen managers or owners felt that they were doing "all right" in getting their ideas across to their employees. Twelve said they thought they were doing a "good" job, while one thought he was doing "excellent". Two managers were not too happy with how they were doing. They had language barriers with the Chicano workers and they felt that the caliber of labor available was too poor to do an effective job. The difficulty of overcoming resistance to change was mentioned by several dairymen as a problem in getting their ideas across to employees.

Evaluation and Communication

The evaluation process of employees was mainly one of continually observing the quality of their work. This was mentioned by 31 of the 33 respondents to this question. Other factors in evaluation involved the use of production records, a man's dependability and his attitude towards his work. One manager, who had previously used a yearly evaluation report on each worker, had dropped its use due to lack of time to carry it out and excessive turnover. One dairy organization operating four milking parlors made use of closed circuit television to observe the milkers and to make sure they were doing a satisfactory job.

Twenty-three respondents discussed the positive and negative aspects of a man's work with him, giving praise where it was due and pointing out where improvements were needed. This was done periodically, informally and during the course of the day's work. Five respondents said that they only told a man where improvements were necessary. Two cautioned against giving a man too much praise, while a further two said they did little in this area.

Discussing Employee Problems

Owners and managers appeared to be receptive to discussing work problems with their employees. Seven said they thought a man would discuss problems he was having with his fellow employees first and only then go to the supervisor or manager. Thirteen thought a man would go directly to his supervisor, while 12 said he would go directly to the owner or manager.

Twenty-two of the respondents said they always tried to avoid getting involved in the personal problems of their employees, but that from time to time they did. These problems were generally concerned with

finance, drinking and family disagreements. Ten dairymen said they always tried to help their employees in their personal problems and encouraged their men to discuss anything they wanted to.

DISCUSSION

It appeared that the employers on these large scale dairy operations were generally satisfied with the way they were getting their ideas across to their employees. The superior - subordinate relationship appeared, in general, to be good and although the flow of communications was generally downward with orders and directives, there did appear to be an opportunity for upward communications also. Upward communications were evidenced by the employees having an opportunity to express their ideas and also when management sought the ideas of employees on proposed changes.

The routine nature of dairy work meant that each employee soon got to know his job and what was expected of his performance. The low caliber of help available on many farms made close supervision of milkers necessary and this was the reason for using a closed circuit television on one large dairy. There did not appear to be a great status or prestige gap between supervisors and employees and where Chicano workers were employed the managers favored Chicano supervisors also. Some instances of whites refusing to take orders from a Chicano supervisor were reported and vice versa also. On farms employing Chicanos it appeared to be a distinct advantage for the manager to speak Spanish.

Farm employees, as distinct from dairy employees, demanded closer supervision in general. This was due to the non-routine nature of farm work and the fact that almost every day a man would be doing something different.

Only 25 percent of the dairymen held regular meetings of supervisors to discuss problems and to make plans. Several other managers had either tried this in the past or thought that they should start. Those presently using this group approach were pleased with the results as regards participation and coordination. One manager who held a weekly meeting with his milking crew used this opportunity to give them a pep talk and to discuss their problems. This manager favored the group approach to work problems as it encouraged teamwork and helped motivation. Another manager of a large dairy and farm operation had a monthly "gripe" meeting to which all employees were invited. Though not long in operation, the manager thought that it was beginning to pay off in terms of increased discussion and suggestions.

Though not generally associated with communications on the farm, the computer is now playing an increasingly important role. It is used to supply the farm manager with vitally needed management information. Examples are seen with users of Dairy Herd Improvement Records and other Management Information Systems developed by state agricultural colleges and private industry serving the farmer.

Generally speaking, the organization structures observed did not have a sufficient number of levels to pose too many barriers to communication. On some very large farms, however, physical distance did prove to be a barrier to communications. To overcome this many managers had radios installed in the pick-up trucks so they could keep in contact with other supervisors and with the main office.

Only one dairy had an employee manual to serve as a means of communication. Although nine dairies had bulletin boards either in the dairy office or in the main farm office, there did not appear to be a great deal of information on any of them. Posters were not evident

either. The same dairy that had an employee manual also published a house organ periodically. This publication was well designed and printed and contained many photographs of employees and their activities.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the results presented and in light of communications principles and guidelines found to be successful in industrial enterprises, the following conclusions and recommendations would appear appropriate.

1. Dairymen may find it to their advantage to give more thought to the importance of and need for an adequate system of communication within their organization. It would be appropriate to review this area at the same time as developing the organization structure. Clear channels of communication need to be established, taking into account the possible informal channels that will develop.
2. The use of work-group pep-talks or discussions may prove beneficial for each section under a supervisor. A competent supervisor can conduct these himself, but initially he may need the help and encouragement of the owner or manager.
3. Weekly or bimonthly meetings of supervisors may prove to be a valuable tool in communications and coordination. Supervisors should come to the meetings prepared to discuss their future week's program. In this way the work of all sections can be coordinated and everybody knows and understands what is going on.
4. Management should stress the importance of communications to

the supervisors and encourage them to attend supervisory training programs where available.

5. On large farms or where parcels of land are widely dispersed the use of radios in pick-up trucks used by the manager and supervisors will greatly facilitate communications and coordination of the work program.
6. The installation of a suggestion system may prove beneficial to managers, because of the ideas and feedback it can generate. Help in establishing such a system could be obtained from farm suppliers or through the state university.
7. Employees should be clear on the grievance procedure or what to do if they have a complaint. Generally in these small organizations that are not unionized, grievances will be made known verbally, but there should be no fear of reprisal.
8. Employee manuals are advantageous. Large firms can afford to have them printed and well designed. Small firms such as these dairy operations could possibly get this information types up and mimeographed.
9. More extensive use of bulletin boards may prove beneficial, making sure that the board is kept up to date, so that employees will look at it daily for new items of information.
10. Posters may be obtained from insurance companies and supplier firms to remind employees of the need for safety and to provide warnings where there is danger.
11. Though printed house organs are not essential to these large dairies, many may possibly benefit from having a weekly news letter published and made available to them. Employees should

be encouraged to contribute items of information for publication in the news letter.

CHAPTER XI

HEALTH AND SAFETY

SAFETY

The total number of disabling injuries in all industries in 1970 was approximately 2,200,000. About 14,200 of these were fatal and 90,000 resulted in some permanent impairment. These figures do not include the much larger, but unknown, number of minor injuries. The National Safety Council estimated that work accidents cost the nation \$9.1 billion dollars in 1970; this amounted to \$110 per worker in industry. Figures of accident frequency rates and severity rates are also presented by the National Safety Council for the various industries (Accident Facts, 1971)¹.

In the past 50 years great progress has been made in accident prevention. Simonds and Grimaldi (1963)² state that in business firms it is common for the establishment of a good safety program to cut the accident rate to half or less. These authors have written a book called Safety Management, which is the most widely used book on this topic. The following paragraphs will summarize briefly the first chapters of the book.

Accidents do not just happen but are "caused". With rare exception, an unsafe condition or an unsafe act, or a combination of both is behind each accident. A work place where there are many

¹Accident Facts, 1971 Ed., National Safety Council, 425 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago, pp. 23-31.

²Simonds, Rullin H. and Grimaldi, John V., 1963, Safety Management. Richard D. Irwin, Inc., Homewood, Illinois, Chapters 1-7.

accidents is one in which production processes are not adequately under control. The highest efficiency in firms is generally found in conjunction with the best accident records.

SAFETY OBJECTIVES

The prime purpose of accident-prevention work is to prevent personal injuries and deaths. Injuries cause suffering to the person involved, possibly some permanent impairment, a loss of earnings to the worker's family and the country at large suffers a loss of human resources.

A second major objective of accident-prevention work is the reduction of production and operating costs for the sake of profits. Cost reduction provides a direct purpose for preventing all accidents.

There are also certain intangible gains to be made from the prevention of accidents that do not lend themselves to measurement. The two primary divisions of these gains are morale and public relations. A company with a poor accident record will find it difficult to hire and retain workers. A good safety record showing few injuries will result in a favorable public impression and may play some minor part in promoting public confidence in a company's products.

SAFETY STANDARDS

Frequency and severity rates are the accepted standards by which a company can appraise its industrial record and set goals for achievement. Four main classifications of injuries are made: (1) deaths, (2) permanent total disabilities, (3) permanent partial disabilities and (4) temporary total disabilities. These are referred to as disabling injuries. In addition to these disabling injuries there are injuries known as medical treatment cases. These are divided into doctors cases and first aid cases. Only the disabling injuries are used

in calculating the frequency and severity rates.

The frequency rate of accidents used in industry is the number of disabling injuries per million man hours of work.

The severity rate is the number of days charged for disabling injuries per million man hours of work. The time charges include, first, the number of actual calendar days lost by the injured person and secondly, specific time charges taken from a table established by the American Standards Association.

ACCIDENT PREVENTION

The owner or owners of a business should see to it that safety is one of their operating principles. They should take whatever steps may be necessary by way of engineering and employee education and control to guard against the occurrence of accidents.

ORGANIZING FOR SAFETY

According to Armstrong (1953)³ there are a few musts which should be considered in organizing a safety program:

1. Safety must have top management approval, sanction and support.
2. Responsibility for safety must rest with supervisory personnel.
3. Safety must be given equally important consideration with other factors of production.
4. Provision must be made for prompt action in the elimination of mechanical and personal hazards.

³Armstrong, T. O., 1953, Cited in Blake, R. P., (Ed.) Industrial Safety. Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, pp. 330-331.

Safety engineering, education, training and enforcement of rules are all parts of the overall safety program (Yoder, et al, 1958)⁴.

HEALTH

Most business and industrial firms provide some form of medical service, although the extent of service ranges from first aid to physical examinations by a plant physician.

The purposes of a company health program are similar, whether it be limited or extensive in scope. From the employee's standpoint it is a humanitarian type of protection in the same sense that safety methods are. From the employer's point of view it protects the health of the employee and allows him to be more productive. In a much broader sense, a good health program is presumed to be better industrial relations and improve morale (Yoder, et al, 1958)⁵.

Flippo (1966)⁶ points out that poor physical and mental health leads to a high level of absenteeism and a low level of productivity.

The occupational Health Institute⁷, a non-profit educational and certification organization created by the Industrial Medical Association, will help firms establish health and safety programs and will certify those programs that meet its requirements.

⁴Yoder, Dale, Heneman, H. G., Jr., Turnbull, John G., and Stone, Harold C., 1958. Handbook of Personnel Management and Labor Relations. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, pp. 20.20-20.27.

⁵Ibid., pp. 20.31-20.32.

⁶Flippo, Edwin B., 1966, Principles of Personnel Management. McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, p. 510.

⁷Occupational Health Institute, Functional Objectives. Chicago, Illinois, pp. 8-11.

The Small Business Administration (1964)⁸ published a booklet on Health Maintenance Programs for Small Businesses. The basic elements of a health maintenance program are identified as follows:

1. Preplacement physical examinations.
2. Periodic health appraisals.
3. Care of minor ailments and occupational disabilities.
4. Health education and counseling.

HEALTH AND SAFETY IN AGRICULTURE

Accidental work deaths in agriculture accounted for 2,400 lives in 1970. Farm residents accounted for 1,700 of these deaths and non-farm rural residents for the remaining 700 deaths. The death rate in agriculture was 67 per 100,000 workers in 1970. This left agriculture with the third highest death rate among all industries. Construction and mining had 72 and 100 deaths per 100,000 workers respectively, compared to an average of 18 for all industries. Disabling injuries were suffered by 160,000 farm residents and by 40,000 non-farm rural residents (Accident Facts, 1971)⁹

A large number of studies dealing with the incidence of accidents in agriculture have been conducted. Some studies deal with the general incidence, while most deal with a specific topic such as tractor upsets

⁸Small Business Administration, 1964, Health Maintenance Programs for Small Business. Small Business Management Series No. 16 (Second Edition), Small Business Administration, Washington, D.C., pp. 4-10.

⁹Op. Cit., pp. 85-86.

(Schneider, 1967)¹⁰ and fatal accidents to farm people (Wardle, 1958)¹¹.

In a study of Accidents Occurring to Farm People in Michigan, Hofmeister (1968)¹² reviewed the literature pertaining to accidents in agriculture and summarized the situation as follows:

1. There have been few attempts at standardization. Differences in rates between states are reported. These differences may be due to reporting methods and definitions rather than actual differences in accident rates.
2. There has been very little work done on accidents to farm people versus exposure to those accidents expressed in some time-work unit.
3. A standard definition of an accident and of any injury would be desirable for comparison purposes.
4. Several of the studies used no approved random sampling techniques.
5. Differences in accident rates by size of farm, but not by type of farming have been reported.
6. Very little literature is available pertaining to accidents sustained by hired farm laborers insured by workmen's compensation policy.

Hofmeister (1968)¹³ developed the following definition of an accidental injury. He said, an accidental injury is "an accident which results in injuries which require professional medical care or results in the loss of one half day or more of time from normal activities".

¹⁰Schneider, Rollin, 1967, Farm Tractor Upset Accident Survey. Extension Service, University of Nebraska, Lincoln.

¹¹Wardle, N. J., 1958, Fatal Accidents of Iowa Farm People in 1957. A.E. 833, Cooperative Extension Service in Agriculture and Home Economics, Iowa State College, Ames.

¹²Hofmeister, Kenneth M., 1968, A Study of Accidents Occurring to Farm People in Michigan. M.S. Thesis, Agricultural Engineering Department, Michigan State University, East Lansing, pp. 20-21.

¹³Ibid., p. 8.

This definition was later adopted by the agricultural division of the National Safety Council and is used in agriculture to report accident frequency rates. The definition of frequency rate used in industry was rejected by agriculture, because farm employees typically do not take time off from work because of slight injuries, as in the case of industry.

The study by Hofmeister (1968)¹⁴ in Michigan and three studies carried out in Ohio by Baker and Stuckey (1959)¹⁵, Bible and Stuckey (1965)¹⁶ and Philips and Stuckey (1968)¹⁷ were used by the National Safety Council (1968)¹⁸ to develop a manual on How to Conduct a Farm Accident Survey. This manual is now being used by several states to conduct farm accident studies.

New legislation affecting agriculture as well as other industries has been enacted through the Occupational Safety and Health Act of 1970. The basic purpose of this act is to assure every working man and woman in the Nation safe and healthful working conditions. The initial standards pertaining to agriculture have been reported by the United

¹⁴Ibid.

¹⁵Baker, R. H., and Stuckey, W. E., 1959, Accidents to Farm People, 29, 361 Reasons for a Safety Program. Research Bulletin 305, Ohio Agricultural Experiment Station, Wooster.

¹⁶Bible, Bond and Stuckey, W. E., 1963, Accidents to Farm People in Ohio, 22, 608th Emergency Call. Bulletin 439, Ohio Agricultural Extension Service, Columbus.

¹⁷Philips, Howard and Stuckey, W. E., 1968, Accidents to Farm and Rural Non-Farm People in Ohio. Extension Bulletin 500, Ohio Cooperative Extension Service, Columbus.

¹⁸National Safety Council, 1968, How to Conduct a Farm Accident Survey. The National Safety Council, 425 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago.

States Department of Labor (1971)¹⁹. These standards pertain to: (1) sanitation in temporary labor camps, (2) storage and handling of anhydrous ammonia, (3) pulpwood logging and (4) slow moving vehicles.

In the study of Michigan Farm Accidents, Hofmeister (1968)²⁰ found that only 50.7 percent of accidents occurred while doing farm work. The accident frequency rate was 20.6 per million man hours for all farm people, being divided into 18.7 for family and 31.2 for hired labor. Cuts and bruises accounted for 40 percent of all accidents and fractures and sprains for 18.3 and 13.5 percent respectively. Cows caused 3.6 percent of all accidents, with 1.4 percent coming from kicks.

Four categories of injury were defined by Hofmeister (1968)²¹: (1) fatal, (2) permanent -- lost finger, hand, eye, will never walk again, others, (3) severe -- broken leg, cut ligament, sprained back, others (4) slight -- minor cuts, sprains, burns, others.

The author reported 65.5 percent of all injuries as slight.

In a study of New York farms, 78 percent of which were dairy, Hoff (1968)²² found a frequency rate of 18 accidents per 100,000 days for all farm personnel and 35.7 for employees. If a 10 hour day is assumed, these figures correspond closely with those reported by Hofmeister.

¹⁹United States Department of Labor, 1971, Safety and Health Standards for Agriculture. U.S. Government Printing Office: 1971, 0-484-782 (4).

²⁰Op. Cit., p. 85.

²¹Op. Cit., p. 9.

²²Hoff, Paul R., 1969, Accidents in Agriculture. Information Bulletin 1, New York State College of Agriculture, Cornell University, Ithaca, p. 5.

RESULTS OF PRESENT STUDY PERTAINING TO HEALTH AND SAFETY

The results presented in this section deal with questions 97 through 101. These questions, the categories of response and their reported frequencies are shown in Appendix B.

Causes of Accidents

The most frequently mentioned cause of accidents was cows kicking. This was mentioned by 23 respondents. Slipping was mentioned by 11 dairymen and eight reported handling and treating cows as a major cause of accidents, while two dairymen had no accidents in the past year.

Carelessness on the part of employees was blamed for most accidents. Some employers blamed drink for many injuries that their employees sustained both on and off the job.

Types and Severity of Accidents

The most frequent types of accidents reported were minor cuts, sprains and bruises. According to Hofmeister's (1968)²³ definition these accidents were classified as "slight" in terms of severity. Seventeen employees suffered serious sprains, 14 had fractures, seven had serious bruising, nine had bad cuts and one was seriously burnt. These accidents were classified as severe. One fatal accident was reported, where an employee was crushed to death in a feed mill. The data collected did not take into account the definition of an accident and as a result frequency rates cannot be reported.

²³Op. Cit., p. 9.

Preventing Accidents

Fifteen dairymen said they stressed safety all the time as a means of cutting down on accidents. Regular visits from safety engineers or inspectors from insurance companies was reported by seven dairymen. The participation of insurance companies was mostly evident in California. The safety inspectors inspected the facilities, farm equipment and machinery for potential health hazards and made recommendations to the owner. Six dairymen reported getting safety posters from their insurance company. The elimination of kicking cows was mentioned by three respondents, while two said that they had installed non-slip floors in their milking parlors. One manager said that the language barrier prevented him from giving safety talks, but no posters were evident either.

Ensuring Good Health

All the dairymen had restrooms available for their employees as part of their overall health program. The majority also had showers. Eleven restrooms had locker rooms attached. Two dairies that employed women had a separate ladies restroom and lounge.

Eating facilities were not commonly provided, as the employees generally lived in houses on the farm and went home to eat. Ten dairies had vending machines available containing soft drinks, milk, ice cream or snacks.

Some clothing was supplied by seven dairies. Twenty-seven had first-aid kits available, but only 15 had fire extinguishers. Physical examinations were required by two dairies as part of their health program and 26 dairies carried some health insurance policies on their employees.

Employing Older Men

Only five respondents said that they did not hire older men. The general attitude towards employing older men was favorable, due to their better dependability and extra experience. Twelve dairymen said that they did not discriminate against age and that if a man was able for a job, he would be hired regardless of his age. Ten said that older men would be more suitable for jobs such as calf raising, cleaning or observing cows in heat. Older men were preferred as milkers by four dairymen.

DISCUSSION

Although the percent of dairy farm accidents resulting from cows kicking is not available from this study, the high incidence of this type of accident is readily apparent. This problem is more apparent in flat barns where the man is in closer contact with the cow than in parlor barns. It is standard policy on most dairies to eliminate kicking cows, though this was only mentioned by three respondents in this study. The high incidence of injuries due to slipping suggests the need for more use of non-slip surfaces espically in the milking barn.

The types of accidents reported in this study were similar to those reported by Hofmeister (1968)²⁴ and other researchers. Eighty-two percent of all injuries in this study were slight compared to 65.5 percent reported by Hofmeister (1968)²⁵.

²⁴Op. Cit., p. 75.

²⁵Op. Cit., p. 74.

The overall responsibility for accident prevention is the owner's. Although 15 said that they continually stressed safety, the attitude of many, that accidents were due to "carelessness" on the part of the worker cannot be let go at that. This is especially true in light of the comments of Simonds and Grimaldi (1963)²⁶ who state that "with rare exceptions, an unsafe condition or an unsafe act, or a combination of both, is behind every accident". The unsafe condition may be a slippery floor or a poorly designed milking barn. Perhaps, the worker whose "carelessness" caused the accident was following a wrong work procedure. If he was then, perhaps, he had not been instructed in the proper method by the owner or supervisor.

Nine respondents did not have any first aid kits available and 21 did not have fire extinguishers. This suggests a lack of attention to safety and health procedures on these farms. Insurance companies should be more involved in safety and health and dairymen should seek posters and other materials from these companies to help remind their employees of safety. Notices could be put on bulletin boards or messages put in the pay envelopes of employees.

There was little recording or analysis of accidents carried out and no dairymen mentioned the costs involved with accidents.

Preplacement physical examinations were required by only two dairies. It would appear that the recommendations of the Small Business Administration (1964)²⁷ on health maintenance programs could be profitably adopted by many large dairies. Restroom facilities

²⁶Op. Cit., p. 11.

²⁷Op. Cit., pp. 4-10.

generally appeared adequate. The use of protective clothing and uniforms could be expanded. By supplying clean uniforms for employees the dairyman can be surer of better hygiene in the milk production process. It may also help to increase employee morale.

The physical facilities on a dairy are directly connected with health and safety. They also play another important part in personnel management on large dairies. The problem of high turnover and availability of low caliber individuals for dairy work has already been mentioned. In an effort to solve some of these problems and to increase their efficiency, many dairymen are now beginning to install very modern milking facilities with built-in attractive working conditions. By doing this it is hoped to attract a higher caliber of individual into dairy employment. Making the milking process less strenuous through installation of automatic equipment will allow increased use of older more reliable men and also women as milkers.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the results of this research and in light of the discussion of health and safety in both industry and agriculture, the following conclusions and recommendations are appropriate:

1. Dairymen may find it to their advantage to pay more attention to the health and safety of their employees. Programs and policies can be developed in this area. The guidelines set up by the Small Business Administration would appear applicable to large dairy farm organizations.
2. Records may be kept on accidents that do occur, how they occurred and their severity. This would help the individual dairyman to identify causes of accidents and to help prevent

them. The records could also serve as inputs for researchers in farm safety.

3. Research is needed relative to accidents on dairy farms to identify their causes, types and severity. The information would be useful to equipment manufacturers and dairy managers for the prevention of accidents.
4. Dairywomen should keep in mind that the provision of safe working conditions and a healthy work environment will have an increasing effect on the caliber of the help they can hope to attract for dairy employment.
5. Insurance companies have a vital interest in the safety programs of their clients. Dairywomen may seek the help and advice of safety inspectors and engineers in making sure that they have no hazardous working conditions. Safety posters, films and other ideas to promote safety may also be available from these companies.
6. The Occupational Safety and Health Act of 1970 has initialized standards to be met by agriculture and other industries. Dairywomen should be aware of the implications of these standards for the management of their operations and be prepared to meet further standards in future years.

CHAPTER XII

LABOR RELATIONS

The role of the labor union in society is a fairly secure one as measured by the degree of its growth and public support. Until the 1930's unions grew slowly and struggled hard for their existence. Survival was imperative to the unions as they faced bitter opposition from employers and did not have the favorable legislation that they have today (McFarland, 1968)¹. From slightly less than three million in 1933, unions grew to some 15 million members in 1945 (Flipppo, 1966)². Since that time the pace of growth has slackened and the most recent estimate of membership made by the United States Department of Labor (1970)³ is 20.2 million.

The vitality of the labor movement is the subject of much controversy among unionists. Some feel that the spirit has gone out of the movement, while others feel that setbacks and disappointments are temporary. White-collar union membership is, however, on the increase, as is government worker membership and membership of women. Despite these increases, however, union membership has not kept pace with the growth of employees in the labor force, or in employment in non-agricultural

¹McFarland, Dalton E., 1968, Personnel Management: Theory and Practice. The Macmillan Company, Collier-Macmillan Limited, London, p. 560.

²Flipppo, Edwin B., 1966, Principles of Personnel Management. McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, p. 466.

³United States Department of Labor, 1970, Directory of National and International Labor Unions in the United States. Bulletin No. 1665, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, D.C., p. 55.

establishments (United States Department of Labor, 1970)⁴.

UNION STRUCTURE

The basic building block of union organization is the labor union local. In 1969 there were nearly 64,000 locals chartered by the AFL-CIO, representing about 77 percent of the membership claimed by all unions. In addition there were 13,000 locals in unaffiliated national unions (U.S. Department of Labor, 1970)⁵. It is the national union, however, drawing strength from the larger federation, that is the primary source of strength for the union local. National unions charter the local union and provide a "union movement" point of view. Nationals levy per capita dues on locals and in turn pay dues to their parent federation. The national unions are governed by executive boards and by the actions of delegates at national conventions.

LABOR LAWS

Labor law is complex and voluminous. It covers not only laws regulating collective bargaining and union management relations, but also such matters as child labor, hours of work, wages and fair employment. The United States Department of Labor (1964)⁶ in a bulletin on Federal Labor Laws and Programs, lists and summarizes the various laws. It is clear from their listing that there are many laws -- Federal, State and Local -- to which management must give its attention.

⁴Ibid., pp. 55-56.

⁵Ibid., p. 55.

⁶United States Department of Labor, 1964, Federal Labor Laws and Programs. Bulletin 262, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Standards, Washington, D.C.

Four major laws passed between 1932 and 1959 provided the legal basis for collective bargaining. These were:

1. The Norris-LaGuardia Act of 1932, affirmed the right of unions to use concerted activities without interference by federal law, and negated the court injunction procedure used by management.
2. The National Labor Relations Act of 1935 (Wagner Act), guaranteed employees: (1) freedom to bargain collectively with the employer through representatives of their own choosing and (2) the right to engage in concerted organized activities.
3. The Taft-Hartley Act of 1947 (Labor-Management Relations Act) amended the Wagner Act of 1935 and changed the emphasis from protecting unions and their rights to protecting employers, individual workers and the public.
4. The Landrum-Griffin Act of 1959 (Labor-Management Reporting and Disclosure Act) represented an effort to combat corruption and undemocratic procedures in labor unions and to protect the individual worker and management from abuses of union power (Flippo, 1966)⁷.

UNION SECURITY

Union security is a basic aim of labor unions. In labor agreements security clauses are those which define the bargaining unit, state who speaks for the union, with what authority, for how long and under what conditions. The legal form of recognition is that of sole and exclusive

⁷Op. Cit., pp. 456-461.

bargaining rights, awarded by supervised elections in the firm. McFarland (1968)⁸ identifies four main types of union security arrangements with respect to union membership. They all seek to maximize union membership within the bargaining unit:

1. The closed shop. Each employee must become a member of the union before he is hired. This system is found mainly in the construction industry.
2. The union shop. The employer may hire anyone he chooses, but the employee must join the union within a specified time if he is to remain an employee.
3. Maintenance of membership shop. All employees who are members of the union on a given date must continue for a stated time, usually the life of the contract.
4. Agency shop. No one is required to join the contracting union, but those employees who do not choose to become union members must pay dues to the union representing them as collective bargaining agent.

COLLECTIVE BARGAINING

Collective bargaining is the process in which the representatives of the labor union and the business organization meet and attempt to negotiate a contract or agreement which specifies the nature of the employee-employer union relationship (Flippo, 1966)⁹. It is seen, therefore, that collective bargaining involves management and union

⁸Op. Cit., p. 572.

⁹Op. Cit., p. 468.

both working within the legal framework set by government. This tri-lateral or tripartite approach to the discussion of industrial relations is used by Yoder (1962)¹⁰.

THE BARGAINING PROCESS

The law requires that the parties "bargain in good faith", that is, that they intend to negotiate an ultimate agreement; that they each make compromises and concessions in drawing nearer to agreement and that they continue to meet and talk with each other. Despite the wide variety of shapes that bargaining can take, there are certain fundamental procedures and stages of action that can be identified. These are: (1) the prenegotiation phase, (2) the selection of negotiators, (3) the strategy of bargaining, (4) the tactics of bargaining and (5) the contract (French, 1962)¹¹, (Flipppo, 1966)¹², (McFarland, 1968)¹³.

In the event of no agreement various pressures are brought to bear upon management by the union, such as strikes, picketing and boycotts. The basic management pressure is that of waiting until the absence of the payroll makes itself felt on every union member. One approach to solving the deadlock in agreements is to use a third party as mediator who will attempt to bring the two parties closer to agreement through persuasion. A second approach to resolving the deadlock is that of

¹⁰Yoder, Dale, 1962, Personnel Management and Industrial Relations. Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, pp. 138-271.

¹¹French, Wendell, 1964, The Personnel Management Process: Human Resources Administration. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, pp. 351-358.

¹²Op. Cit., pp. 469-475.

¹³Op. Cit., pp. 575-578.

arbitration. Arbitration involves two fundamental ideas: (1) that the parties must agree voluntarily to submit their disputes to arbitration and (2) that the parties must agree to be bound by the arbitrators' decision (McFarland, 1968)¹⁴.

Flipppo (1966)¹⁵ states that management generally gets the type of union relationship it wants. If management wants to fight, the union will accomodate it. Labor-management relations have, in some cases, progressed from a status of militant opposition to armed truce to working harmony and finally, in rare cases, to joint labor-management cooperation.

The establishment of a constructive relationship in the advancement of labor-management peace is a basic obligation of both parties. According to Flipppo (1966)¹⁶ such a relationship should include: (1) labor union and management acceptance of each other as responsible parties in the collective bargaining process, (2) acceptance by both parties of the free enterprise system with its concomitant obligations and the authority of private ownership and private operation of business organizations, (3) an emphasis on a problem solving approach with a de-emphasis on excessive legalism and (4) an awareness of basic obligations to principals, who include employees, stockholders, customers and the public.

¹⁴Op. Cit., pp. 581-582.

¹⁵Op. Cit., p. 485.

¹⁶Op. Cit., p. 485.

LABOR RELATIONS AND COLLECTIVE BARGAINING IN AGRICULTURE

Prior to 1900 unionism on farms was almost nonexistent. The reasons for this are outlined in a paper by Willis Sloan (1966)¹⁷. These reasons include isolation of farms with limited means of communication, close identification between farm workers and their employers, economic opportunities in the cities and the fact that the trade union movement was small and largely restricted to skilled craftsmen.

In the early 1900's the American Federation of Labor tried to organize field workers on the large, highly specialized California farms. At the same time the Industrial Workers of the World was making an attempt to organize farm workers on a national scale. By the mid 1920's, however, both movements had almost died.

The agricultural labor supply grew rapidly during the 1930's as a result of the depression, drought, government-sponsored crop reduction and acreage control programs, and technological changes in farming. During this time the AFL, CIO, Trade Union Unity League, Southern Tenant Farmers and Teamster's Unions, made renewed efforts in unionizing agricultural labor. California was the scene of most union activity. Between 1930 and 1948 there were more than 380 strikes involving 200,000 farm workers in 33 states. About half the strikes and nearly three-fourths of the strikers were in California.

Since 1948 there have been numerous attempts to organize farm workers. The AFL-CIO have continued their efforts and in 1959 they formed the Agricultural Workers' Organizing Committee (AWOC). This

¹⁷Sloan, Willis, 1966, The History of Collective Bargaining in Farm Labor. Proceedings of Maryland Farm Manpower Conference, university of Maryland, College Park, pp. 57-60

group supported a series of strikes against the lettuce industry in Imperial Valley, California, in 1960-61. In May, 1965, AWOC called a strike for higher wages for grape harvest workers in Coachella Valley, California. The growers met the wage demands. In the Fall of 1965 grape pickers moving into Delano, California, made similar wage scale demands and when they were not met they called a strike in that area. The strikers were joined by members of the National Farm Workers' Association.

In the 1966 harvest season the grape strike expanded to include picketing in the field, packing houses, cold storage plants, business offices and the San Francisco docks. The activities generated considerable nationwide publicity and a great deal of public support. Caesar Chavez emerged as a strong leader for the striking workers and eventually, in 1970, gained recognition for the United Farm Workers' Organizing Committee (UFWOC) as bargaining agent for the grape pickers.

Stanley Knebel (1971)¹⁸ states that it will only be a matter of time before large-scale unionization of farm workers in California is achieved. Congress is presently discussing proposed federal legislation on collective bargaining for farm workers, and it is certain, according to Knebel, that the legislative proposal will recognize the right of farm workers to bargain collectively. Agriculture up to this point has been excluded from the National Labor Relations Act of 1935. The focal point in the present debate will be whether to simply extend the NLRA coverage to agriculture or to start out fresh realizing that the agricultural

¹⁸Knebel, Stanley M., 1971, Collective Bargaining Legislation for Agriculture. Proceedings of Maryland Rural Manpower Conference, University of Maryland, College Park, pp. 77-83.

industry has certain unique characteristics which require that it be dealt with apart from other industries. The unique situation of agriculture is based on the relatively small size of the producing units, the seasonality of employment and most important, the perishability of crops. Whether NLRA coverage is extended to agriculture, or a new act is passed pertaining to farm workers, a crucial issue will be how to deal with the strike or threat of a strike at harvest time.

While California has been the focal point in organizing agricultural workers, some activities have also been taking place in other parts of the Nation (Sloan, 1966¹⁹, Knebel, 1971²⁰). The National Farm Workers' Association has been trying to organize workers in the lower Rio Grande Valley of Texas. This effort, as in California, centers around the Mexican-American population and also has church support. The United Agricultural Workers' of America have been organizing crew leaders and field hands in Florida since 1966, though so far they have shown little in the way of tangible results.

Most agriculturalists think that overall unionization of the agricultural industry is a long way off (Fuller, 1966²¹, Knebel, 1971²², Shapley, 1971²³). Shapley analyzed the situation as it concerns Michigan

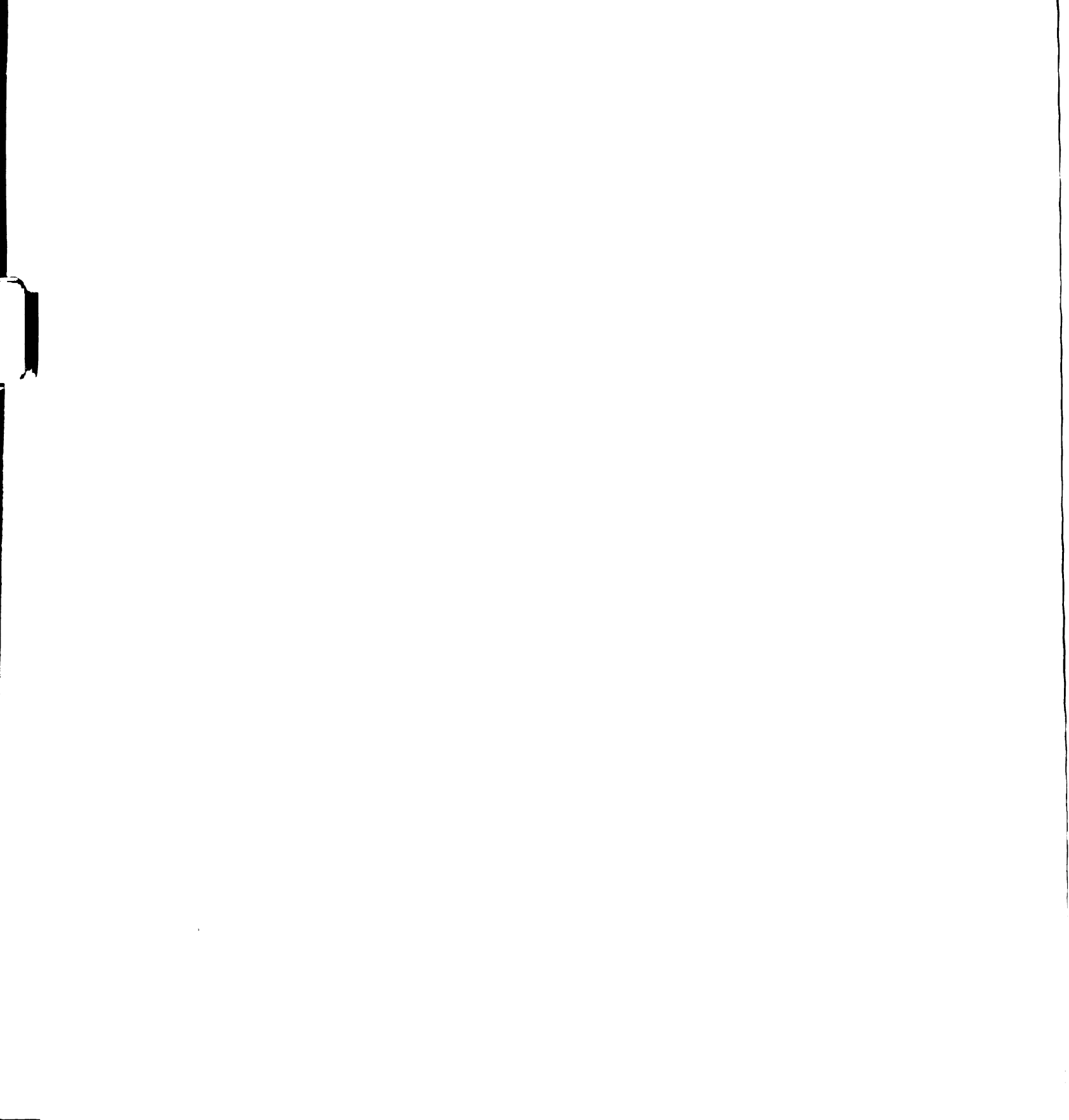
¹⁹Op. Cit.

²⁰Op. Cit.

²¹Fuller, Varden, 1966, Emerging Farm Labor Issues. Paper presented at the 44th Annual National Agricultural Outlook Conference, Washington, D.C.

²²Op. Cit., p. 83.

²³Shapley, Allen E., 1971, Analysis of Collective Bargaining for Michigan Farm Workers. Paper presented at the Spring Meeting of the Michigan Association of Farm Managers and Rural Appraisers, p. 15.



farmers. He concluded that farmers in Michigan due to their attitudes and beliefs about unions, would not push for unionization. Farm workers, because of their distribution, social isolation, attitudes and goals would not push for unionization either. Lastly, the unions who basically have to make their decisions on the basis of economics, will not push for unionization of farm workers because of the wide dispersion of farm workers, the low income levels of the workers, their transiency nature and the way the numbers are changing over time.

RESULTS OF PRESENT STUDY PERTAINING TO LABOR RELATIONS

The results presented in this section pertain to questions 102 through 117. The questions, the categories of response and their reported frequencies are shown in Appendix B.

Extent of Unionization

Six of the 36 dairymen visited operated under a union contract. All these dairies were located in California. On these farms the dairy workers, which included milkers and outside men, were unionized, but not farm workers or field hands. All dairies in California operate close enough to unionized dairies, to be aware of unionizing activities, though this was mentioned by only one of the four non-unionized dairies. There had been some unsuccessful union activity in El Paso, Texas, but no reported union activity in other areas.

The unionization of dairy workers in California started in 1935 with the formation of the California Milkers' Recreation Club. Membership at that time was 17. In 1936 the union was granted a charter by the CIO, but in 1937 they switched to the Teamsters under the charter of Local 737. Present membership of Local 737 is approximately 1,000. In 1949 the Christian Labor Association (CLA) began organizing dairy

workers into Dairy Employees Union Local No. 17. Present membership of this union is also estimated at 1,000.

The unions operate a union shop. An employer can hire a new employee from any source, but after 30 days this new employee is required to join the union if he is to remain on the farm.

Collective Bargaining

The union is recognized as the sole collective bargaining agent for all the dairy employees of the employer. The Master Agreement of the Teamsters specifies nine different job classifications. These are: (1) working foreman, (2) hospital barn men, (3) feeders and green hay haulers, (4) milkers, (5) milkhouse employees, (6) transport drivers, (7) regular relief men, (8) maintenance men and (9) cow washers and/or wranglers.

A committee chosen by the dairymen negotiate the contract with the union. One dairyman reported that he negotiated his own contract with the union.

In establishing the labor agreement, the union prepares a proposal on a new wage and benefit agreement and presents this to the committee of dairy farmer representatives for negotiation. After an agreement is reached the contract is signed. The contract period is three years.

The major issues in bargaining sessions with the union were wages, retirement programs and insurance programs.

Effect of Unionization

Non-unionized employees typically received the same wages and benefits as union members. This was mentioned by four of the six respondents. One dairyman said that his non-union farm employees received less than those unionized. The remaining employer had no non-union members.

Five employers deducted union dues from their employees' paycheck. One farm in northern California had dues collected by the union steward directly from the employees.

There were no problems in working under union conditions for four of the dairymen. One dairyman said that his flexibility in hiring and firing was taken away by the union, while one other manager did not like any interference from the union and wanted to get rid of it.

There was disagreement among the dairymen as regards the union supplying them with services. Three respondents said they supplied no services at all, two said they supplied qualified milkers and one said they supplied relief men.

Four dairymen thought that the union had helped rather than hindered their development. Reasons given included increasing the efficiency of dairy work, supplying qualified labor and guaranteeing both employer and employee certain work standards, thus easing the problems of management.

Non-Unionized Dairies

All the dairymen that were non-unionized, except one who employed only family labor, had considered the fact that one day their labor could be unionized. One of these dairymen, in California, had already got out of the union, while two others had been exposed to union efforts to organize their employees.

Thirteen of the dairymen that were not unionized were not really anti-union. They said they would accept the union all right, based on what they had heard of unionized dairies in California. They did, however, want some guarantees as to the availability of labor, its quality and their freedom to strike. Eleven respondents were strongly anti-union, three said they could prevent the union coming in by giving

equal wages and benefits, while two said that their employees did not want to be unionized.

The majority of non-unionized dairymen felt that unionization would hurt their business in some way. Nine said that their cost of labor would be increased, while ten said that the employer-employee relationship would be changed to the detriment of the company. One manager was concerned about strikes and two were concerned about their managerial freedom being curtailed. Six respondents thought that unionization would not hurt their business and three said that it could actually help their labor management. Eight said that they did not really know what to expect from unionization.

Five respondents out of 23 felt that they could not prevent their labor becoming unionized. Four said that all they could do would be to stall it, while three said they did not know if they could or not. Eleven others were more hopeful of preventing unionization, four by increasing wages and benefits, four through improving employer-employee relations and three said their men would not want the union.

DISCUSSION

Unionization is not widespread among agricultural workers at the present time. Although agriculturalists do not believe that unionization on a large scale will come into agriculture for many years, certain areas are likely to experience an increase in union organizing activity. Legislative action granting the right to farm workers to bargain collectively will facilitate union drives.

The areas of agriculture most likely to be organized first are those with a large concentration of farm workers in the same type of work. It is precisely for this reason that unionization of dairy workers started in the Los Angeles milk shed in 1935. This area still has the

highest concentration of dairy herds and employees in all the United States. This concentration of employees in a relatively small area and the fact that they are in similar type work greatly facilitates union organizing. It is likely that the next areas to experience dairy union activity will be Phoenix, Arizona, West Texas and Florida. Other areas in the country do not have this high concentration of large dairy herds. Unions are also likely to seek an increase in their bargaining unit and to include field workers as well as dairy workers on dairy farms.

The development of a good working relationship between the dairy-men and the union is essential for the well being of both parties. The dairy owner or manager may well find that what he sacrifices to the union in flexibility and freedom to hire and fire, will be more than made up for through services provided by the union. There was some difference between the Teamsters union and the CLA with respect to services. The CLA appeared to be more service conscious and one of their aims was to provide a complete employment service to its members and to the dairy farmers. This included supplying relief milkers when needed. The Teamsters did not make the same effort to supply relief milkers. Both unions attempted to supply dairymen with qualified labor and to ensure that they would meet certain standards. The fact that four of the six unionized dairymen felt that the union had helped rather than hindered their development speaks well for the union service in general.

The grievance procedure used by the unions involves the use of an adjustment board consisting of two members representing each of the parties, with a fifth member being called in the case of a deadlock. Grievances are only sent to the board if prior settlement is not reached between the employer and union representative. No cessation of work or lockout is allowed during the discussion period. The decision of the

board is binding to both parties.

Dairies that were not unionized, had all thought about the possibility of eventual unionization. Although many were strongly anti-union in their attitude, unionization was acceptable to as many more. A major concern of dairy unionization was the strike. This is a vital issue for dairy farmers whose cows have to be milked twice a day. Shut-downs are not possible as in manufacturing. With adequate provision for the avoidance of strikes and under the guidance of a service conscious union and a facilitating management, there would appear to be few reasons why unions could not contribute to the dairy industry.

The prevention of unionization of dairy farms is very much up to the management. Good personnel management programs and practices are essential to the establishment of good employer-employee relations. In the absence of competitive wage and benefit programs, and the existence of good employer-employee relations dairymen are simply asking the union to come in and take over this function.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The following conclusions and recommendations are appropriate in light of pending legislative action pertaining to collective bargaining in agriculture and the results of this study.

1. It appears almost certain that legislative action will recognize the right of farm workers to bargain collectively. Whether this action will simply amend the NLRA Act of 1935 by repealing the exclusionary provision for agriculture, or develop a new act, certain unique factors associated with agriculture will have to be provided for.
2. The most crucial issue in developing machinery to extend

coverage of collective bargaining legislation to agriculture is how to deal with the strike or threat of a strike. Although dairymen and their unions appear to have a good working relationship at present, this aspect of legislation will be vitally important to the dairy producers.

3. The recognition of the right of farm workers to bargain collectively will increase the amount of union organizing activity. Union activity for economic reasons will be largely confined to areas of high concentration of farm workers. As far as dairying is concerned this will mean continued efforts in California with possible expansion to Arizona, West Texas and Florida. Dairying in the remainder of the country would appear to be too dispersed and not involve sufficient concentration of hired employees to attract the unions attention -- initially at any rate.
4. Dairy farmers should watch closely the developments of collective bargaining legislation applied to agriculture. They should seek interpretation of this legislation as it applies to dairies from their dairy organizations.
5. To help forestall unionization dairy managers should pay attention to their entire personnel management program to see how they as managers can fulfill their employees' needs, rather than have them turn to the union for help.

CHAPTER XIII

DAIRY EMPLOYEES

The discussion of personnel management would not be complete without seeking the opinions of the dairy employees. The objective of all personnel management programs is to build good morale among employees by developing a spirit of common interest in striving for common goals. A small-business owner has an advantage over his large-business competitor in accomplishing this. This advantage is the physical closeness of the owner-manager to all his employees (Small Business Administration, 1961)¹. This closeness greatly facilitates communication, which is generally recognized as the key to obtaining the desired teamwork. The small-business employer is able to discuss things individually with his employees; their aims, their problems, how the company is doing financially and he can generally build up a sense of loyalty to the company in this way.

The development of good employee relations from a management standpoint has been the theme of the previous ten chapters. The chapters on communication and motivation are especially pertinent. In this chapter a summary of employee attitudes and opinions will be presented. The discussion will relate the employee's opinions of their job and working conditions to what has already been discussed in previous chapters pertaining to the employer.

¹Small Business Administration, 1961, Personnel Management Guides for Small Business. Small Business Management Series No. 26, Small Business Administration, Washington, D.C., p. 1.

RESULTS OF THIS STUDY PERTAINING TO DAIRY EMPLOYEES

The results presented in this section pertain to questions 123 through 139. These questions, the categories of response and their reported frequencies are shown in Appendix B. On each farm visited the author tried to interview a herdsman, a milker and an outside dairy worker -- generally a feeder. These men were not available on every farm and in some instances there were language barriers precluding an interview. Twenty-three herdsmen were interviewed, 28 milkers and 26 outside men.

AGE, EDUCATION AND EMPLOYMENT

The average age of the employees interviewed varied only from 36.5 years for outside men to 38.0 years for milkers. Herdsmen had an average of 11.2 years of education compared to 8.8 and 8.7 for milkers and outside men respectively. The average length of employment in their present job was 5.3 years for herdsmen, 5.2 years for milkers and 4.2 years for outside men.

THE HIRING PROCESS

Personal contact through friends or other people was the most frequently mentioned way of finding out about the possibility of a job on the farm for the three groups of employees. Milkmen and outside men came looking for jobs more frequently than did herdsmen. Herdsmen on the other hand were more frequently recruited by the owner or manager.

The size of the dairy operation and the challenge it offered was the attraction of employment for seven herdsmen. Others came because they needed a job, more money, or better working conditions. Two herdsmen came to gain experience. Milkmen were attracted mostly by

better working conditions and secondly by more money. The attractions for outside men varied somewhat more. Seven were attracted to the dairy because they needed a job, five for more money, five because of the location of the farm and four for better working conditions.

Almost half the herdsmen interviewed had been herdsmen on other dairies before they took their present jobs. Fifteen of the 28 milkers had previously been milkers on other farms, five had done other farm work, others had been in teaching, construction, mechanical or other jobs. The background of outside men was more varied. Farm work was the most common with dairy work and industrial work following.

ADVANTAGES OF DAIRY WORK

The most frequently mentioned advantage of dairy work compared to other employment mentioned by herdsmen was the "way of life". Next, in order, came liking to work with cattle, steady employment and freedom within their job. The main advantage seen by milkers was the steady employment offered by dairy work. This was followed by the fact that housing was generally provided, they liked country living, and thought that they would be better off in "real" terms on a dairy than in any other job, considering their level of education. Outside work was the main advantage of dairy work for the outside men. This was followed by steady employment, being better off in "real" terms, housing and having freedom within their job.

All of the 23 herdsmen interviewed had a farm background, with 11 mentioning a dairy background specifically. Twenty-five of the 28 milkers interviewed had a farm background, and 20 of the 26 outside men interviewed had a farm background.

WORKING CONDITIONS

The dairy employees appeared to be generally happy with their working conditions. Most commonly they described their working conditions as being "good". Five herdsman described their conditions as "excellent". Those who said that conditions were improving or very poor were mostly concerned about the long hours they had to work.

The relationship between employees and management was generally classed as being "good" to "very good". Only one respondent said it was "very poor".

All the respondents felt that their relationship with their fellow employees was, at least, satisfactory. The majority felt that it was "good" or "very good".

COMMUNICATIONS

Herdsman received their instructions from the owner or manager. The milkers and outside men received theirs from the owner, manager or herdsman. Generally it was from the herdsman, where one was employed.

Almost all the employees felt that they were well enough informed about their duties. One herdsman was not always sure of his exact responsibilities and needed clarification on this from the owner.

Practically all the respondents said they had an opportunity to communicate their ideas and problems to management. On one dairy where the manager appeared to be very autocratic, the employees did have some problems communicating with him, including the herdsman.

STRAIGHT VS. SPLIT SHIFT

In general, the only people on a dairy farm to work a split shift were the milkers. There was a marked preference among milkers for a

straight shift. Their main reason for not liking the split shift of morning and night work was that they could have little time off to be with their families or to go out for an evening. Almost all the outside men worked on a straight shift. The herdsmen worked on a straight shift themselves and the reason some of them preferred a split shift -- for milkers -- was that it proved to be better, in their opinion, for production and cow health.

WAGES AND BENEFITS

The majority of employees thought that their wage, incentive and benefit program was "satisfactory" or "good". Four herdsmen considered they were underpaid for the responsibility and work load they had. Two milkers and three outside men thought that they were underpaid. Those who said they needed more benefits mentioned medical, dental and retirement programs as being essential. Sick leave was also mentioned as being desirable.

OPINIONS ABOUT THE DAIRY

There was a great variety of responses to what the employees liked most about their place of work. The majority of herdsmen mentioned working conditions first and this was followed by working with cattle, the people they worked with and the boss they worked for. Milkmen also mentioned the working conditions most frequently and this was followed, in their case, by working with cattle, nothing in particular, no one bothering them, good all round and a steady job. The pattern of response was that they had nobody bothering them. This was followed by a good all round place to work, working with cattle, the people they worked with and good working conditions.

The majority of employees interviewed planned on staying on in their jobs in the future. Fifteen out of 23 herdsman planned on staying on. Four said they wanted eventually to have their own dairies. Twenty of the 28 milkers planned to stay and four more said they would stay for a while anyhow. The outside men were not quite so certain. Fourteen out of 26 said they would like to remain on, five were not certain and four said they would leave if a better job came up.

DISCUSSION

The average herdsman had somewhat less than a high school education. Although the herdsman, as would be expected, had more education than the milkers or outside men, only four had bachelor's degrees in dairy or animal husbandry. This was not too surprising in light of comments made by dairymen that they found it very difficult to get college graduates who were willing to be working managers rather than executives. As a result, managers were forced to seek experienced dairymen, or train their own herdsman. The average length of employment for milkers -- at 5.2 years -- would appear much longer than expected from previous comments made by owners or managers. This can be explained by the fact that the very high turnover problems were confined to the southern regions and that the most frequently reported turnover rate was 20-30 percent. Another factor influencing this figure was the fact that some of the farms having high turnover had Chicano employees and many of these spoke Spanish only, thus precluding an interview.

The large number of applicants for jobs, noted earlier on dairy farms is supported by the fact that almost a third of the milkers and outside men had secured their jobs by coming and looking for them. Most

herdsmen had been recruited or got their jobs through personal contact. This supports management's desire to have much more information on the background of a supervisor compared to another man.

Working conditions were very important in attracting milkers to a job. The observed policy on many dairies of trying to modernize their facilities and equipment in an effort to attract higher caliber men would, therefore, appear to be sound reasoning. The size of operation posed a challenge to many herdsmen and this challenge undoubtedly helped them fulfill their needs to a certain extent and served as a source of motivation.

While all the herdsmen and the majority of milkers had farm backgrounds and had previously been engaged in similar work, the backgrounds and past employment of outside men varied somewhat more. It is much easier for an employee without a farm background to work as an outside man on a dairy than to learn to handle cows and be a milker.

Dairy farming as a way of life, involving country living, much outdoor work and steady employment would appear to be a good advertisement, based on the attractions it held for those employees interviewed. All these factors contribute to the satisfaction of the employees and for individual employees may allow them to progress further along the continuum of needs towards the eventual goal of self-fulfillment.

Many employers reported that they tried to take a personal interest in the well-being of their employees and to keep them informed of what was happening on the dairy. This policy appeared to pay off as judged by the fact that the majority of employees considered the employer-employee relationship to be "good" or "very good". The employees also felt that they were well informed of their duties and that they could communicate their ideas and problems to management. This supports

the view of the management in that they thought they were doing well in getting their ideas across to the employees.

Although the split shift may be popular with owners and managers from a production and herd health point of view -- its days appear numbered -- at least on large dairies -- judging by its popularity among milkers. Dairymen will need to adopt different systems of herd management to successfully incorporate a straight shift while at the same time maintaining production and herd health.

Employees were generally satisfied with their wage, incentive and benefit program. Many commented that they were doing much better on a dairy farm, considering their education, than they could do in any other source of employment. It was surprising that more employees did not mention a need for more benefits, since ten dairies did not have any life or health insurance programs. Many employees did not appear to have an appreciation of insurance as a means of security and preferred extra cash. This was observed by several employers.

Consideration of the factors that employees liked most about their jobs shows up the importance of good working conditions, a liking to work with cattle and freedom within the job. From a management standpoint these factors are important in attracting and keeping good employees. The desire of most employees to remain in their jobs and their contentment, speaks well for management's efforts. It was mentioned earlier, in Chapter IX on motivation that management was mostly concerned with preventing dissatisfaction among employees rather than really trying to motivate them. This position is still held. Although the employees did appear very content, their caliber, as mentioned by many dairymen was low, thus making them content with

less than it would take to satisfy or motivate the caliber of dairy worker needed and sought by dairymen.

CHAPTER XIV

SUMMARY

Personnel management practices on large-scale dairy operations were studied. The overall purpose of the research was to develop effective personnel management guidelines for these operations.

The prevailing practices on the dairy farms were considered in light of current theory and practice of personnel management in industrial organizations. This approach was based on the premise of the universality of personnel management to all types and sizes of organizations. Industry was chosen as a base of reference due to the fact that it has a well developed theory of personnel management. Until recently, agriculture showed little evidence of recognizing the human relations aspect of management.

"Large-scale" for purposes of this study was defined as herds having 500 or more cows in one operation. Thirty-six large scale dairies out of a total population of 399 were studied. The United States was stratified into six dairying regions, based on differences in type of dairying carried on and on geographical location. The six strata were; the Mid-West, Northeast and East, Southeast, South, California and North and Northwest. The selection of dairy farmers within these regions was based upon the recommendation of Dairy Extension Specialists. The criteria for selection were a willingness on the part of the dairyman to cooperate and a reputation of having a relatively good relationship with his employees.

Ten functions of personnel management were identified and studied. These were; manpower planning, maintaining personnel records, setting up the organization structure, hiring personnel, training and development,

wage and salary administration, motivation and discipline, communications, health and safety and labor-relations.

Manpower planning was not typically an integral part of the overall planning process. Planning in general appeared to be rather an informal process and only one dairyman produced a five year plan on paper. The cows per man approach to anticipating future labor requirements was the most frequently mentioned. This approach was dependent on the level of technology being employed. Most plans were for future herd expansion and the major unknowns were the market for milk, labor availability and waste disposal. The future labor outlook was considered by most dairymen to be favorable with the major problem being that of finding the right caliber of man.

The only personnel records kept by half of the dairies visited were those relating to payroll information. Some additional information -- mostly in the form of application blanks -- was kept by the remaining half. Record keeping was regarded as a chore, found necessary to meet legal requirements as well as payroll needs. There was a general lack of attention to the benefits to be gained from a comprehensive set of personnel records.

Organization charts were not kept by any of the dairymen visited. Charts were developed for each organization through questioning the owner or manager. Six classifications of organization structure were identified. Many dairies lacked an organization structure that would enable them to operate more efficiently. There was an unwillingness on the part of management to delegate authority and to set up responsibility centers. Nineteen dairies operated a split shift for milkers, while the remainder used a straight shift. There was a tendency to move toward the use of a straight shift as herd size increased and facilities were

modernized. The milkers showed a marked preference for the straight shift. The average size of herd visited was 1,579 cows. The average number of employees was 32 with a range of 6-115.

More attention has been paid by agriculture to the functions of hiring and training than to any other functions of personnel management. Word of mouth was the most frequently mentioned way of making it known that a new employee was needed. Almost one third of the milkers and outside men had secured their jobs by coming and looking. Most herdsmen on the other hand were recruited. Many of them were attracted by the challenge of large herd management. Milkers were mostly attracted by the working conditions. The way of life on a dairy farm, working with cattle, the steady employment offered, freedom within the job, housing and country living, and being better off in "real" terms than in other jobs were the things that the dairy employees liked most about their jobs.

The selection process for new employees was very informal. It consisted mainly of a brief interview, with fewer than half of the dairies utilizing application forms. Dairymen generally felt that they were having good success in hiring new employees. The most frequently mentioned turnover rate was 20-30 percent and it ranged from 0-900 Percent in the previous year.

Almost all dairymen were conscious of the value of training and gave a new man some training when he came on the job. Training was generally done by the supervisor with the length of the training period varying with the man's previous experience. One farm had a six week training program for all new employees. Two-thirds of the dairies had sent employees to shortcourses for retraining, mostly in breeding. Problems existed in getting employees to attend courses and the availability of good courses. A lack of job descriptions on dairy farms

hindered the development of specialized training programs. Dairymen felt that the Extension Service and farm supply industries should develop the courses. Few supervisors had any personnel management training. Owners and managers had little exposure to personnel training. However, they did recognize the need for it as part of the overall management process.

Wage rates were set by union contract for the six unionized dairies in California. Other dairies generally set their starting wage according to the going rate in their area. Incentive programs were used by fewer than half the dairies. Those who had incentive programs based them mostly on milk production. Many dairies would like to use incentive programs, but found problems in setting up adequate controls in such a manner that the program would not be abused. Almost 25 percent of the dairies had profit sharing programs -- mostly of the trust or deferred payment type. These managers were satisfied with the results on employee morale. Many of the benefits offered by industry were evident on the dairy farms. These included; paid vacations, health and life insurance, retirement, sick leave and personal leave. The breadth of benefits offered varied greatly among farms. Almost all dairies supplied housing and most supplied utilities to dairy employees. The majority of dairies furnished milk to their employees. The majority of employees felt that their wage program was "satisfactory" to "good". Some mentioned the need for more benefits, mostly medical, dental and retirement. Many employees felt that they were doing better in "real" terms on a dairy than they could elsewhere.

Showing an interest in employees and their welfare and helping them take pride in their work and working conditions were the most frequently mentioned methods of motivation used. Other methods of motivation

mentioned included meetings and pep talks, creating an atmosphere of competition among employees and complimenting good performance. The majority of employers felt that the attitude of their employees towards the farm and their work was generally good. It would appear that dairymen were more concerned with preventing dissatisfaction among their employees than with motivating them. They took care of their employees' physiological needs but security needs were not met in all cases. Due to their social position it is doubtful if the employees could fulfill their need for esteem and self-respect. Consequently, they could not reach their final goal of self-actualization.

Employers were generally happy with the way they were doing in getting their ideas across or communicating with their employees. The superior subordinate relationship was good and although the flow of communications was generally downward with orders and directives there was also an opportunity for upward communications. Upward communications were evidenced by employees having an opportunity to express their ideas and by management seeking the ideas of employees on proposed changes. Only 25 percent of the dairymen held regular meetings of supervisors to discuss problems and make plans. The employees considered the employer-employee relationship to be good. Workers felt they could communicate their ideas to management and that they were well informed about their jobs.

Cows kicking was the most frequently mentioned cause of accidents. This was more evident in flat barns than in parlor barns. The next most frequently mentioned causes of accidents were slipping and handling and treating cows. Eighty-two percent of all injuries reported over the past year were slight; one fatality was reported. Insurance companies

in California helped in accident prevention through making routine inspections. Most dairymen stressed safety as a means of accident prevention. Twenty-five percent did not have first aid kits and almost 60 percent did not have fire extinguishers. Two dairies made use of preplacement physical examinations as part of their overall health program. Restrooms were available on all farms and the majority had showers. Seven dairies supplied some protective clothing for their employees.

Six dairymen operated under a union contract -- all were located in California. The unions operated a union-shop and acted as sole bargaining agent for all the dairy employees of the employer. A committee chosen by the dairymen negotiated the contract with the unions every three years. Major issues in the bargaining sessions had been wages, insurance programs and retirement programs. Unionized dairymen were generally happy with the union and felt that it had helped rather than hindered their development. All of the non-unionized dairymen had considered that they might one day be unionized. Almost 50 percent of these said they would accept the union based on their knowledge of unions in California and provided some guarantees were given -- especially with regard to strikes. Forty percent were anti-union. The majority felt that unionization would hurt their business either through increasing their labor costs or by changing the nature of the employer-employee relationship.

Based on the results of this study and in light of successful personnel management practices of the industrial sector recommendations for the improvement of each function of personnel management on large-scale dairy operations were made.

Although this study has focussed exclusively on the personnel

management process on large scale dairy operations, there is no reason, provided perspective is maintained, why the principles and guidelines developed in this study should not apply to all dairy farms.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Accident Facts, 1971, Ed., National Safety Council, 425 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago.

Agricultural Statistics, 1970: United States Department of Agriculture, Washington.

Anderson, Charles L. and Greene, R. E. L., 1969, Use of Labor and Labor Management Practices on Florida Dairy Farms. Agricultural Economics, Mimeo Report EC 69-12, Gainesville, Florida.

Argyris, Chris, 1957, Personality and Organization. Harper and Brothers, New York.

Armstrong, David L., 1969, Employment Agreements in Hiring Farm Workers. Rural Manpower Center, Special Paper No. 9, Michigan State University, East Lansing.

Armstrong, T. O., 1953, cited in Blake, R. P., (Ed.) Industrial Safety. Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey.

Backstrom, Charles H. and Hursh, Gerald D., 1968, Survey Research. North Western University Press.

Baker, Alton W., 1955, Personnel Management in Small Plants. Bureau of Business Research, College of Commerce and Administration, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

Baker, R. H. and Stuckey, W. E., 1959, Accidents to Farm People, 29 361 Reasons for a Safety Program. Research Bulletin 305, Ohio Agricultural Experiment Station, Wooster.

Beckett, James W., 1965, Training Supervisors of Farm Labor -- A Guide for Instructors. Department of Agricultural Education, University of California, Davis.

Berlo, David K., 1960, The Process of Communication. Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York.

Berry, William E., 1969, What a Personnel E.D.P. System Should Do. Personnel Journal 46, 1, 18-21.

Bible, Bond and Stuckey, W. E., 1963, Accidents to Farm People in Ohio, 22, 608th Emergency Call. Bulletin 439, Ohio Agricultural Extension Service, Columbus.

Black, John D., Clawson, Marion, Sayre, Charles R. and Wilcox, Walter W., 1951, Farm Management. The Macmillan Company, New York.

Boal, Robert S., 1970, Ed., Improving Employee Performance. The Four State Committee on Cooperative Research and Education, Florida, Georgia, North Carolina and South Carolina, Four State Publication 1.

Boss, Andrew and Pond, George A., 1949, Modern Farm Management, Principles and Practices. Ithaca Press, The Webb Publishing Company, St. Paul.

Bradford, Lawrence A. and Johnson, Glenn L., 1967, Farm Management Analysis. John Wiley and Sons, Inc., New York.

Bratton, C. A., 1966, Labor Practices on 71 Dairy Farms, Lewis County New York. A.E. Ext. 467, Department of Agricultural Economics, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York.

Broom, H. N. and Longenecker, J. G., 1961, Small Business Management. South-Western Publishing Company, Cincinnati.

Brown, Lauren H., 1967, Making Farm Employment Competitive. Rural Manpower Center, Special Paper No. 1, Michigan State University, East Lansing.

Cash, J. G., 1968, Some Factors for Consideration when Planning for Milking Herds of 150+ Cows. Department of Dairy Science, University of Illinois, Urbana.

Castle, Emery N., and Becker, Manning H., Farm Business Management. The Macmillan Company, New York and Collier-Macmillan Limited, London.

Copeland, Melvin T., 1958, And Mark an Era, The Story of the Harvard Business School. Little, Brown and Company, Boston and Toronto.

Dairy Producer Highlights, 1970. National Milk Producers Federation, Washington, D.C. 20001.

Dale, Ernest, 1951, Planning and Developing the Company Organization Structure. American Management Association, New York.

DeGraff, Herrell and Ladd, Heystead, 1948, The Business of Farming. Norman: University of Oklahoma Press.

Department of Agricultural Education, University of California, Davis, 1965, Training Supervisors of Farm Labor, A Guide for Instructors.

Drucker, Peter F., 1954, The Practice of Management. Harper and Row, Publishers, Inc., New York.

Efferson, J. Norman, 1949, Farm Records and Accounts. John Wiley and Sons, Inc., New York and Chapman and Hall Limited, London.

Frank, William W., 1969, Human Relations Problems on the Farm -- Discussion Leader's Instruction Manual. College of Agriculture and School of Industrial and Labor Relations, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York.

Festinger, Leon and Katz, Daniel, 1953, Research Methods in the Social Sciences. The Dryden Press, New York.

Flipppo, Edwin B., 1966, Principles of Personnel Management. McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York.

French, Wendell, 1964, The Personnel Management Process. Human Resources Administration, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston.

Fuller, Varden I., 1957, Some Labor Efficient Dairy Farm Organizations. Ag. Econ. No. 690, Department of Agricultural Economics, Michigan State University, East Lansing.

Fuller, Varden, 1966, Emerging Farm Labor Issues. Paper presented at the 44th Annual National Agricultural Outlook Conference, Washington, D.C.

Fuller, Varden and Beale, Calvin L., 1967, Impact of Socioeconomic Factors on Farm Labor Supply. Journal of Farm Economics, Vol. 49.

Given, Charles W. and Hundley, James R., Jr., 1966, Human Relations on Dairy Farms. Rural Manpower Center, Number 2, November, 1966, Michigan State University, East Lansing.

Good, William J. and Hatt, Paul K., 1952, Methods in Social Research, McGraw-Hill, New York.

Haimann, Theo. and Scott, William G., 1970, Management in the Modern Organization. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston.

Hall, Carl W., 1968, Bibliography on Mechanization and Labor in Agriculture. Rural Manpower Center, Special Paper No. 6, September, 1968, Michigan State University, East Lansing.

Hervey, Jack L. and Holmquist, Garth, 1968, Rural Manpower: An Annotated Bibliography, Rural Manpower Center, Special Paper No. 5, August, 1968, Michigan State University, East Lansing.

Herzberg, Frederick, 1966, Work and Nature of Man. World Publishing Company, Cleveland.

Hoff, Paul R., 1969, Accidents in Agriculture. Information Bulletin No. 1, New York State College of Agriculture, Cornell University, Ithaca.

Hofmeister, Kenneth M., 1968, A Study of Accidents Occurring to Farm People in Michigan. M.S. Thesis, Agricultural Engineering Department, Michigan State University, East Lansing.

Holt, James S., 1967, How to Hold Your Farm Labor Force. Paper presented at the Northeastern Dairy Conference, Niagara Falls, New York, April 6, 1967.

Holt, James S., 1970, Impact of the Industrialization of the Hired Farm Work Force Upon the Agricultural Economy. American Journal of Agricultural Economics, Vol. 52.

Holsti, Ole R., 1969, Content Analysis for the Social Sciences and Humanities. Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Reading, Massachusetts.

Hopkins, John A. and Heady, Earl O., 1953, Farm Records. The Iowa State College Press, Ames, Iowa, p. 199.

Hughes, Earl M., Jr., and Stanton, B. F., 1965, Time Spent on Entrepreneurial and Related Activities (44 New York Dairy Farms 1964-65), Department of Agricultural Economics, A.E. Res. 187, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York.

Huneryager, S. G. and Heckmann, I. L., 1967, Human Relations in Management. South-Western Publishing Company, Cincinnati, Ohio.

Jacobs, Glenn, 1970, The Participant Observer. George Braziller, New York.

Jahoda, Marie, Deutsch, Morton and Cook, Stuart W., 1965, Research Methods in Social Relations. Holt, Rhinehart and Winston, New York.

Jucius, Michael J., 1967, Personnel Management, 6th Ed., Richard D. Irwin, Inc., Homewood, Illinois.

Kerlinger, Fred N., 1964, Foundations of Behavioral Research. Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., New York.

Kindall, Alva F., 1969, Personnel Administration, Principles and Cases. Richard D. Irwin, Inc., Homewood, Illinois.

King, Walter P., 1970, Employee Selection, Orientation and Development. The Four State Committee on Cooperative Research in Education. Florida/Georgia/North Carolina/South Carolina.

Knebel, Stanley M., 1971, Collective Bargaining Legislation for Agriculture. Proceedings of Maryland Rural Manpower Conference, University of Maryland, College Park.

Likert, Rensis, 1967, The Human Organization. McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York.

Lundberg, George A., 1926, Case Work and the Statistical Method. Social Forces, Vol. 5.

McAllister, W. T., 1967, Dairyman's Big Problem: Labor. The Milkpail, H. P. Hood Company, Boston.

McFarland, Dalton E., 1968, Personnel Management, Theory and Practice. The Macmillan Company, New York and the Collier-Macmillan Company, Limited, London.

McFarland, Dalton E., 1970, Management Principles and Practices. The Macmillan Company, Collier-Macmillan Limited, London.

McGregor, Douglas, 1960, The Human Side of Enterprise. McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York.

Maslow, Abraham H., 1954, Motivation and Personality. Harper and Brothers, New York.

Massie, Joseph L., 1964, Essentials of Management. Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey.

Michigan Agricultural Statistics, 1971, Michigan Department of Agriculture, Lansing, Michigan.

Mitcheltree, Wallace A., 1966, Supervision and Management of Farm Labor. Journal of Farm Economics, 48, 5, 1149.

Morgan, Philip L., 1966, Automatic Data Processing of Personnel Data. Personnel Journal.

Murrill, Frank D. and Pelissier, C. L., 1967, Dairy Labor-Management Relations in the San Joaquin Valley. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Dairy Science Association, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York.

National Industrial Conference Board, 1966, Employee Communication: Policy and Tools. Studies in Personnel Policy No. 200, National Industrial Conference Board, New York.

Occupational Health Institute. Functional Objectives, Chicago, Illinois.

Payne, Stanley L., 1951, The Art of Asking Questions. Princeton University Press, Princeton.

Philips, Howard and Stuckey, W. E., 1968, Accidents to Farm and Rural Non-Farm People in Ohio. Extension Bulletin 500, Ohio Cooperative Extension Service, Columbus.

Pigors, Paul and Myers, Charles A., 1969, Personnel Administration. McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York.

Pool, I. de S., 1959, Ed., Trends in Content Analysis. University of Illinois Press, Urbana.

Rigby, Paul H., 1965, Conceptual Foundations of Business Research. John Wiley and Sons, Inc., New York.

Rural Manpower Center, 1967, Suggested Farm Labor Records. Mimeograph No. 5, Rural Manpower Center, Michigan State University, East Lansing.

Scheuch, E. K. and Stone, P. J., 1964, The General Inquirer Approach to an International Retrieval System for Survey Archives. Amer. Behav. Scientist, Vol. 7.

Schneider, Rollin, 1967, Farm Tractor Upset Accident Survey. Extension Service, University of Nebraska, Lincoln.

Sellitz, Claire, Jahoda, Marie, Deutsch, Morton and Cook, Stuart W., 1965, Research Methods in Social Relations, Rev. Ed., Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York.

Shapley, Allen E., 1969, Alternatives in Dairy Farm Technology to Meet High Labor Costs. Research Report 80, Agricultural Business, Michigan State University, East Lansing.

Shapley, Allen E., 1969, Full-Time Employees on Michigan Dairy Farms. Rural Manpower Center, Report No. 20, Michigan State University, East Lansing.

Shapley, Allen E., 1970, Personnel Management in Agriculture, Instructor's Manual. Rural Manpower Center, Special Paper No. 12. February, 1970, Michigan State University, East Lansing.

Shapley, Allen E., 1971, Analysis of Collective Bargaining for Michigan Farm Workers. Paper presented at the Spring Meeting of the Michigan Association of Farm Managers and Rural Appraisers.

Simon, Julian L., 1969, Basic Research Methods in Social Science. Random House, New York.

Simonds, Rollin H. and Grimaldi, John V., 1963, Safety Management. Richard D. Irwin, Inc., Homewood, Illinois.

Sloan, Willis, 1966, The History of Collective Bargaining in Farm Labor. Proceedings of Maryland Farm Manpower Conference, University of Maryland, College Park.

Strauss, George and Sayles, Leonard R., 1963, Personnel -- The Human Problems of Management. Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey.

Strauss, George and Sayles, Leonard R., 1967, Personnel 2nd Ed. Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey.

Stouffer, Samuel A., 1962, Social Research to Test Ideas. The Free Press of Glencoe, New York.

Small Business Administration, 1961, Personnel Management Guides for Small Business. Small Business Administration, Management Series No. 26.

Small Business Administration, 1962, Better Communications in Small Business. Small Business Management Series No. 7, Small Business Administration, Washington, D.C.

Small Business Administration, 1964, Health Maintenance Programs for Small Business. Small Business Management Series No. 16 (2nd Edition) Small Business Administration, Washington, D.C.

Sturt, Daniel W., 1969, The Manpower Game. A compendium of notes based on previous papers, presented to the Kellogg Farmers Group V, October 20, 1969. Rural Manpower Center, Michigan State University, East Lansing.

United States Department of Labor, 1964, Federal Labor Laws and Programs. Bulletin 262, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Standards, Washington, D.C.

United States Department of Labor, 1970, Directory of National and International Labor Unions in the United States. Bulletin No. 1665, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, D.C.

United States Department of Labor, 1971, Safety and Health Standards for Agriculture. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1971.

Waite, William W., 1952, Personnel Administration. The Ronald Press Company, New York.

Wardle, N. J., 1958, Fatal Accidents of Iowa Farm People in 1957. A.E. 833, Cooperative Extension Service in Agriculture and Home Economics, Iowa State College, Ames.

Woods, Robertson, 1951, Farm Business Management Revised. J. B. Lippincott Company, Chicago, Philadelphia and New York.

Yoder, Dale, 1962, Personnel Management and Industrial Relations. Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey.

Yoder, Dale, Heneman, H. G., Turnbull, John G. and Stone, Harold C., 1958, Handbook of Personnel Management and Labor Relations. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York.

APPENDIX A

APPENDIX A

NUMBER OF DAIRIES HAVING 500 COWS OR MORE BY STATE AND IN THE SAMPLE

<u>STATE</u>	<u>NUMBER OF DAIRIES WITH 500 COWS OR MORE</u>	<u>NUMBER IN THE SAMPLE</u>
ALABAMA	3	0
ARIZONA	21	2
ARKANSAS	1	0
CALIFORNIA	210	10
COLORADO	2	0
CONNECTICUT	0	0
DELAWARE	0	0
FLORIDA	98	6
GEORGIA	2	1
IDAHO	1	0
ILLINOIS	1	1
INDIANA	0	0
IOWA	0	0
KANSAS	1	1
KENTUCKY	0	0
LOUISIANA	5	0
MAINE	0	0
MARYLAND	2	1
MASSACHUSETTS	2	1

Appendix A (continued)

<u>STATE</u>	<u>NUMBER OF DAIRIES WITH 500 COWS OR MORE</u>	<u>NUMBER IN THE SAMPLE</u>
MICHIGAN	3	3
MINNESOTA	0	0
MISSISSIPPI	3	1
MISSOURI	1	1
MONTANA	0	0
NEBRASKA	0	0
NEVADA	3	0
NEW HAMPSHIRE	0	0
NEW JERSEY	1	0
NEW MEXICO	6	0
NEW YORK	1	1
NORTH CAROLINA	0	0
NORTH DAKOTA	1	0
OHIO	0	0
OKLAHOMA	0	0
OREGON	1	0
PENNSYLVANIA	1	0
RHODE ISLAND	0	0
SOUTH CAROLINA	3	1
SOUTH DAKOTA	0	0
TENNESSEE	1	0
TEXAS	16	3
UTAH	1	0
VERMONT	2	1

Appendix A (continued)

<u>STATE</u>	<u>NUMBER OF DAIRIES WITH 500 COWS OR MORE</u>	<u>NUMBER IN THE SAMPLE</u>
VIRGINIA	2	2
WASHINGTON	4	0
WEST VIRGINIA	0	0
WISCONSIN	0	0
WYOMING	0	0
TOTAL	399	36

APPENDIX B

APPENDIX B

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

GENERAL QUESTIONS

1. Name:
2. Address:
3. Herd size: total cows _____, cows milking _____.

No. of respondents 36

	<u>No. of Herds</u>	<u>Avg. No. Of Total Cows</u>	<u>Avg. No. Of Cows Milking</u>	<u>Range Cows Milking</u>
Mid-West	6	1,038	820	400-1,500
East	6	838	684	430-1,100
Southeast	9	1,924	1,479	600-5,100
South	5	1,271	1,060	400-2,100
California	10	2,224	1,675	500-5,100

4. How long has the farm been in the dairying business?

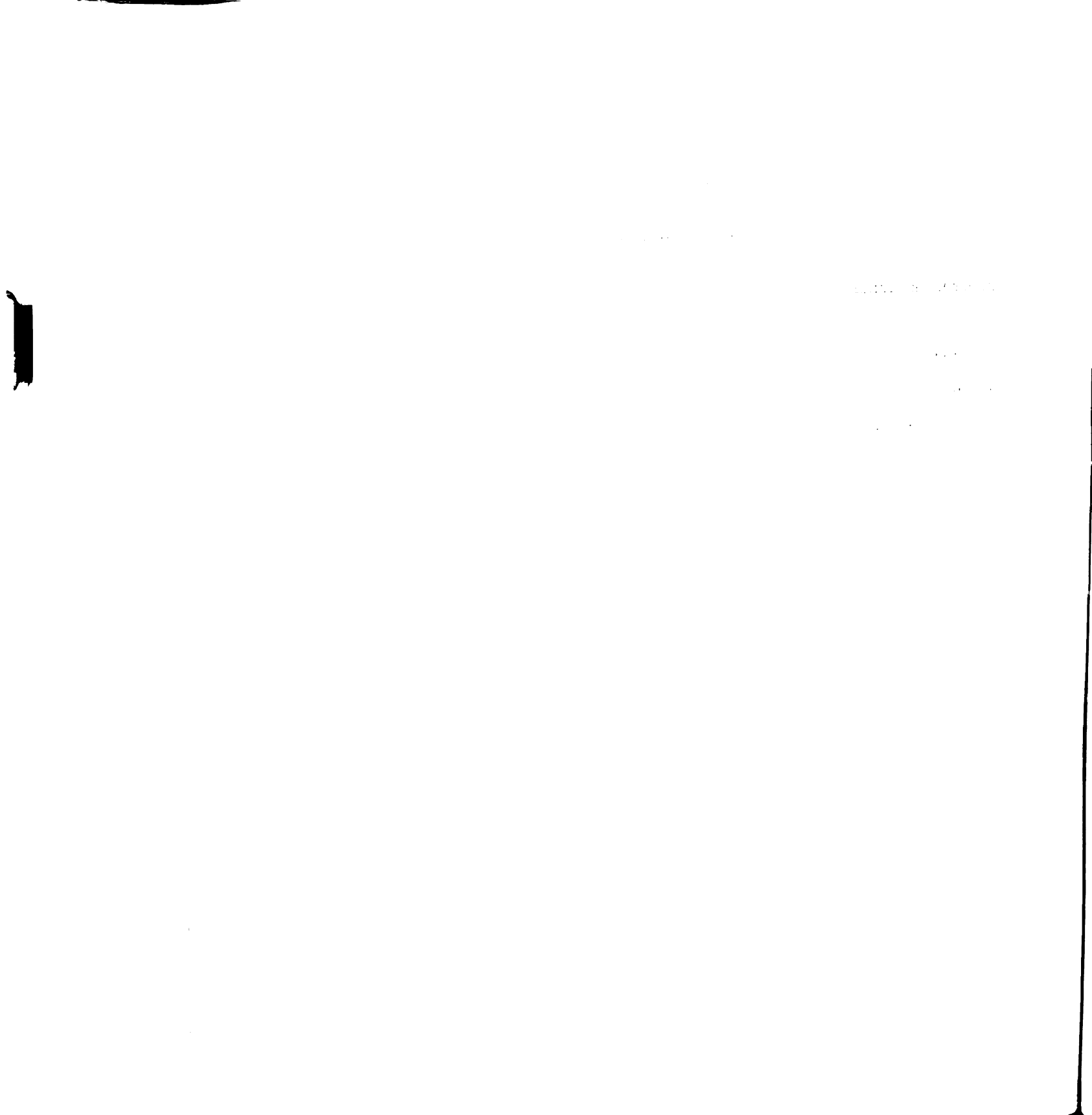
No. of respondents 36

Less than 5 years.....	1
5-10 years.....	6
10-20 years.....	7
More than 20 years.....	22

5. Number of parcels of land?

No. of respondents 36

	<u>Avg.</u>	<u>Range</u>
Mid-West	1.5	1-3
East	3.7	1-8
Southeast	2.0	1-4
South	1.4	1-3
California	1.5	1-4



6. Farm acreage: total acres ____.

No. of respondents 36

	<u>Land Owned</u>	<u>Rented</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>Range</u>
Mid-West	1,727	781	2,508	1,400- 3,600
East	2,897	234	3,131	1,200- 9,000
Southeast	4,696	283	4,979	1,135-15,000
South	3,427	320	3,747	17-15,850
California	1,397	134	1,531	60- 3,500

7. Number of dairy herds ____.

No. of respondents 10

More than one dairy operation 10

8. Number of young stock ____, no. of bulls ____,
rear yourself ____, contract ____, purchase ____.

No. of respondents 36

	<u>Avg. No. Young Stock</u>	<u>% Replacements Raised</u>	<u>No. Using Contracts</u>	<u>No. Keeping Some Stock Bulls</u>
Mid-West	694	67	1	6
East	467	52	0	4
Southeast	1,045	59	1	9
South	707	75	1	4
California	1,125	80	0	3

9. Structure of organization:

Single ownership ____, partnership ____, corporation ____,
other ____.

No. of respondents 36

	<u>Single Owner</u>	<u>Partnership</u>	<u>Corporation</u>
Mid-West	2	3	1
East	2	1	3
Southeast	1	2	6
South	1	2	2
California	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>3</u>
	9	12	15

10. Number of employees: total number _____

Total number of respondents 36

	<u>Mid- West</u>	<u>East & North East</u>	<u>South- East</u>	<u>South</u>	<u>Calif- ornia</u>
<u>Number of respondents by region</u>	6	6	9	5	10
Owner/Manager	6	6	8	5	8
Dairy Supervisor	6	12	34	15	25
Milkers & Relief	45	42	99	42	137
Pushers	2	4	7	8	2
Feeders	13	7	10	12	28
Dairy clean-up	--	--	13	4	7
Lot clean-up & manure	5	9	1	2	13
Young stock	9	7	21	5	20
Breeders	1	--	9	--	7
Hospital & Maternity	3	2	3	3	--
Milling	1	1	1	2	7
Trucking	2	--	1	3	13
General	13	--	13	6	---
Maintenance	1	10	19	9	15
Others	1	37	--	2	9
Farm Supervisors	4	10	6	3	11
Farm Workers	18	46	46	9	82
Others					
Office	6	8	11	5	7
Total Cows Milking	4,920	4,105	13,312	5,300	16,745
Cows/Milker	109	96	134	126	122
Cows/Milker & Pusher	105	89	126	106	120
Avg. No. Per Farm	21.7	32.3	35.1	26.7	38.7
Range		6-115			

11. Is this labor force fairly constant throughout the year?

No. of respondents 36

Labor force constant 23

Higher in cropping season 13

12. Milking system used?

No. of respondents 36

D.3 Herringbone.....	3
D.4 Herringbone.....	13
D.4 On one side.....	4
D.5 Herringbone.....	2
D.6 Herringbone.....	1
D.8 Herringbone.....	11
D.10 Herringbone.....	6
D.12 Herringbone.....	4
D.20 Herringbone.....	1
D.3 Ross-Holms.....	10
Flat barn.....	19
Stanchion barn.....	1

13. Type of housing? No. of cows per unit (corral) _____?
Basis of herd division.No. of respondents 36

a. Open lot free stall.....	9
Environmental control free stall & slats.....	1
Motel system.....	4
Dry lot.....	1
Free range.....	5
b. Less than 50/unit.....	2
50-99/unit.....	14
100-149/unit.....	9
150-199/unit.....	5
200-299/unit.....	3
300-399/unit.....	3
c. Production.....	16
Age or size.....	4
Age or size & production.....	11
None.....	5

14. Feeding system used in dairy barns?

a. grain

b. roughage

No. of respondents 36

a. In parlor only.....	10
Parlor & outside.....	14
Parlor & feed barn.....	4
All outside.....	8
b. All mechanical.....	9
All fenceline.....	23
Combination.....	1

15. How is your feed supplied?

- a. forage: types used
grow all _____, buy all _____, combination _____,
pasture _____.
- b. grain
grow all _____, buy all _____, combination _____,
pasture _____.
- c. complete feed _____.

No. of respondents 36

a. Grow all.....	14
Purchase all.....	9
Grow silage or green chop.....	10
Purchase hay.....	11
b. Grow all.....	0
Purchase all.....	26
Combination.....	8
Mix own.....	17
c. Complete feeds.....	2

16. Do you have any other farm enterprises besides dairy?

No. of respondents 36

No other enterprises.....	24
Chicken enterprise.....	1
Beef or steer operation.....	9
Hog enterprise.....	1
Cropping.....	2

17. Are the various enterprises broken down separately for accounting purposes?

No. of respondents 36

Use enterprise accounting.....	17
Don't use enterprise accounting.....	

18. If so, is the labor force separate for each enterprise?

No. of respondents 5

Labor force separate.....	5
---------------------------	---

19. Do you process any of your own milk?

No. of respondents 36

Process own milk.....	10
Do not process own milk.....	26

20. What percentage of the processed milk is your own? How is it marketed?

No. of respondents 10

100% is own produced.....	4
50% is own produced.....	5
66% is own produced.....	1

21. Apart from being a milk producer are you involved in other dairy activities? For example: showing cattle _____, sale of breeding stock _____, marketing organizations _____, breeding associations _____, board of co-ops _____, others _____.

No. of respondents 36

Showing cattle.....	10
Sale of breeding stock.....	7
Breed associations.....	14
Marketing organizations.....	18
Board of co-ops.....	10
Others.....	15
No activities.....	7

22. Can you give me some production figures for your herd either now or after our interview?
milk per cow _____, culling rate _____, calving interval _____, death rates: cows _____, calves _____, income per cow _____, price of milk _____, price of feed _____.

No. of respondents _____

	<u>Mid- West</u>	<u>East</u>	<u>South East</u>	<u>South</u>	<u>Calif- ornia</u>
Lb. milk	13,825	13,382	11,834	12,822	15,851
Lb. fat	---	---	---	---	608.5
Culling rate	23.3	24.4	25.9	20.7	30.0
Calving interval	13.3	12.7	13.3	13.0	12.6
Cow death rate	1.7	2.5	1.5	2.0	2.3
Calf death rate	8.9	6.1	7.5	6.8	10.1
Price of milk	6.16	7.02	7.55	6.49	6.00
Price of concentrates	56.50	75.43	64.50	64.25	72.00
Price of hay	25.00	---	30.00	41.50	41.30
					*18.00
Price of corn silage	*8.80	*9.90	*10.00	*8.32	13.50
					*8.50

*Cost of production

23. What type of work structure do you have on the farm?
Straight shift _____? Split shift _____? Other _____?

No. of respondents 36

Straight shift..... 17
Split shift..... 19

24. What are the general hours worked by employees?
Milkers _____? Herdsmen _____? Others _____? Operator _____?

No. of respondents 36

a. Milkers

<u>Hours/ Day</u>	<u>Days Worked</u>	<u>Days Off</u>	<u>No. Of Respondents</u>
7	30	5	1
8	6	1	7
8	10	2	1
9	4	1	2
9	6	1	14
10	5	2	1
10	6	1	9
Varies	6	1	1

b. Outside men

8	6	1	2
9	6	1	13
10	5 1/2	1 1/2	1
10	6	1	18
11	6 1/2	1 1/2	1
12	6	1	1

25. How is relief milking handled?

No. of respondents 36

Set relief men..... 24
Supervisor relieves..... 4
Outside man relieves..... 3
College shift on weekends..... 1
Family relieve..... 4

26. Can you help me to picture the overall structure of the farm as far as people are concerned. For example: Who reports directly to you. Discuss.

No. of respondents 36 (See charts on page 66.)

Type I.....	5
Type II.....	1
Type III.....	10
Type IV.....	13
Type V.....	6
Type VI.....	1

27. Who is responsible for labor management on the farm?

Manager _____? Other _____?

No. of respondents 36

Owner/manager.....	22
Manager(s).....	16
Supervisors for their men.....	8

MANPOWER PLANNING

28. Do you intend to expand your operation or to make any major changes within the next year?

Yes 14

No 22

Herd expansion.....	9
Calf or heifer raising.....	2
Structural.....	3
Facilities.....	2

Within five years?

Yes 18

No 10

Perhaps 8

Herd expansion.....	16
Out of dairying.....	2
Change facilities.....	2
Not sure.....	3
Move to other area.....	2

29. What types of information do you find most useful in planning for these changes?

Financial.....	6
Costs.....	6
Market for milk.....	6
Labor availability.....	7
Labor efficiency.....	5
New technology.....	6
Cattle availability.....	2
Location.....	2
General.....	6

30. What do you consider to be the major unknowns as far as planning is concerned?

None.....	1
Financial.....	2
Costs.....	4
Market for milk.....	10
Labor availability.....	5
Labor efficiency.....	2
New technology.....	3
Location.....	4
Feed supply.....	3
Management availability.....	3
Manure disposal.....	5
Cow problems.....	3
Cow production.....	1

31. In anticipating your future labor requirements, what guidelines do you use to determine the number of men you will need?

No. of respondents 34

Cows per man.....	14
Cows per man & milk per man.....	3
Cows per man & technology.....	6
Milk per man.....	2
Experience.....	2
Hours of work per man per day.....	3
Union contract.....	1
No set guidelines.....	3

32. Do you have any set procedure for preparing for the event of one of your present force leaving (quit, die, fired)?

No. of respondents 36

Carry extra men on farm.....	8
Outside dairy hand fills in.....	6
Relief man fills in.....	3
Supervisor fills in.....	13
People waiting in training.....	2
Call union for service.....	1
No set procedure.....	3

33. Do you normally do all the planning yourself or can you delegate some of it to others? To whom _____?

No. of respondents 36

Conference of owners.....	6
Conference of owners & managers.....	6
Owner does all.....	13
Manager does all.....	4
Manager works by policy set.....	2
Can delegate some.....	5

RECORDS

34. What kinds of records do you keep on your workers?

No. of respondents 36

Payroll information only.....	18
Payroll & other records.....	18
Application forms.....	14
Selection test results.....	1
References.....	2
Absenteeism.....	3
Sick leave.....	4
Accidents.....	2
Health (physical).....	2
Grievances.....	1
Performance review.....	1
General comments.....	3

35. What influences the type of records you keep?

No. of respondents 36

Legal requirements.....	34
Payroll needs.....	34
Performance review.....	3
Size of firm.....	1
Not sure.....	2

36. Are these records kept separate from your payroll records?

No. of respondents 36

Application file.....	12
Individual files.....	4
Not separate.....	20

37. What is your main use of these records?

No. of respondents 36

Wage and salary pruposes.....	36
Performance appraisal.....	2
Wage increases.....	2
Personal reference.....	1
Keeping track.....	1

38. Do you have a timeclock for your workers?

No. of respondents 36

Have a time clock.....	13
No time clock.....	23

39. Who keeps the farm records?

No. of respondents 36

a. Herd records

Manager.....	12
Herdsman.....	16
Secretary.....	8

b. Business records

Manager.....	4
Wife.....	2
Secretary.....	7
Farm business office.....	4
Outside business office.....	9
Accountant employed.....	10

HIRING

40. How do you make it known that you are looking for a new employee?
Advertising, where, personal contact.

No. of respondents 35

Through word of mouth.....	14
Advertising.....	8
Calling farm labor office.....	3
Calling union.....	4
Always applicants waiting.....	10
Personal contact.....	9

41. Where do you usually get new employees from?
Inside, present employees, competitors, applicants, employment offices, unions, schools, migrant workers, others.

No. of respondents 35

Through applicants.....	25
Through union.....	3
Through labor office.....	2
Through present employees.....	14
Sponsoring foreign imigrants.....	2
Personal contact with individuals.....	6

42. Is there any particular source you find more satisfactory than others? If so, why?

No. of respondents 35

No particular source.....	23
Europeans.....	2
Mexicans.....	1
Ex-small farmers.....	4
People from other dairies.....	4
City people.....	

43. What procedure does an employee go through when being hired?
Application blanks, interviews, physical.

No. of respondents 35

Fills out application form.....	14
Interviewed.....	35
Gets physical examination.....	2

44. How do you size up a prospective employee?
Qualities, references, background, education, experience, age, marital status.

No. of respondents 35

Use of references.....	14
General appearance important.....	22
Ask about work history.....	17
Prefer farm background.....	6
Require some education.....	2
Education not important.....	3
Experience required.....	14
Experience not necessary.....	8
Prefer young men (30).....	8
Age not important.....	11
Prefer married men.....	19
Ask about drinking habits.....	6
Look for willingness to work.....	12
Look for ability to get along with others.....	3
No sizing up process -- takes all.....	1

45. Do you give him tests of any sort?
What tests? How given? Probation period?

No. of respondents 35

Give written test to milkers.....	1
Put man milking to see if he can.....	4
No tests given.....	30

46. What differences would there be in recruiting a supervisor as compared to another employee?
Background, education, experience.

No. of respondents 35

More experience required.....	19
More education required.....	11
Needs ability to think in situations.....	2
Needs ability to handle people.....	10
Need good details of his background.....	10
Needs good knowledge of his job.....	8
Try to move men up through ranks.....	7
No experience in this area.....	8

47. What kind of success do you think you are having in hiring new employees?

No. of respondents 35

Very good.....	2
Good.....	14
Fairly good.....	11
Good with high unemployment.....	3
Getting harder.....	1
Not satisfied.....	4

48. In the past year can you tell me how many new employees you hired? How many left?

No. of respondents 33

Zero percent turnover.....	4
4-9 percent turnover.....	6
10-19 percent turnover.....	4
20-30 percent turnover.....	12
31-50 percent turnover.....	5
120 percent turnover.....	1
900 percent turnover.....	1

49. What are the major problems you face in hiring new men?
Moving family.

No. of respondents 29

Getting men who are willing to work.....	17
Finding dependable men.....	5
Men don't like split shift.....	1
Men get bored in flat barn.....	1
Getting a true analysis of a man.....	3
Personal problems (housing, drinking, financial).....	3
The transient nature of milkers.....	3
Affording wages.....	2

50. Having decided to hire a new man, do you draw up any kind of contract with him?

No. of respondents 36

Only verbal agreements.....	30
Contract with union.....	6

51. What procedure do you go through in drawing up a contract?

Not applicable.

52. What are the general terms of agreement in the contract? Can you give me a sample contract?

Not applicable.

53. What is the usual length of the contract period?

Not applicable.

54. When you get a new employee, how is he informed of his duties?
Job descriptions, job specifications, job profile.

No. of respondents 35

Verbally by manager or supervisor.....	35
Through training period.....	4
Use job descriptions.....	2
Use employee booklet.....	1

55. How do you determine whether or not an employee fully understands his job duties, etc.

No. of respondents 36

By observing him working.....	36
-------------------------------	----

56. How is a new employee introduced to his fellow workers?
Individually, at meeting and by whom?

No. of respondents 34

Individually by manager or supervisor.....	26
Left on his own to do this.....	6
Introduced at an informal meeting.....	2

TRAINING

57. When you hire a new worker, does he need to be given any special training, if so how does he get it?

Yes 32

How:	a. 17	Supervisor sees to it personally
	b. 6	Starts at lower job, gradually moves up
	c. 8	Works with experienced man
	d. 1	Works with man who is leaving

No 4

Why:	a. 4	Experience required
------	------	---------------------

58. Is a new employee on probation for a particular period of time?
How long?

Yes 28

Time:

- a. 4 1 week or less
- b. 9 2 weeks - 1 month
- c. 2 1 month - 3 months
- d. 13 No set time
- e. 1 Always on probation

No 9

59. Do any of your supervisors receive retraining while they are on the job, e.g. through shortcourses or special seminars?

Yes 24

<u>Farms</u>	<u>People</u>	<u>Method</u>
3	8	Special milking school
15	18	Special breeding schools
3	9	Dairy comprehensive shortcourses
1	6	Management for supervisors
2	2	Vet keeps men up to date
8	6	Hold own short courses
2	4	Equipment schools
4	0	Movies on milking & herd health
1	1	Feeding

No 12

60. Would you like to see your employees receive more on-the-job or in-service training?

Yes 30

What form:

- a. 7 Milking
- b. 21 General dairy
- c. 2 To work with Spanish

No 5

Doesn't care 1

61. Who do you think should perform this function?

Universities.....	4
Extension Service.....	11
Manufacturers.....	10
Vo. Ag. Schools.....	1
U.S. Labor Department.....	1
Management on farm.....	4
Veterinarian.....	1
Not sure.....	9

62. Have any of your supervisors received training in personnel management? How?

Yes 5

No. of people 12

Source:

- a. 3 Extension shortcourses
- b. 2 During agriculture degree
- c. 1 Business courses

No 31

63. Have you, as a manager, ever received any formal training in personnel management? Where?

Yes 18

Source:

- a. 3 Business administration degree
- b. 7 Agriculture and other degrees
- c. 3 Army
- d. 2 Outside business experience
- e. 5 Extension shortcourses
- f. 2 Seminars

No 18

WAGES

64. How do you decide what starting wage to pay a worker?

No. of respondents 35

Union sets rates.....	6
Competition in area.....	10
In line with other dairies.....	8
Better than other dairies.....	1
\$20-25/ month less than regular.....	2
Minimum wage.....	8

65. Do you operate any kind of incentive program? Please explain.
Bonus on production or other?

No. of respondents 36

a. Incentive programs

Based on production.....	9
Based on bacterial count.....	2
Based on cows milked.....	2
Based on time worked.....	2
None.....	21

b. Bonus

Yearly.....	12
Periodic.....	1
None.....	23

66. Do any of your employees participate in a profit-sharing program?

No. of respondents 36

Yes.....	8
No.....	28

67. What fringe benefits do the workers receive?

Get a listing of these: vacations and system, insurance - Workman's compensation, life, health, housing-utilities, maintenance, personal leave.

No. of respondents 36

a. Vacations

Scale program.....	21
1 week paid per year.....	6
2 weeks paid per year.....	4
No policy - employees ask.....	5

b. Insurance

Social security.....	36
Workman's compensation.....	30
Liability insurance.....	7
Hospitalization and major medical insurance.....	8
Life and hospitalization and major medical insurance...	11
Above and dental and vision.....	7
Retirement programs.....	7

c. Housing

Housing and utilities and maintenance.....	21
Above for supervisors only.....	2
Housing and maintenance - not utilities.....	7
Bunk houses and cookhouse.....	2
No housing.....	4

d. Personal leave

Set program.....	1
Can make up.....	17
Deducted.....	18

e. Sick leave	
Set program.....	1
Program for supervisors only.....	2
Pay for sick days.....	7
Deducted.....	26
f. Milk	
Supply milk free.....	30
Don't supply milk.....	6
g. Meat	
Meat at half price.....	1
Some meat only.....	12
Meat for supervisors only.....	2
Don't supply meat.....	21
h. Loans	
Do loan money to employees.....	23
Don't loan money to employees.....	13
i. Transport	
Supervisors have pick-ups.....	22
Can use pick-up if in need.....	2
j. Work uniforms supplied	
Supply this service for employees.....	7
68. How do you determine what benefits to provide?	
No. of respondents <u>32</u>	
Looking at accepted practices on other dairies.....	7
Keeping up with industrial competition.....	6
Union bargains on behalf of the workers.....	6
Looking at workers' needs.....	13
69. How are the employees paid?	
By time, salary, how is pay check received, itemized deductions.	
No. of respondents <u>36</u>	
a. System	
All workers are salaried.....	22
Supervisors salaried - others hourly.....	7
Dairy workers salaried - outside men hourly.....	2
All workers are hourly.....	2
All workers paid by the day.....	3

b. Frequency of payment

Monthly.....	1
Bi-monthly.....	20
Weekly.....	15

c. Show itemized deductions..... 36

70. How is overtime handled?

Extra money - rate, or time off - holidays

No. of respondents 34

Paid regular hourly rate.....	19
Paid time and a half.....	4
Trades hours with other men.....	1
No overtime.....	10

71. How do you decide on wage increases?

Merit, tenure, union, other.

No. of respondents 36

Union negotiates increase.....	6
Annual cost of living increase.....	9
Merit.....	25
Tenure.....	8
Competition in labor market.....	5
Profits.....	1

72. Could you show me, either now, or after our interview an example of the amount and make up of a wage and fringe benefit package of:

- Herdsman
- Milker
- Outside man, eg. a feeder

No. of respondents 36

	<u>Herdsman</u>	<u>Milker</u>	<u>Outside Man</u>
Mid-West	\$ 705	\$427	\$414*
East	\$ 700	\$570	\$361*
Southeast	\$ 694	\$478	\$338
South	\$ 680	\$510	\$340
California	\$1,127	\$661	\$484
		\$924*	\$658

*Housing not provided.

MOTIVATION

73. What are your experiences in the area of motivating employees and are there any other ways that you find useful in motivating your workers, besides the wages and benefits we discussed?

No. of respondents 32

Showing interest in employees and their welfare.....	9
Helping them to take pride in their work and working conditions.....	12
Using meetings and pep talks.....	7
Instilling atmosphere of competition.....	4
Complimenting good performance.....	6
Using incentive wages.....	8

74. What sort of attitude do you feel the workers have towards the farm? Commitment, a place to work, what of their future.

No. of respondents 35

Do have some commitment.....	7
Good attitude in general.....	22
Some are committed but for most it is just a job.....	5
Most could not care less.....	1

75. Can you tell me the average length of employment of your workers?

No. of respondents 30

One year or less.....	3
2 years.....	4
3-4 years.....	10
5-7 years.....	11
8-15 years.....	2

76. Do you feel that the worker's family has an influence on his performance? Discuss this. What company does for families.

No. of respondents 35

Family has influence on performance.....	34
Provides good housing.....	6
Picnics, parties, barbeque.....	11
Other activities.....	3

77. Do you feel that it is important that the employees be kept informed as to the long run objectives of the business and its recent success and failures?

No. of respondents 36

Employees should be kept informed.....	29
No need to inform employees.....	3
Only some key men should be informed.....	4

78. If an employee wants to be transferred from one job to another, what procedure does he go through?

No. of respondents 35

Transfers facilitated where there is an opening and man is qualified.....	22
Transfers are discouraged.....	8
Transfers are not allowed.....	2
No experience in this area.....	3

79. How does a worker get promoted?

No. of respondents 34

If vacancy occurs and man has ability.....	23
Very little room for promotions.....	6
Not applicable.....	5

80. Do all workers have the opportunity to get promoted?

No. of respondents 36

Yes.....	23
No.....	13

DISCIPLINE

81. What do you do with an employee who persistently arrives late for work or breaks other rules? Discuss discipline in general. What influences disciplinary action? Who has the authority? What policies? Union rules?

No. of respondents 36

Give 1-2 warnings then dismiss.....	14
Give 3-4 warnings then dismiss.....	8
Talk over problem with man to try and solve it -- if continues then dismiss.....	12
Deducts pay for lateness.....	2

82. Is absenteeism a problem? How do you handle this? Do you have any figures on this?

No. of respondents 36

Absenteeism not a problem.....	31
Absenteeism is a problem.....	5

83. How do you handle internal disputes among workers?

No. of respondents 34

Get both men together and discuss -- act as arbitrator.....	13
Speak to men individually first -- then together if necessary.....	11
Let men settle it themselves.....	5
No experience in this.....	5

84. If a man decides to leave on his own accord, do you find out his reasons why? How?

No. of respondents 35

Find out why a man is leaving.....	33
Do not find out why leaving.....	1
No experience.....	1

85. Who has the authority to fire a worker, and how is this handled? Notice given? Verbal or written? Union procedure? Service pay?

No. of respondents 36

Owner or manager only.....	21
Supervisor has authority.....	15

COMMUNICATIONS

86. What ways do you find best for coordinating the efforts of all workers? Personal contact? Meetings?

No. of respondents 36

Personal contact daily.....	36
Bulletin board.....	9
Weekly meeting of supervisors.....	6
Monthly meeting of supervisors.....	3
Occasional meetings.....	6

87. Do you find that you can delegate responsibility to the supervisors or workers? What problems are involved?

No. of respondents 34

Can delegate responsibility to all men.....	14
Can delegate responsibility to supervisors.....	15
Can delegate responsibility to some men only.....	5

88. Does each employee know exactly who his boss is and who to take orders from?
- No. of respondents 35
- | | |
|-------------------------|----|
| Yes..... | 33 |
| Employees not sure..... | 2 |
89. Do you always use the chain of command in giving orders?
- No. of respondents 35
- | | |
|--------------------------------------|----|
| Always use chain of command..... | 26 |
| No real chain of command exists..... | 9 |
90. How do the workers receive their daily work assignments?
- No. of respondents 35
- | | |
|---|----|
| Dairy work is routine..... | 35 |
| Others get instructions from supervisor or manager..... | 32 |
91. Have you had any good ideas for changes come from your workers?
How did this work? Suggestion systems?
- No. of respondents 33
- | | |
|--|----|
| Have had good ideas come from employees..... | 31 |
| Have not had any ideas from employees..... | 2 |
- (None had suggestion systems.)
92. Do you feel that the workers can be helpful in planning changes?
- No. of respondents 33
- | | |
|---------------------------------|----|
| Employees can be helpful..... | 22 |
| Some employees are helpful..... | 5 |
| Helpful to a point..... | 1 |
| Not really helpful..... | 5 |
93. How do you feel you are doing in getting your ideas across to the workers? Barriers to communication or problems?
- No. of respondents 32
- | | |
|-------------------|----|
| Excellent..... | 1 |
| Good..... | 12 |
| All right..... | 17 |
| Not too good..... | 2 |

94. How do you decide on how well an employee is doing? Evaluation process? Formal or informal, continual or periodic?

No. of respondents 33

By continually observing quality of work.....	31
Dependability.....	7
Attitude towards work.....	6
Use production records.....	12

95. Do you tell him how you think he is doing and discuss the matter?

No. of respondents 33

Discuss positive and negative aspects of man's work.....	23
Only tells man when improvements are necessary.....	5
Compliments man on job well done.....	1
Cannot praise a man too much.....	2
Very little discussion on this.....	2

96. If an employee is having problems with his work or seems dissatisfied in some way, to whom does he bring these problems for discussion? How about personal problems?

No. of respondents 32

Discusses work problems with owner or manager.....	12
Discusses work problems with supervisor first.....	13
Discusses work problems with fellow workers first.....	7
Tries to help with personal problems.....	10
Tries to avoid personal problems.....	22

HEALTH AND SAFETY

97. What jobs on your farm are the most frequent causes of accidents? Why do you think this is so?

No. of respondents 35

Have had no accidents in past year.....	2
No jobs in particular.....	4
Slipping.....	11
Cows kicking.....	23
Handling and treating cows.....	8
Handling feed.....	2
Farm machinery.....	7

98. In the past year can you tell me how many accidents have been reported? Type? Severity?

No. of respondents 34

a. Type

Crushed.....	1
Fracture.....	14
Bad sprain.....	17
Bad bruising.....	7
Bad cuts.....	9
Burn.....	1
Minor cuts, sprains, bruises.....	237

b. Severity

Fatal.....	1
Permanent.....	0
Severe.....	48
Slight.....	237

99. Have you been able to do anything or are you planning to make any changes in an effort to cut down on these accidents?
Examine equipment? Safety talks? Posters?

No. of respondents 30

Not doing anything.....	8
Visits from insurance company and safety inspector.....	7
Stress safety all the time.....	15
Use posters from insurance company.....	6
Show films on safety.....	1
Give safety talks.....	2
Eliminate kicking cows.....	3
Installed non-slip floors.....	2

100. What steps do you take to ensure the continual good health of your employees?
Good facilities? Washrooms? Clothing? Eating Facilities?
First aid kits? Physical examinations? Insurance benefits already covered.

No. of respondents 36

Restrooms.....	36
Locker rooms.....	11
Lunch room.....	8
Workers' lounge.....	5
Supply clothing.....	7
First aid kits.....	27
Fire extinguishers.....	15
Physical exams.....	2
Health insurance.....	26
Vending machines.....	10

101. Do you hire older men and is there a place for them in your organization?

No. of respondents 34

Do not hire.....	3
Not over 40-50 years.....	2
Yes -- provided he can do the job.....	12
For certain jobs only.....	10
Prefer older men as milkers.....	4

LABOR RELATIONS

102. Is any of your labor unionized? If not, is there any unionizing activity? What is happening?

No. of respondents 36

Dairy labor is unionized.....	6
Some union activity.....	2
No unionization.....	28

103. How did this union drive start? When and why?

No. of respondents 6

1935 in Los Angeles County.....	6
---------------------------------	---

104. What type of shop does the union run? Maintenance of membership, agency shop, union shop, closed shop?

Union shop

105. What is the bargaining unit established?

All dairy workers on the farm.
Details in contract.

106. Who negotiates on your behalf with the union?

No. of respondents 6

Committee of dairymen.....	5
Negotiates contract himself.....	1

107. What in the bargaining process is establishing the labor agreement?

Unions present proposal to dairymen

108. What have become the major issues in bargaining sessions?
Wages? Incentives? Benefits? Working conditions?

No. of respondents 6

Wages.....	5
Insurance.....	3
Retirement.....	4

109. Do non-union farm workers receive the same as union members?

No. of respondents 6

Non-union workers receive same as union.....	4
Non-union receive less than union.....	1
No non-union workers.....	1

110. How are union dues collected?
Payroll deduction? Other?

No. of respondents 6

Payroll deduction.....	5
Directly from men.....	1

111. Do you find it difficult to work under union conditions?

No. of respondents 6

No problem working with union.....	4
Some problems working with union.....	1
Does not like union.....	1

112. Does the union provide you with any services? What?

No. of respondents 6

Supply qualified milkers.....	2
Supply relief milkers.....	1
Supply no services.....	3

113. Do you feel that the union has helped or hindered your development? Why?

No. of respondents 6

Has hindered development.....	1
Has helped development.....	4
Does not know.....	1

WHERE THERE IS NO UNION

114. Have you considered the fact that one day your labor may be unionized?
- No. of respondents 29
- Have considered the fact..... 29
115. What are your reactions to this?
- No. of respondents 29
- Would accept union all right..... 13
 Men do not want the union..... 2
 Can prevent unions by increasing wages and benefits..... 3
 Very much against the unions..... 11
116. Do you think this will hurt your business? Why or why not?
- No. of respondents 29
- Will help in labor management..... 3
 Will not really hurt..... 6
 Will hurt through increasing costs..... 9
 Will hurt through changing employer-employee relations..... 10
 Will hurt if strikes are allowed..... 1
 Takes freedom away from manager..... 2
 Does not know..... 8
117. How do you think you could prevent your labor from becoming unionized?
- No. of respondents 29
- Through increasing wages and benefits..... 4
 Through better employer-employee relations..... 4
 Could only stall unionization..... 4
 Employees don't want the union..... 3
 Could not stop unionization..... 5
 Do not know..... 3
118. What is your general outlook on the labor situation on dairy farms over the next few years?
- No. of respondents 34
- Good availability..... 14
 Good while unemployment is high..... 7
 About the same..... 7
 Poor..... 6

119. What do you feel is your biggest problem with labor?

No. of respondents 33

Finding right caliber.....	8
Motivation.....	7
Being able to pay wages.....	3
Communications.....	2
Personal problems off the job.....	4
Personality conflicts.....	2
Turnover.....	1
Shortage.....	2
No problems.....	4

120. Have you made any changes recently which you feel have helped alleviate some of these problems?

No. of respondents 22

Better communications.....	4
Training sessions.....	1
Regrouping men.....	1
Change to split shift.....	1
More time off.....	1
Pay more.....	1
Bonus plan.....	1
Improved housing.....	1
Better selection.....	1
Job rotation.....	1
Updating equipment.....	3
Giving more responsibility.....	1
Using women milkers.....	1
No changes.....	5

121. As far as improving labor management on dairy farms, are there any particular areas you feel need additional research?

No. of respondents 29

Labor needs additional training.....	10
Improving image of dairying.....	3
Labor efficiency.....	5
Split vs. straight shift.....	1
Housing and wages.....	1
All areas.....	1
Can't think.....	3
No.....	1

122. Which of the following sources of information do you find most effective in helping you to handle labor? Please rank them.

	<u>% Time Ranked No. 1</u>	<u>Index</u>	<u>Index Base 100</u>
Radio and T.V.	0	45	20.8
Meetings	14	135	62.5
Individual consultation	49	182	84.3
University bulletins	3	107	49.5
Farm magazines	14	139	64.4
Industry	20	131	60.6

DAIRY EMPLOYEES

123. Position:

Age:

Education:

Length of employment:

	<u>Herdsman</u>	<u>Milkers</u>	<u>Outside Men</u>
No. of respondents	<u>23</u>	<u>28</u>	<u>26</u>
Average age	36.8	38.0	36.5
Average years education	11.2	8.8	8.7
Average length of employment	5.3	5.2	4.2

124. How did you find out about the possibility of employment on this farm?

	<u>Herdsman</u>	<u>Milkers</u>	<u>Outside Men</u>
No. of respondents	<u>23</u>	<u>28</u>	<u>26</u>
Came looking	5	9	9
Personal contact	10	14	14
Recruited	6	2	0
Labor office	1	0	1
Union	0	1	0
Advertisement	1	2	2

1. The first of the three is the "General" section, which contains the following information:

NAME	AGE	SEX	RELATIONSHIP
John Doe	35	M	Husband
Jane Doe	32	F	Wife
Robert Doe	10	M	Son
Emily Doe	8	F	Daughter
Michael Doe	5	M	Son
Sarah Doe	3	F	Daughter

125. What was the attraction in coming to work on this particular farm?

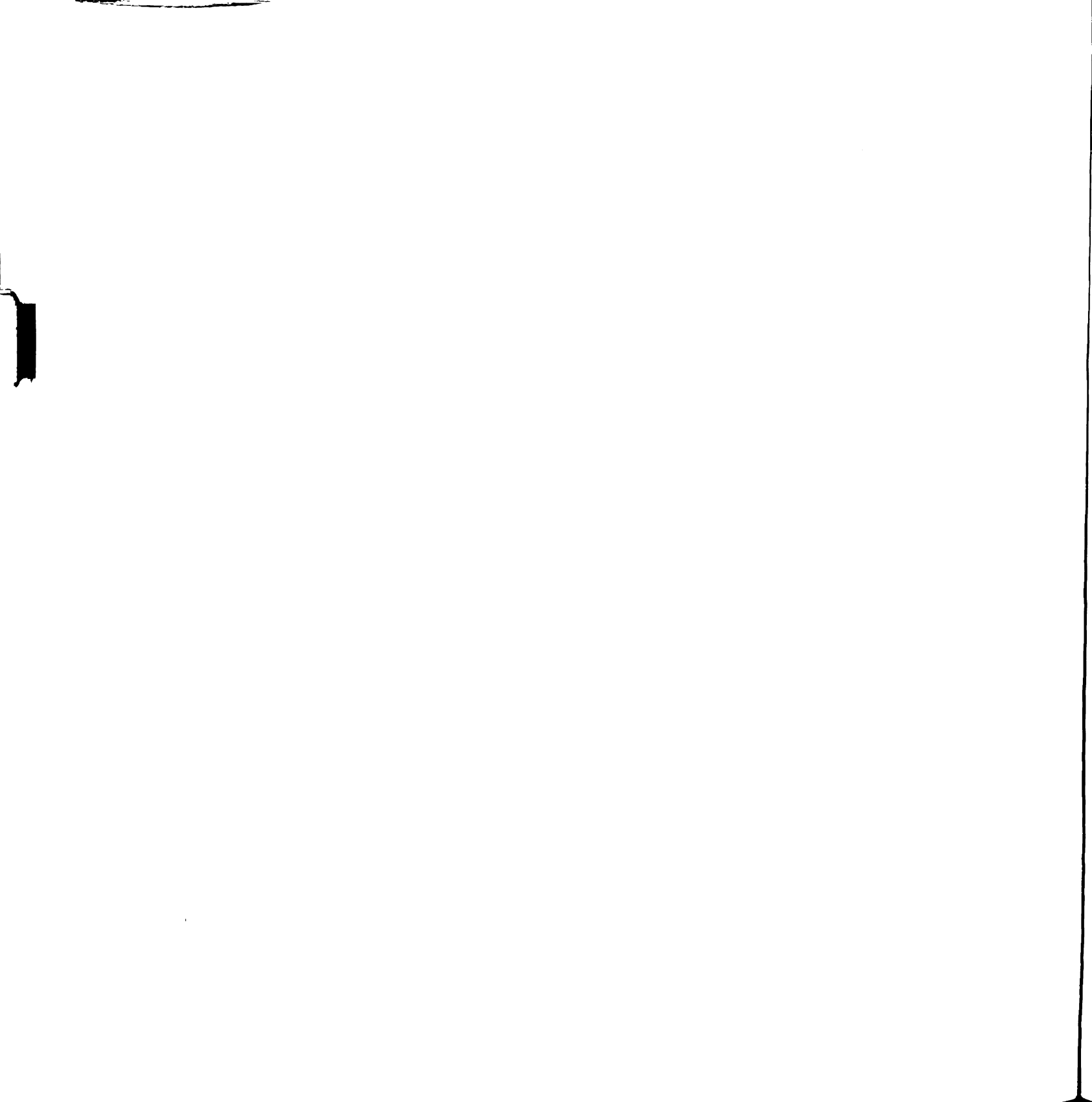
	<u>Herdsman</u>	<u>Milkers</u>	<u>Outside Men</u>
No. of respondents	<u>23</u>	<u>28</u>	<u>26</u>
Needed a job	6	2	7
More money	4	8	5
Better working conditions	4	16	4
The size of operation	7	0	1
The herd	4	0	0
The herdsman	0	0	1
Housing supplied	2	1	1
Union security	0	2	0
Location	0	0	5
Outdoor work	0	0	2
To gain experience	2	0	0
Nothing in particular	0	0	2

126. What type of work did you do before you came here?

	<u>Herdsman</u>	<u>Milkers</u>	<u>Outside Men</u>
No. of respondents	<u>23</u>	<u>28</u>	<u>26</u>
Herdsman	12	1	0
Milker	1	15	0
General dairy work	0	0	5
Farm work	2	5	8
Industrial work	0	1	5
Truck driving	2	0	2
Teaching	2	1	0
Construction work	1	2	0
Mechanical work	2	1	1
Other	1	3	6

127. What advantages do you see in this type of work, relative to other jobs that are available?

	<u>Herdsman</u>	<u>Milkers</u>	<u>Outside Men</u>
No. of respondents	<u>23</u>	<u>28</u>	<u>26</u>
Steady employment	5	14	6
Way of life	11	0	0
Likes cattle	6	3	0
Country living	0	5	2
Outside work	0	0	10
Better off	3	4	5
Housing	4	6	3
Good hours	0	1	1
Freedom	5	0	3
Easy job	0	0	2
None in particular	0	3	3



128. Do you have a farm background? What type?

	<u>Herdsmen</u>	<u>Milkers</u>	<u>Outside Men</u>
No. of respondents	<u>23</u>	<u>28</u>	<u>26</u>
Yes	23	25	20
Dairy	11	8	0
Crops	2	0	0
No	0	3	6

129. What is your feeling concerning your working conditions here?

	<u>Herdsmen</u>	<u>Milkers</u>	<u>Outside Men</u>
No. of respondents	<u>23</u>	<u>28</u>	<u>26</u>
Excellent	5	0	0
Very good	5	5	5
Good	9	17	13
Satisfactory	2	5	6
Improving	2	1	1
Very poor	0	0	1

130. How would you rate the relationship between the workers and management?

	<u>Herdsmen</u>	<u>Milkers</u>	<u>Outside Men</u>
No. of respondents	<u>23</u>	<u>28</u>	<u>26</u>
Very good	10	9	5
Good	9	15	17
Satisfactory	2	4	3
Improving	1	0	0
Varies greatly	1	0	0
Poor	0	0	1

131. How would you rate the relationship between you and your fellow workers?

	<u>Herdsmen</u>	<u>Milkers</u>	<u>Outside Men</u>
No. of respondents	<u>23</u>	<u>28</u>	<u>26</u>
Very good	8	7	4
Good	15	18	21
Satisfactory	0	3	1

132. From whom do you receive instructions about your job?

	<u>Herdsman</u>	<u>Milkers</u>	<u>Outside Men</u>
No. of respondents	<u>23</u>	<u>28</u>	<u>26</u>
Owner	10	10	11
Manager	13	3	3
Herdsman	0	15	12

133. Do you feel well enough informed about your duties?

	<u>Herdsman</u>	<u>Milkers</u>	<u>Outside Men</u>
No. of respondents	<u>23</u>	<u>28</u>	<u>26</u>
Yes	22	27	26
Generally	0	1	0
Not always	1	0	0

134. If not, how do you think this could be improved?

135. Do you have an opportunity to communicate your ideas or problems to management?

	<u>Herdsman</u>	<u>Milkers</u>	<u>Outside Men</u>
No. of respondents	<u>23</u>	<u>28</u>	<u>26</u>
Yes	22	26	25
Not really	0	1	1
Some problems	1	1	0

136. What is your feeling concerning the present work structure of shifts?

	<u>Herdsman</u>	<u>Milkers</u>	<u>Outside Men</u>
No. of respondents	<u>23</u>	<u>28</u>	<u>26</u>
Likes straight shift	8	13	21
Would prefer straight shift	4	1	0
Never worked straight shift	1	0	0
Does not like split shift	2	8	3
Split shift is all right	1	3	0
Likes split shift	7	3	2

137. What is your feeling concerning the present wage, incentive and benefit program?

	<u>Herdsman</u>	<u>Milkers</u>	<u>Outside Men</u>
No. of respondents	<u>23</u>	<u>28</u>	<u>26</u>
Excellent	1	0	0
Very good	0	1	1
Good	11	16	12
Satisfied	7	9	10
Underpaid	4	2	3
Need more benefits	0	2	3

138. What do you like most about this place?

	<u>Herdsman</u>	<u>Milkers</u>	<u>Outside Men</u>
No. of respondents	<u>23</u>	<u>28</u>	<u>26</u>
The people	4	0	4
Good boss	3	2	2
Working with cattle	7	5	5
Good working conditions	14	8	4
Steady job	0	3	0
Good housing	1	1	1
No one bothers him	0	4	10
Good all around	2	4	6
Nothing in particular	1	5	1

139. What are your long term views about working here?

	<u>Herdsman</u>	<u>Milkers</u>	<u>Outside Men</u>
No. of respondents	<u>23</u>	<u>28</u>	<u>26</u>
Plans to stay on	15	21	14
Like to be promoted	0	1	0
Will stay a while	1	4	1
Will leave for better job	0	0	4
Won't stay too long	0	2	0
Looking for new job	1	0	0
Plans to set up own dairy	4	0	2
Not certain	2	0	5

MICHIGAN STATE UNIV. LIBRARIES



31293011065491