

**ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE : VARIANCE
ACROSS FUNCTIONAL UNITS**

by

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SUMMARY

The main objective of this research was to determine whether functional units (departments) in an industrial organization differed significantly with respect to their experience of the organizational climate.

Two approaches to organizational theory were drawn from, namely, the systems and contingency approaches. Both emphasize the importance of the task environment and the need for the organization to adapt to its task environment. Systems theorists, Katz and Kahn (1978), have identified a number of organizational components or subsystems which enable the organization to function efficiently. Each component has a fairly specialized function; each develops a distinctive nucleus of operating procedures and values. Contingency theorists, Lawrence and Lorsch (1967, 1969), stated that different parts of the organization face different environments. Organizations therefore tend to become internally segmented into functional units.

Organizational climate was highlighted as the general notion specifying the organizational identity or self-awareness of the organization; however, it may vary within the organization from work group to work group.

The total number of 54 white employees in four units: marketing, personnel/public affairs, finance and production, at all levels - general employees, supervisory/foremen, middle management, senior management - completed a measure of their perceptions of the organizational climate of their individual units.

The Organizational Climate Index for Profit Organizations developed by De Cock, Bouwen, de Witte and de Visch (1984), was used. The scale requires a forced choice on a scale with a scoring pattern of 4,3,2,1. Total scores on each of the 6 climate scales, grouped into 20 subscales, were obtained for each functional unit.

One-way analysis of variance (the Kruskal-Wallis Test) was used for assessing the significance of differences between the four units on the different climate subscales. The results of the study supported the hypothesis that had been formulated. It was concluded that significant differences exist between the functional units marketing, personnel/public affairs, finance and production of the industrial organization concerned, with respect to the climate dimensions.

It was concluded that, in order to achieve maximum integration between functional units and their members in an organization, business will need to concern itself with the differences in expression of human behaviour and motivation in units.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Two related orientations in organization theory are to be found, namely the systems orientation and contingency orientation, both of which emphasize the importance of the task environment and the need for the organization to adapt to its task environment (Khandwalla, 1977).

The systems analysis of organizations concentrates on, e.g., the properties of the organization as a living, open system, on the principal subsystems of the organizational system, and on the social, technical, and economic forces shaping organizational systems or subsystems.

The contingency theorists, on the other hand, have concentrated on relating differences in organizational structure to differentiation in the task environments of organizations. Their emphasis is not so much on the dynamics of the process by which an organization adapts, as on the end result itself.

Lawrence and Lorsch (1967) argued that different parts of the organization face different task environments. Organizations therefore tend to become internally segmented into functional units, each of which has the specialized task of dealing with a particular sector of the total environment.

Lorsch and Morse (1974) added the importance of also considering the human element. They emphasized that any pressure which top management is tempted to apply towards homogeneity in organizational design across various functional units, should be tested against whether it inhibits any of the units from developing a fit among its internal environment, the external environment, and its members. Members in different units could also be expected to have different predispositions, such as cognitive styles, tolerance for ambiguity, and attitudes toward authority and toward others.

The general notion specifying the organizational identity or self-awareness of the organization, e.g. how members see their organization, can be defined as the organizational climate (De Cock, Bouwen, de Witte and de Visch, 1984). Gelfand (cited in Nasser 1975) described organizational climate as an experiential phenomenon which allows management to understand the expression of human behaviour and motivation, the human desire to be, to find meaning within the organizational structure.

The purpose of this study was to gather concrete knowledge as to whether organizational units differ on the climate dimensions of leadership, selfcontrol, work, interpersonal relations, routine and orientation to the society. Stated formally, the research problem was to examine whether functional units (departments) in an industrial organization differed significantly on the climate dimensions.

The Concept of Organization

Towards a Definition of an Organization

Orpen (1981) stated that, although a number of somewhat different definitions have been advanced, there is agreement that a formal organization, at the very least, is the coordination of the activities of a number of people for the achievement of some common explicit purpose or goal. This takes place through division of labour and function, as well as through some kind of hierarchy of authority and responsibility. Organizations are characterized by their goal-directed behaviour. They pursue goals and objectives which can be achieved more efficiently and effectively by the concerted action of individuals and groups (Gibson, Ivancevich & Donnelly, 1985).

Schein (1980) commented that it is surprisingly difficult to give a simple definition of an organization. Although people spend their lives in various organizations - schools, clubs, community groups, companies and business concerns, political parties, churches, etc. - it is difficult to state just what constitutes an organization. He

made the following points :

- The idea of organizing stems from the fact that the individual alone is unable to fulfil all of his or her needs and wishes, and the coordination of effort in the service of mutual help therefore required.
- The second idea is of achieving some common goals or purpose through coordination of activities.
- Progressive differentiations arise out of the fundamental notion of division of labour, based on the belief that organizational goals can best be achieved when different people do different things in a coordinated fashion.
- Some integration is needed to ensure that all elements are working toward the commonly agreed-upon goals. One form of integration is, for example, whereby coordination among the parts is ensured through guiding, limiting, controlling, etc.

Robey (1982) added another important view, that multiple perspectives are needed in understanding the concept organization: micro and macro views. The micro perspective examines a smaller unit of analysis - usually the individual or a small group. Organizational problems are diagnosed as people problems and lead to changes which affect the individual or group. The macro perspective focuses on the organization or its major subunits as the primary unit of analysis. The basic building block becomes the role; not the individual holding the role. Robey defined an organization, therefore, as a system of roles designed to accomplish shared purposes.

Systems Approach

Miles (1980) emphasized that due to the growing complexity and turbulence of contemporary environments, organizations can no longer be treated as closed systems, but rather as systems which depend on

their environment for both legitimacy and for needed resources.

"Organizations confronting dynamic, complex and unreceptive or hostile environments must exert great energy in managing external relations. They may attempt to modify their goals, structures, or processes to better conform to environmental demands, or they may attempt to change the environment itself" (Miles, 1980, p.6).

Nadler, Hackman and Lawler (1979) considered the systems perspective as important for a number of reasons. Firstly, open systems organizations exchange input and output with a larger environment. Organizations could, therefore, be understood by identifying their role within the larger environment in which they function. Secondly, a starting point for understanding organizations, is the work which organizations perform: they are goal orientated, bring people together, form groups and link together sets of groups to do tasks more effectively than could be done by individuals alone. Thirdly, relationships exist among the different elements or parts.

Systems theory views each organization as a complete whole, influenced by its formal and informal structure, external conditions, technological factors and the individual personalities of its employees (e.g. Cuming, 1985). In addition to this rather structural emphasis, a more dynamic view could be considered. Stallard and Terry (1984), for instance, stated that a system includes a group of related activities or components which interact to achieve a particular objective; it exists within an environment that supplies resources as inputs to the system and that accepts processed resources as outputs from the system.

A system in operation, e.g. an organization, can be viewed as a linkage of input flows (energy, materials or information) from sources in the external environment, a transforming mechanism (a machine or a technical-human organization), and flows of outputs or outcomes, provided to users. The system may further also include one or more feedback mechanisms for self-regulation (French and Bell, 1984).

Lawler, Nadler and Camman (1980) stated that the transformation process in systems theory occurs through the interaction of a number of basic components of organization:

- task component, concerning the nature of the work, task, or jobs which must be performed by the organization, groups and individuals;
- individuals component, referring to the individuals who are members of the organization; the major dimensions of this component relate to the systematic differences in individuals that have relevance for organizational behaviour;
- informal organization, referring to the informal social structure which tends to emerge over time;
- organizational arrangements, referring to all formal mechanisms used by the organization to direct, structure or control behaviour; the major aspects of organizational arrangements include organizational design: work units are created and grouped together, as well as linked in specific ways by coordination and control mechanisms.

If the focus of interest is a manufacturing concern, the company in question can be considered as the system; its organizational activities of production, marketing, recruitment and holding employees are the subsystems, and the industry and larger community constitute the supersystem (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Systems, divided into three distinct parts, can therefore be illustrated as follows:

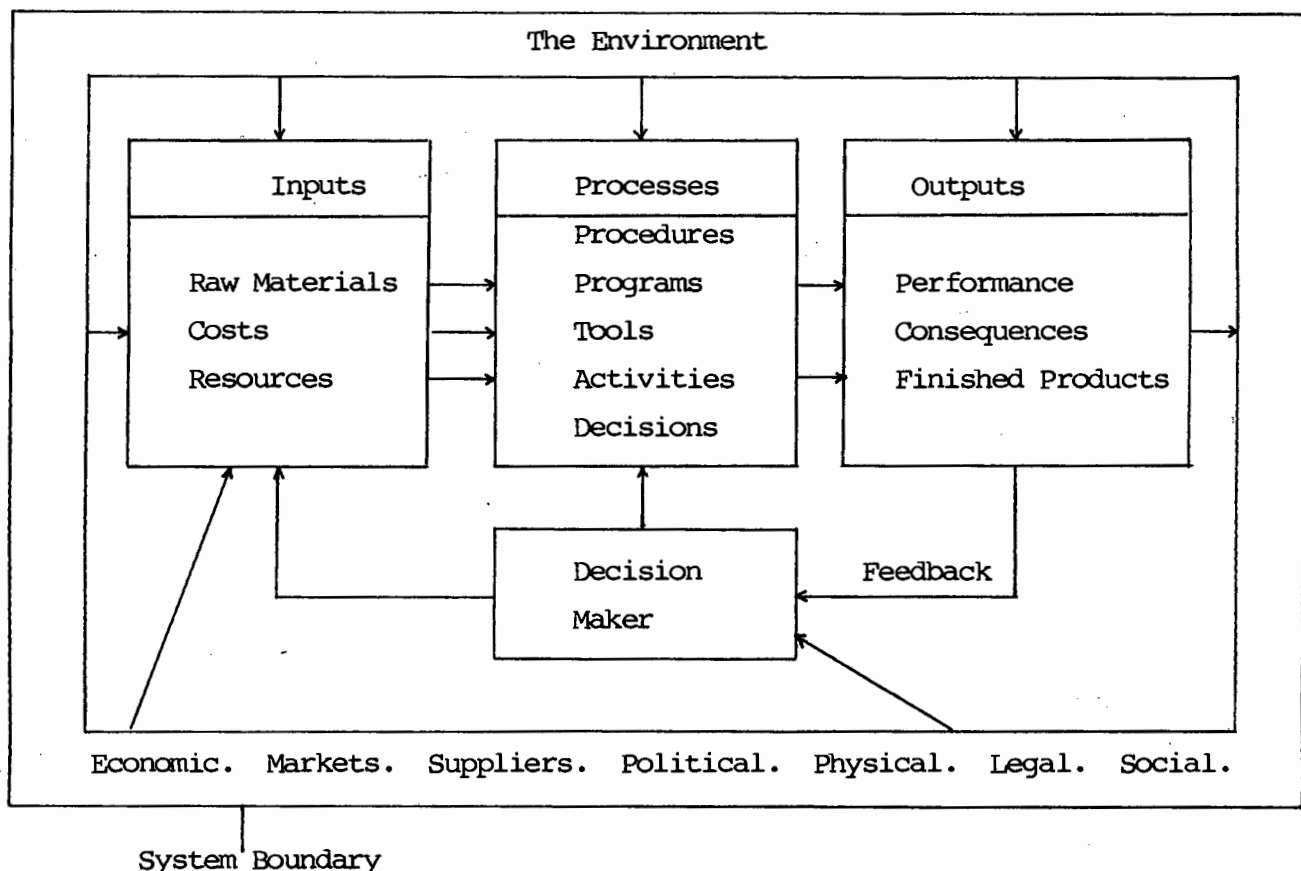


Figure 1: The System and its Environment

(Source: Turban & Meredith, 1981, p.18).

The Concept of Functional Units

Organizational Structure

The overall design of the organization is one of the most essential factors contributing to successful implementation of competitive strategies (Gibson & Donnelly, 1985). According to Khandwalla (1977), organizational structure is the network of durable and formally sanctioned organizational arrangements and relationships, while Gibson et al. (1985) defined the structure of an organization as the formal pattern of activities and interrelationships among the various subunits of the organization.

All organizational objectives are eventually parceled out to groups or individuals to accomplish. The logical grouping of these tasks and the distribution of authority to accomplish them are the bases of organizational structure (Higgins, 1982). Most organizations are, accordingly, structured to jobs (horizontal structure) and authority to do these jobs (vertical structure). Jobs are then typically grouped together in departments formed according to process (production, marketing, finance, personnel, etc.).

Khandwalla (1977) continued that what writers on bureaucracy such as Weber called "hierarchy of authority", "specialization of functions", and what students of classical management theory such as Urwick called the "organization chart" and "forms of departmentalization", are all elements of organization structure. Organizational structure performs three major functions. First of all, it affords the organization the mechanisms with which to reduce external and internal uncertainty through forecasting, research, etc. Secondly, it enables the organization to undertake a wide variety of activities through devices such as departmentalization, division of labour, etc. Thirdly, it enables the organization to keep its activities coordinated, to pursue goals and to have a focus in the midst of adversity. Hierarchy is, for example, one aspect of the structure which facilitates the integration of organizational activities.

Miles (1980) emphasized that "differentiation" and "integration" are cornerstone concepts in understanding organizational structure. He described differentiation as the extent to which an organization divides its decision-making authority into authority-specific levels, and its overall task to be performed into task-specialized units. According to Miles, differentiation can be measured in two directions: vertical and horizontal. Vertical differentiation is a measure of the number of management levels and the differences between adjacent levels. A horizontally differentiated organization is one in which large differences exist among various units at the same organizational level in such factors as the orientations of their members, the nature of the tasks they perform, and the structuring of their activities. Miles referred to coordination and control as structural integration.

Integration also has vertical and horizontal aspects, with in general, horizontal differentiation presenting a more expensive and challenging integration problem than does vertical differentiation.

Orpen (1981) stated that structural variables refer to the positions or parts of the formal organization and their systematic and enduring relationships to each other. Orpen outlined three main structural dimensions: firstly, totality-size: the total number of employees in an entire work organization; secondly, vertically and horizontality-shape: the number of levels in an organization hierarchy in relation to the size of the organization; and thirdly, centrality-dispersion of units: the presence or absence of separate operating units in a given organization, whether they are geographically dispersed or not.

Organizational Components

Various authors have sought to identify the major parts of the organizational system. Parsons (1960) identified the institutional, managerial, and technical subsystems of an organization. Katz and Kahn (1978) provided a more detailed analysis of the organizational components or subsystems which enable the organization to function efficiently:

- a production or technical subsystem concerned with the throughput, the energetic or informational transformation, whose cycles of activity comprise the major functions of the system;
- a supportive subsystem carrying on the environmental transactions of procuring the input or disposing of the output or aiding in these processes;
- a maintenance subsystem directed at the equipment for getting the work done;
- an adaptive subsystem seeking to adapt the organization to new processes and products;

- a managerial subsystem which comprises the organized activities for controlling, coordinating, and directing the many subsystems of the structure.

Functional departmentalization, the most widely used form of departmentalization, occurs when an enterprise organizes itself around the organization's major activities (Hodgetts, 1982).

Referring specifically to industrial organizations, Lawrence et al. (1967) stated that in most of them one finds a marketing unit dealing with the market sector of the environment, a manufacturing unit handling information about process technology and economics, and a research unit dealing with the scientific sector of the external environment.

Schein (1980) also described an organization as a complex set of interdependent groups. He illustrated how a single business organization, for example, can be divided into several different organizational units on the basis of functions to be fulfilled:

- the functions of inventing and designing products (research and development, engineering);
- locating potential customers and selling the product to them (marketing and sales);
- manufacturing the product (production);
- generating the money necessary to build the production facility and to pay employees, and also determining the selling price of a product based on the cost of production (finance and accounting);
- hiring and training the people who will perform each of the functions (personnel);
- providing for delivery of the finished product to the customer (distribution);

- servicing it after it is sold (field service, etc.)

Depending upon the size of the organization, there could, of course, be a number of smaller work groups within each of the functional units, which perform the tasks of that unit. The organizational unit or work group, then, represents the basic and smallest source of collective behaviour within organizations and is defined as consisting of a supervisor and all personnel reporting directly to that supervisor. According to Lawler et al. (1980), the structural referent of an organizational unit is its work programme, whilst its dimensions are defined in terms of specialization, personnel composition, standardization, distribution of authority, and unit incentives. These authors quoted March and Simon, "Knowledge of the program of an organization permits one to predict in considerable detail the behavior of members of the organization. This is such a commonsense fact that its importance has been overlooked" (p.233).

A research project involving the functional unit has been undertaken by Montanari and Morgan (1983), who studied the predictors for the centralization structure dimension in three process-orientated industries: petrochemical, food and beverage, and utility companies. They found that the explanatory power of the predictive model for centralization was enhanced substantially by inclusion of the functional unit as a moderator.

Interface between Functional Units and their Task Environment

The concept of environment is fundamental to a systems view of organizations. All complex organizations are embedded in a network of relationships involving other systems. Organizations also face multiple task environments. Due to people in different departments interacting with different parts of the task environment, departments can be expected to be structured differently. Some departments may have a continuous and intense interaction with the environment, whilst others such as production, are typically shielded from environmental uncertainty by so-called boundary-spanning departments (Robey, 1982).

Contingency theorists, for instance, Thompson (1967), Lawrence and Lorsch (1967,1969) and Perrow (1970), attached a great deal of weight to the interface between the organization and its task environment. Their most notable contributions were in identifying the variables which have a major impact on the overall design of the organization, such as size, technology, and the nature of the environment, and then predicting the differences in the structure and functioning of organizations which arise because of differences in these variables (Khandwalla, 1977).

Lawrence and Lorsch (1967) proposed that the organization, in order to be effective, needs to be both differentiated and integrated, and that the degree of differentiation and integration depends on the degree of diversity in the task environments of the organization's different departments. They stated that each functional part of an organization deals with a different part of the total environment (differentiation). Each functional part also has to bring together the widely differing cognitive styles and problem-solving approaches unto a coherent goal orientated set of activities (integration). These researchers measured differentiation as the extent to which units differed in goals, relevant subenvironment, formality of structure, and member orientation toward time and relationships with others. In their study of ten manufacturing organizations in three industries, they found the level of differentiation between the major subunits sales, production and applied research to be quite high:

- Formality of structure was greatest for production, followed in descending rank order, by sales, applied research and fundamental research.
- With regard to interpersonal orientation of unit members, production personnel were more orientated toward task demands, while sales personnel were more concerned with interpersonal relationships. The research subunit fell in the middle of the task versus interpersonal orientation continuum.

- In terms of orientation toward time, sales and production, personnel were preoccupied with short-time orientation, with fundamental-research personnel showing long-time perspectives.
- These units also differed in the portions of the total organization's environment to which they had to attend and be responsive. Production had to keep abreast of the techno-economic subenvironment, sales of the marketing subenvironment, with research of the scientific subenvironment.

Lawrence et al. (1969) stated that if the parts of the environment are fairly homogeneous in their degree of certainty, the units will need to be fairly similar in formal organizational practices and members' orientations. However, if these parts of the environment have quite different degrees of certainty, the units will need to be more differentiated. Perrow (1970) supplemented the view of Lawrence et al. (1967), that parts of the organization differ from one another due to differences in their task environments. Thompson (1967) too argued that the task environment is a powerful shaper of the organization.

A number of studies followed from those of Lawrence and Lorsch (1967, 1969). Lorsch and Morse (1974) tested the contingency prediction that in effective organizations there will be a fit between the internal structure and the nature of the external environment. They found substantial evidence that some structure-environment matches are more effective than others. Van der Linden and Rabie (1976) investigated the validity of the integration and differentiation theories of Lawrence and Lorsch (1967, 1969) by means of simulated conditions. Although the project was not entirely definitive, it confirmed all the hypotheses. Du Bick (1978), in a study of 72 metropolitan newspapers, found that the internal structure of an organization is affected by the complexity of the environment and the competition faced. These findings suggested not only that environmental complexity leads to structural differentiation, but also that this structural adjustment becomes more necessary for survival under conditions of competition.

A negative finding has to be mentioned too, however. Morrow (1981)

examined the relationships among environmental change, work-related communication, and subunit effectiveness. No support could be found for the notion that effectiveness could be enhanced by increasing communication under turbulent environmental conditions or by decreasing communication under stable conditions.

In conclusion, Stallard and Terry (1984) can be quoted; they outlined the dependency relationship between an organization and its environment, stressing that the organizational format commonly found under dynamic environmental conditions tends to feature nonroutine tasks, the use of task forces, authority based on knowledge rather than position, short spans of authority, and decentralization of authority. In contrast, under static environmental conditions, the tasks tend to be routine, the groups have relatively large numbers of employees, authority is based on position, whilst considerable use is made of formal directives.

Conflict amongst the Parts of the Organization

According to DuBrin (1981), the term incompatibility points to the true nature and meaning of conflict: a conflict occurs when two goals are incompatible or mutually exclusive. In a typical business, in order to survive and make a profit, products and markets have to be created, while some money must be raised in order to manufacture these products and to sell them. Whilst these means are made operational through the creation of manufacturing, engineering, marketing, sales and finance departments, the various means could easily become the primary goals of these subordinate departments (Schein, 1980). Each of these units may subdivide its task in order to accomplish its goal most efficiently. These units could then begin to operate at cross-purposes with one another, overlap in function, or compete for scarce resources. Functional departmentalization could also result in conflict for another reason: it tends to accentuate the need for coordination as each functionally specialized department tends to develop its own culture, its own goals and preferred ways of doing things (Khandwalla, 1977). Conflicts arise in organizations because

the high degree of occupational specialization, variety of employees with diverse backgrounds, and constantly changing environments, place great pressure on the organization to adapt; all of this presents a difficult challenge to those who must work with one another (Ferraro & Adams, 1984).

Miles (1980) emphasized that as the demands by the external environment, the scale of operations and the technology, become more complex and uncertain, managers develop strategies to deal with them. Predominant among their strategic choices are the division and specialization of labour into subunits, as well as the delegation of appropriate authority domains. The result is a situation in which unit members are different and also behave differently in service of their own unit's goals. This again could lead to a variety of immediate sources of interunit conflict: task interdependencies, status inconsistencies, jurisdictional ambiguities, communication obstacles, dependencies on common resource pools, differences in performance criteria and reward systems, differences in unit orientations and structures, and finally, differences in the skills and traits of key personnel.

According to Lawrence and Lorsch (1967) a high degree of differentiation implies that managers will view problems differently and that conflicts will inevitably arise about how best to proceed. Effective integration would, therefore, mean that these conflicts have to be resolved to the approximate satisfaction of all parties and to the general good of the enterprise.

Power differences between units could constitute another source of conflict. Salancik (1977) suggested that power is something that accrues to organizational subunits which can cope with critical organizational problems. Power is used by these subunits to enhance their own survival through control of scarce, critical resources, through the placement of allies in key positions, and through the definition of organizational problems and policies.

Conflict in organizations can, according to Lawler et al. (1980), be

viewed as either an individual or an organizational phenomenon. The individual perspective views conflict as the clash of incompatible personalities, distorted perceptions, and individual frustrations. Analyses of conflict are accordingly made in individual and interpersonal terms. An organizational perspective, by contrast, views conflict as the result of characteristics of the social system, e.g. the vertical division of the social system into hierarchical levels or echelons, or the horizontal differentiation of functional units. Therefore, because people within the system tend to look for individual explanations of error or conflict, it is all the more important in the resolution of conflict to also look at the properties of the system itself.

Deutsch (1971) emphasized that conflict is a pervasive and inevitable aspect of life. "Its pervasiveness suggests that conflict is not necessarily destructive or lacking in pleasure. Conflict has many positive functions. It prevents stagnation, it stimulates interest and curiosity, it is the medium through which problems can be aired and solutions arrived at; it is the root of personal and social change" (p.38). Hierarchy conflict between departments can, therefore, also be healthy (Rassam, 1976). In order to achieve maximum integration though, the organization has to be able to create conditions which will facilitate a balance between organizational goals and member needs, whilst minimizing disintegrative competition between the subunits of the organization (Schein, 1980).

THE CONCEPT OF ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE

Towards a Definition of Organizational Climate

The concept 'organizational climate' appears to be confusing and often misunderstood. The major source of the confusion centers around the extreme difficulty which has been experienced in attempting to define climate. Diverse opinions exist as to the nature of attributes or

sets of attributes of the work environment, the way in which these attributes themselves combine, and the way they are used by an individual to form something called organizational climate (Naylor, Pritchard & Ilgen, 1980).

Litwin and Stringer defined the concept of climate as "a set or cluster of expectancies and incentives and represents, we propose, a property of environments that is perceived directly or indirectly by the individuals in the environment" (1968, p.29).

Gilmer and Deci (1977) listed the following points which should be taken into consideration in describing the climate of an organization:

- basically perceptual - an internal interpretation and representation of the external situation;
- based upon the interactions between situational and individual characteristics;
- an intervening psychological process in an organizational model, where the point of intervention is between the situation and the individual;
- not completely a situationally specific construct - it possesses at least some core characteristics or dimensions which apply to varying degrees across situations;
- representing a set of higher order abstractions which reflect interrelationships among more specific perceptions of the work environment.

Along similar lines, Orpen (1981) stated that organizational climate means those characteristics which:

- describe an organization;
- are relatively enduring;

- distinguish a particular organization from others;
- influence the behaviour of people;
- reflect the pattern of expectations (norms and standards) of managers about how organizational members should behave, think, and be judged;
- derive from the peculiar ways in which managers deal with, or treat, members;
- are relatively independent of the structure, process, and technology of the organization (insofar as different climates can exist across organizations with the same structure, process, and technology, and vice versa).

Although a universally acceptable definition of climate does not seem possible, climate can, according to the Centre for Organization and Personnel Psychology (Louvain), be described as the perception of a relative stable totality of the organization's internal environmental characteristics (De Cock et al., 1984).

Figure 2 presents a schema of organizational climate:

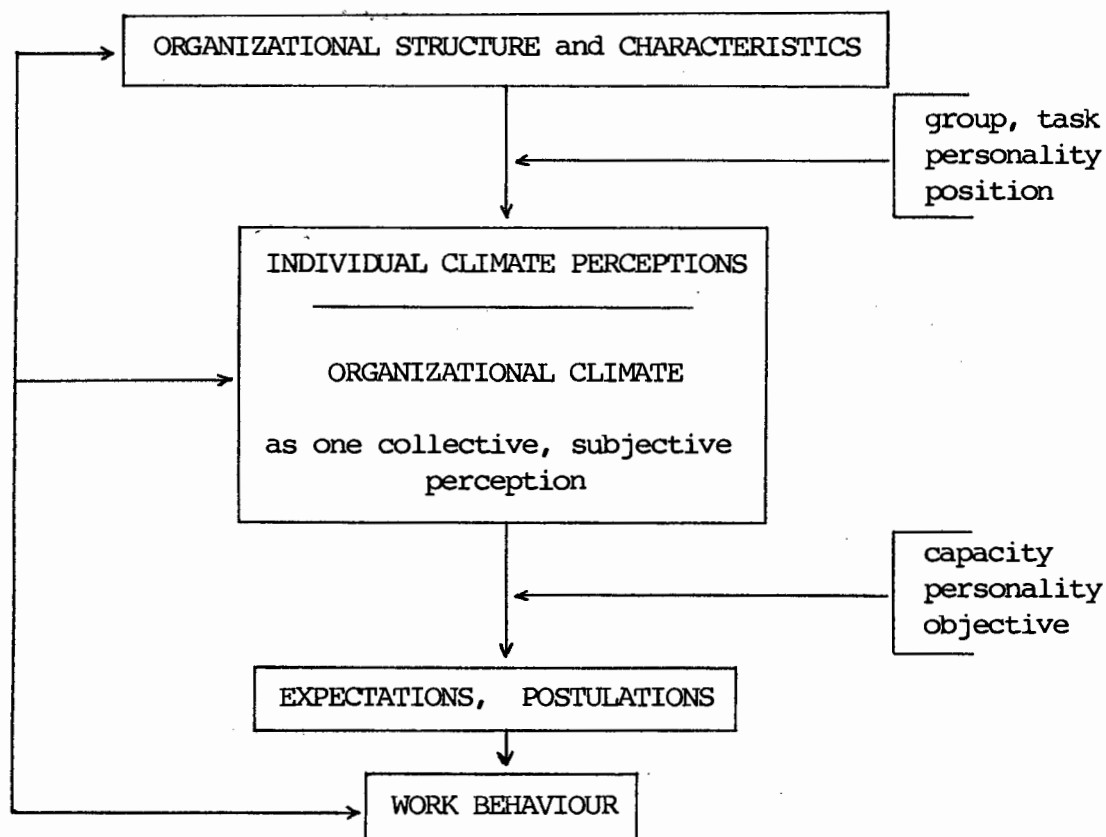


Figure 2: Organizational Climate Model
(Source: De Cock, et al., 1984, p.4).

Determinants of Organizational Climate

At least four different variables could be identified which influence organizational climate. Obviously, the first actor on the scene is management, as a collectivity. Nasser (1975) made the point that what an employee perceives is a total behaviour pattern on the part of management; also labour's attitude to management is a reflection of how management exercises its authority. Within the management of a particular organization, there is usually a dominant coalition which plays a primary role in determining the climate.

Secondly, the influence of individual activity should be considered, ranging from the powerful affect of the managing director down through the ranks of managers and subordinates. Virtually every human

interaction affects climate to some degree. Individuals affect climate through their personalities, especially their needs and the actions they take to satisfy those needs (Higgins, 1982). The individual enters the working environment with a fundamental set of needs and, depending upon the satisfaction of these needs, his/her effectiveness as a contributor to organizational objectives will be determined (Nasser, 1975). Chattopadhyay (1985) stressed that the development of unconscious needs for love and need/wish fulfilment, affect the way individuals interact with their environment and how they connect to the organization. Based on object-relations theory, organizational behaviour patterns are seen as a reaction to images repressed in the unconscious. Congruence between individual needs and organizational goals is therefore important in predicting behaviour and perception of the climate.

Thirdly, the structure of the organization is an important determinant of organizational climate. Payne and Pugh (1983) reviewed in detail how different structures might produce different climates. Entrepreneurial risk-taking, for example, is unlikely to be encouraged by highly specialized, highly prescribed roles in a centralised authority system. It has, however, also been found that a reasonable amount of structure (via job definition and control by procedures) does not lessen readiness to innovate.

Lastly, the external environment impacts on an organization to determine its climate. Organizational and individual constructs exist in the wider economic and cultural environment of the real world (Payne & Pugh, 1983). An economic or cultural change may, for instance, produce changes in an organization's purpose, resources and technology. "The structure may be adaptable and respond to such changes or may have to change itself, thus creating changes in climate, a person's immediate job environment, and ultimately the individual himself" (Payne & Pugh, 1983, p.1128). An example, which is so close to home that we tend to lose sight of it in South Africa, is the way in which socio-political factors from the environment determine the climate of most South African organizations.

Individual Perception or Attribute of Organization?

A fundamental issue is whether the organizational climate attributes are perceptions present within the cognitive structure of the individual perceiver, or whether they are measures of the actual organizational attributes in a physical sense, external to the individual perceiver.

Gilmer and Deci (1977) quoted Forehand and Gilmer, who emphasized that individual perceptions are to a large extent governed by personality factors, are related to the satisfaction of one's needs, and by the presence or absence of factors that motivate a person from within and from without. Individual personalities and job requirements thus interact to produce a climate that can be significant to both the individual and the organization. However, the individual is always embedded in larger systems; therefore the individual's perception must be examined within the context of both the micro and macro environments, as well as the resulting interaction between these.

Opinions to the contrary can also be found in the literature. For instance, according to Guion (1973), the organizational climate appears to refer to an attribute, or set of attributes of the work environment itself. He wrote that, "The idea of a 'perceived organizational climate' seems ambiguous; one cannot be sure whether it implies an attribute of the organization, then measures of perceived organizational climate should be evaluated in terms of the accuracy of the perceptions. If it refers to the individual, then perceived organizational climate may simply be a difficult name for job satisfaction or employee attitudes" (Guion, 1973, p.120).

A study by Hendrick (1979) provided empirical support for the view that climate has a more objective existence. In this study six to eight male enlisted personnel from each of sixty army companies were interviewed during an organizational assessment; the initiating structure and consideration behaviour of each company commander were related to perceived determinants of between-company differences in (i) subordinates' behaviour, (ii) three organizational climate

dimensions, and (iii) perceived unit effectiveness. Commonly held perceptions among officers and noncommissioned officers supported the subordinates' perceptions of the causal significance of the company commander's behaviour. Perceptions of battalion commanders also supported this view and provided a partial validation of subordinates' global perceptions of the companies' climate and effectiveness.

Gilmer and Deci (1977) outlined three separate but not mutually exclusive approaches to defining and measuring organizational climate. The first, 'multiple measurement - organizational attribute approach', defines climate as a set of characteristics which describe an organization, and which distinguish the organization from other organizations, are relatively enduring over time, and influence the behaviour of the people in the organization. The second, 'perceptual measurement - organizational attribute approach', defines climate as a set of attributes specific to a particular organization, which may be induced from the way the organization deals with its members and its environment. For the individual, climate then takes the form of a set of attributes and expectancies which describe the organization. The third, 'perceptual measurement - individual attribute approach', defines climate as personalistic, being an individual perception.

Further support can be found in a study by Drexler (1977). He examined climate as an organizational attribute to determine whether it has organization-specific variance. He found that, firstly, there is a main effect of organization on organizational climate; differences were also organization specific and not due to differences in organization type. In the second place, while organizational climate characterizes organizations among groups serving different functions in diverse industries, it also characterized organizations among groups serving the same function in different organizations. Thirdly, climate had more variance attributable to organizations than to organizational subunits; however, consideration had to be made to the fact that subunit differences did exist.

Naylor et al. (1980) regarded the issue of true versus perceived attributes in the definition of climate as nonproductive. They

suggested that the appropriate approach is to view climate as a process which is inherently psychological in nature - based upon the judgement process by which individuals form global perceptions of their environment. Therefore, when discussing climate, one has to deal with the environment at three different levels. Firstly, the actual environmental characteristics that constitute the basis for the psychological climate dimension; secondly, the individual perceptions of the degree to which these specific environmental attributes actually exist; and thirdly, the perception by the individual of the amount of a particular psychological characteristic possessed by the organization, which is based upon the individual's perception of environmental attributes.

Schematically these three levels can be illustrated as in Figure 3.

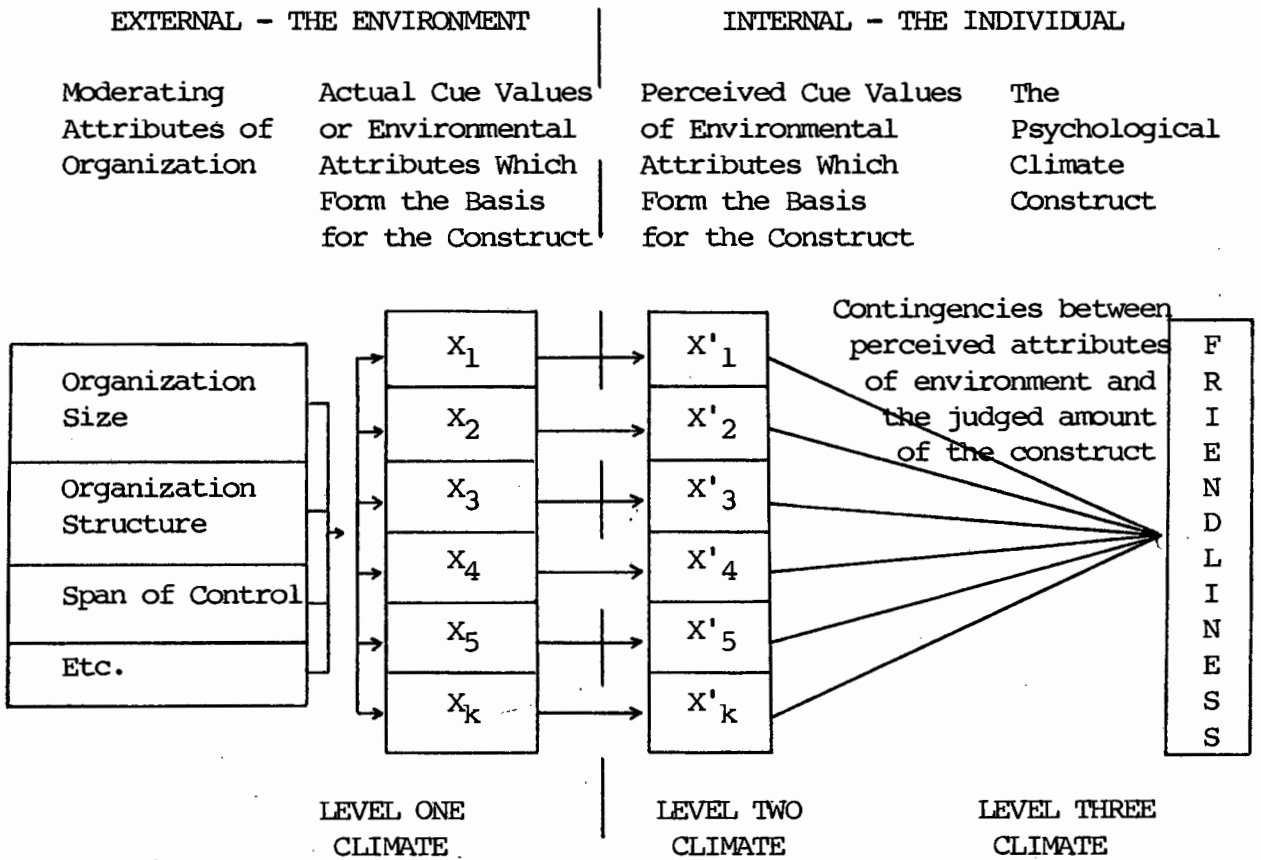


Figure 3: A Schematic Representation of Organizational Climate (Source: Naylor et al., 1980, p.255).

Measuring Organizational Climate

Gilmer et al. (1977) outlined the following four methods of measuring organizational climate:

- Informal descriptions or field studies involving personal accounts of the activities of organizations, from observations of conferences, records, correspondence, etc.
- Systematically selected perceptions of people in the organization, involving scales developed to provide indices of climates.
- Objective indices covering a wide range of variables, e.g. facts on absenteeism, accident rates and productivity.
- The experimental manipulation of climate in leadership style, in small-group behaviour, in industrial human relations situations, etc.

Katz and Kahn (1978) wrote that the many subtle and unconscious factors which determine a frame of reference are not always susceptible to direct questioning, and the technique of observation has thus been more revealing about organizational climate than the typical survey. The implication is that, in order to obtain a comprehensive picture, all of the above methods should be used together. Practical circumstances, however, usually dictate the use of only one, perhaps two, of these at a given time. The second method, the use of questionnaire measures, is usually the most feasible when large numbers of participants are involved and when there are time constraints. It was also the approach taken in the present study.

CHAPTER 2

RESEARCH METHOD

The objective of the empirical study undertaken was to investigate whether various functional departments, in the same industrial organization, differed with respect to the organizational climate experienced by the members of each of the departments. This chapter will describe the methodology of the study.

To restate points made in the previous chapter, a total organization, can be seen as a system of 'means-ends chains', wherein the means for organizational members at a higher rank in the organizational hierarchy become the ends for groups directly below them. This situation, however, creates the possibility - in fact the likelihood, that the different parts of the organization will begin to operate at cross-purposes with one another (Schein, 1980). In this process each subunit can also develop its own purpose and goals. Such a set of circumstances could lead to unhealthy competition for scarce resources, such as 'good employees', or a certain share of the budget.

An attempt was therefore made to determine whether functional units had, over time, each developed an own climate, due to its unique character, consisting of different goals, formality of structure, interpersonal orientation, etc.

In formal terms, the objective of the present study was to investigate the hypothesis, concerning differences on the dimensions of the Organizational Climate Questionnaire (De Cock et al., 1984) between the four departments to be compared. The hypothesis postulated was formulated as follows:

There are significant differences on the twenty climate dimensions of the Organizational Climate Questionnaire between the five organizational units: marketing, personnel/public affairs, finance and production.

METHODOLOGY

Company

The company selected for this research project, a winery, belongs to an industry where the rates of growth and change seem to be moderate. Innovation, however, is a major issue, with the market aspect of the environment ("the consumer") being clearly crucial. The main competitive issue is the ability to provide customer service through rapid and timely deliveries whilst maintaining consistent product quality.

By South African standards, the company is large. It is decentralized in its functioning, since, other than for policy formulation handled at a head office level, manufacturing and wholesaling functions are localized in several regional units spanning the Republic and Namibia. The range of products which each region carries varies according to geographic, population and economic considerations. The study was conducted in the Transvaal region, the largest of regions, which had 935 employees at the time of the study.

The Transvaal senior management considers Marketing, Personnel, Public Affairs, Finance and Production as the key functional areas (See Appendix A). Members of each functional department are, in turn, further grouped into more specialized sections, e.g.:

Marketing	:	Marketing North
	:	Marketing South
 Finance	 :	 Administration
	:	Costing
	:	Data Services
	:	Credit Control
	:	Systems

Production : Dry Goods
 : Empties
 : Cellars
 : Bottling
 : Quality Control

The Personnel and Public Affairs departments were grouped together in the study due to the similarity in function which they fulfil in the company - as reflected in the organizational structure, with both departmental managers indirectly reporting to the Human Resources Director.

There is little vertical integration in the organization. There is, for example, no facility for manufacturing its own bottles, cans, etc. There are no top level committees, and the integration of operations takes place primarily through the individual manager. On the other hand, most departments are quite highly differentiated. The basic departments show differences in formal structure, goal orientation and interpersonal orientation, which can be related to differences in the degree of certainty in that part of the environment.

The Marketing department functions under the highest level of uncertainty of tasks in this organization. The primary concerns of the Marketing department are customer needs, competitors' activities, and other activities in the market place. It has to accomplish the market objectives of the organization. It deals with problems which often provide rapid feedback about results and have the attention focused on short-term matters. Internally this department cares more about fostering positive social relationships among its members. Organizational practices and procedures exert less control and constraint than in the case of the Production or Financial departments.

By comparison, the combination of Personnel/Public Affairs departments deals with fairly certain tasks, organizational practices and procedures exert than in the case of Marketing. These units are accustomed to being concerned with employee and customer relations and

concentrate internally, as well as externally, on fostering positive social relationships. As a service department, attention is focused on short and long-term matters.

The tasks of the Production department are characterized by a great deal of certainty. It attends to techno-economic goals, such as raw materials, costs, processing costs and the quality of the final product. Activities are largely programmed in advance. It also deals with problems which often provide rapid feedback about results, and has attention focused on short-term matters. The Production department has more levels in its managerial hierarchy, a higher ratio of supervisors to workers and more specific reviews of both the department's and individual manager's performances than any of the other departments. Internally they would probably prefer interactions aimed primarily at getting the job done.

The Financial department deals with tasks that are also quite certain. It is concerned with financial procedures and controls which provide the necessary coordination within the department. It is orientated more toward longer time horizons, such as monitoring the annual budget. Financial personnel, therefore, do not always regard positive social relationships as essential and would probably prefer contacts which emphasize task accomplishments.

Sample

The research was conducted on white employees within their actual work situations. Every effort was made to include all employees in the functional units of Marketing, Personnel/Public Affairs, Finance and Production in the Transvaal region. Questionnaires were distributed to one hundred and thirty-three employees in the above-mentioned functional units. Sixty-three questionnaires were returned. This represents forty-seven percent of the sample. The low return rate was attributed to difficulties in communicating with the employees based at different depots; not all of them could be reached personally, due to their geographical dispersal. Nine more questionnaires were

excluded from analysis due to incorrect completion, giving a final participation rate of forty-one percent.

Table 1 presents the total number of employees in each of the four departments, as well as the number of participants from each for whom questionnaires were included. The low return rate in the case of Marketing resulted from the nature of the field activities of this department, while the high return rate for Personnel/Public relations was largely due to their close proximity to the researcher.

TABLE 1

Number of Employees and Number of Participants per Functional Unit

Unit	Number of Employees in Department	Questionnaires Analysed	
		n	%
Marketing	74	19	26
Personnel/ Public Affairs	14	11	79
Finance	25	12	48
Production	20	12	60
TOTAL	133	54	-

Participants in the study came from four broad job categories, in terms of the Castlelion Job Evaluation method (the number of persons from group included in the sample is indicated in brackets):

Job Grades 15,16: This included the senior management echelon, who control the day-to-day functioning of the company in the Transvaal

region (n = 5).

Job Grades 12,13,14: This included the middle-management echelon and includes sales managers, personnel managers, an administration manager, an engineer and distribution manager, (n = 23).

Job Grades 9,10,11: This included the supervisory/foreman echelon and includes foremen, supervisors and chargehands, (n = 78).

Job Grades 6,7,8: This included general employees and includes secretaries, clerks and artisans, (n = 27).

Data Collection

Each employee in the total group received a covering letter which briefly explained the purpose of the study and assured participants of total confidentiality, as well as the assurance that participation would not affect anyone's position in any way. Secondly, participants received a form on which they provided details of their position in the organization. Lastly, they received a copy of the Organization Climate Questionnaire.

Organizational Climate Index for Profit Organizations

De Cock et al. (1984) started the project of questionnaire development with the construction of a Flemish organizational climate instrument, using the Business Organizational Climate Index developed by Payne and Mansfield as an immediate source (De Cock et al., 1984). Items were translated and new items added; item-analyses were then carried out to form new scales and to eliminate unacceptable items. The new instrument was used to investigate the relations between organizational climate and organizational variables, such as size, functional specialization, etc. Data on these studies are available in De Cock et al. (1984); the earlier studies were described in

De Cock and De Witte (1978), while Bouwen (1978) also reported on part of the development.

The English version of the Organization Climate Index for Profit Organizations (See Appendix B) was employed in this study. It consists of two hundred and two items which define climate on six scales, subdivided into varying numbers of subscales per area, for a total of twenty subscales.

The questionnaire requests the participant to give an honest reflection of his/her personal feelings on each item by circling the appropriate response. A forced-choice item format is used. The response scale used for the first 99 items is:

Always	Generally	Sometimes	Never
4	3	2	1

From item 100 to 202 the response scale reads:

Everyone	Many	Some	Nobody
4	3	2	1

There is no time limit for completion of the questionnaire; it was found to take approximately 55 minutes to complete.

A description of each subscales follows below, as well as two illustrative items for each, one usually with the first response format above, the rest with the second format:

1. Leadership

- A. Psychological distance between superior and subordinate: the degree to which the communication between people of different hierarchical levels is restricted, in that they see each other as being different.

- Senior personnel are very jealous of their authority.
 - try/tries to avoid contact with senior personnel.
- B. Being critical of authority: the degree to which decisions from above are questioned.
- Criticism of the policy and work done here is encouraged.
 - If people here don't agree with a decision, they try to change it.
- C. Striving towards equality: the degree to which everyone is treated on an equal footing, regardless of provenance, relations or other irrelevant reasons, only considering capacities, commitment and achievements.
- In this organization everyone is treated equally.
 - start(s) here with an equal opportunity.
- D. Concern of superiors about the involvement of the employees: the degree to which the leading figures promote the identification of their subordinates with their work and with the organization, through the stimulation of upward communication and the explanation of the downward communication.
- Aims and instructions are carefully explained to everyone.
 - of the senior personnel is/are as willing to listen to others as he/they is/are to give orders.
2. Selfcontrol Scales
- E. Frankness: the degree to which ideas and conceptions can be exchanged freely.

- Here prize(s) frankness.
- here can speak freely about everything.

F. Emotional control: the degree to which feelings may not and cannot be uttered.

- People show their feelings.
- go(es) out of his/their way to hide his/their feelings.

3. Work Scale

G. Future orientation: the degree to which future situations are anticipated at work and the required information is available.

- It is seen as a shortcoming by if a person does not think ahead.
- know(s) offhand which assignment he/they will have to do.

H. Scientific and technical orientation: the degree to which scientific and technical knowledge is present and determines policy.

- Technical improvement is pursued.
- in the management rate(s) the outcome of scientific research highly.

I. Intellectual orientation: the degree to which there exists the possibility and willingness to raise and evaluate various intellectual problems.

- Intricate problems are reflected upon and discussed.
- has/have a well founded opinion of things.

J. Challenge emanating from the work: the degree to which the work demands sufficient capacities of the persons performing it and to which they themselves reach fulfilment doing it.

- Good work is highly applauded.
 - The work here has a personal challenge for
- K. Task orientation: the degree to which there is a willingness and dedication to quality task input.
- One has to achieve a lot before receiving acknowledgement for your work.
 - has/have a sense of duty towards the work.
- L. Labour: the degree to which one wants to and has to make an input, and the effort it takes.
- speaks/speak about the possibility of quitting his/their job.
 - is/are compelled to work hard here.

4. Interpersonal Relations Scale

- M. Altruism: the degree to which there is interest and willingness to help each other and the stimulation of such mutuality.
- The people here help each other.
 - Newcomers are helped to feel at home by
- N. Sociability: the degree to which employees build up good interpersonal relations among themselves.
- It is easy to make new friends around here.
 - The people here get along well with one another.
- O. Aggression: the degree to which differences lead to non-constructive actions and to bad feelings.
- here can quickly settle a dispute.
 - around here get(s) angry easily.

5. Routine Scale

- P. Commitment to rules: the degree to which rules and regulations determine the activities and to which

deviations from these rules and regulations are sanctioned.

- Rules and regulations are obeyed by
- who is/are newly employed, is/are immediately informed of what the rules are.

Q. Organizational efficiency: the degree to which activities are performed quickly, are well-planned and goal-directed.

- The work is well organized here.
- The quality of work done here is checked and evaluated.

R. Conventionality: the degree to which happenings and forms of address are subjected to norms.

- Here behave(s) and dress(es) similarly.
- Good manners are very important around here.

S. Preparedness for renewal: the degree to which new ideas are sought, encouraged and implemented.

- New ideas are tried out.
- keep(s) his/their eyes open for an improvement here.

6. Society Scale

T. Orientation to the society: the degree to which the company shows interest in and participates in social happenings.

- Our organization is interested in social problems.
- Actions in aid of charity are encouraged.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS and DISCUSSION

This chapter will first present the results of the empirical study. The implications of these findings will then be discussed.

Descriptive Data on Scales and Subscales

Table 2 presents the means and standard deviations for each of the twenty Organizational Climate subscales for each of the four organizational units included in the study.

Table 2
Means and Standard Deviations of Climate Scales
for Each Organizational Unit.

Scale	Marketing		Personnel/Public Affairs		Finance		Production	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Leadership								
A	13,26	1,73	12,64	2,66	12,75	3,08	16,67	1,72
B	23,74	1,85	25,00	5,62	23,00	3,77	20,67	3,34
C	32,21	4,39	36,36	6,36	32,67	6,58	27,17	3,66
D	31,68	4,07	35,18	6,27	32,00	6,21	24,67	3,42
Selfcontrol								
E	28,42	3,45	31,73	6,65	30,67	7,29	22,75	3,84
F	16,95	2,44	16,00	3,35	15,25	2,22	18,75	1,77
Work								
G	24,00	4,11	26,55	3,58	25,67	5,47	22,92	4,44
H	29,79	5,83	32,00	5,68	29,83	5,61	24,25	4,29
I	33,11	2,81	35,09	5,91	35,50	5,35	29,33	3,94
J	25,79	2,82	27,64	4,18	25,50	6,63	20,83	3,01
K	27,37	2,93	29,82	3,55	32,17	5,11	26,75	2,26
L	26,11	3,30	27,55	3,14	29,58	3,03	24,42	3,09
Interpersonal Relations								
M	23,95	3,24	26,36	4,61	28,08	5,96	21,42	3,32
N	27,79	3,79	29,36	5,41	30,67	4,23	24,25	2,86
O	25,58	2,12	25,82	5,25	21,33	6,47	29,58	3,80
Routine								
P	32,37	4,54	33,64	5,48	33,92	5,50	32,33	3,77
Q	31,21	5,55	32,64	7,67	33,08	8,19	27,08	5,89
R	27,90	3,20	31,00	4,22	28,08	3,58	24,50	2,84
S	22,68	2,83	24,18	4,38	23,50	5,52	18,83	3,46
Society								
T	29,79	3,99	31,55	5,17	29,17	4,59	26,25	3,77

Table 3 presents Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients for the scales and subscales of the Organizational Climate Index, as obtained in the present study. Except for subscales A, B, F and L all the subscales fulfilled the requirements of 0.70 reliability. By way of comparison, the alpha reliability coefficients reported by De Cock et al. (1984) for the subscales in two independent samples are also presented.

Table 3
Reliabilities Reported for Belgian Samples and
Obtained in Present Study.

Scale/ Subscale	No. of Items	Coefficient Alpha Present Study	Belgian Reliabilities ^a	
			Group A	Group B
Leadership				
A	6	.56	.80	.75
B	10	.59	.81	.80
C	12	.80	.89	.89
D	11	.85	.90	.89
Selfcontrol				
E	11	.86	.89	.86
F	7	.49	.79	.67
Work				
G	9	.77	.87	.78
H	12	.81	.89	.83
I	12	.80	.87	.81
J	9	.84	.84	.72
K	10	.79	.83	.78
L	10	.58	.70	.53
Interpersonal Relations				
M	9	.87	.90	.90
N	10	.80	.88	.84
O	12	.84	.87	.89
Routine				
P	11	.77	.81	.76
Q	11	.90	.89	.85
R	10	.70	.73	.71
S	9	.76	.83	.72
Society				
T	11	.72	.83	.78

(^a Source: De Cock et al., 1984, p.12.)

Comparisons of Functional Units

The four functional units, viz. Marketing, Personnel/Public Affairs, Finance and Production, were compared with respect to the scores which the participants in each unit obtained on the twenty subscales of the Organizational Climate Index. Since there was doubt whether the scores were normally distributed, it was decided to use a non-parametric test, rather than a parametric one (Kerlinger, 1973).

A rank test for k independent samples was applied: the Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance by rank (Ferguson, 1976). This "technique tests the null hypothesis that the k samples come from the same population or from identical populations with respect to averages" (Siegel, 1956, p.184). The formula for assessing the significance of differences between groups is as follows:

$$H = \frac{12}{N(N+1)} \sum \frac{R_i^2}{n_i} - 3(N+1)$$

where n_i = number of cases in i th sample

N = number of cases in all samples combined (=54)

R_i = sum of ranks for k th sample

When ties occurred, the usual convention was adopted of assigning the tied observations the average of the ranks they would otherwise have occupied. In order to determine whether the significance of the value of H was affected by ties, the value of H was divided by:

$$I = \frac{\sum T}{N^3 - N}$$

where $T = t^3 - t$, and t is the number of tied observations in a set. For the present set of data the effect of correction for ties was, however, found to be negligible throughout and therefore ignored.

The number of cases in each sample were presented in Table 1. Since there were more than five cases in each sample ($n_i > 5$), the probability associated with the occurrence under the null hypothesis of values as large as an observed value of H was equal to or larger than the chi square value for three degrees of freedom ($df = k - 1$) at set levels of significance (Siegel, 1956).

Table 4 presents the comparisons of the mean scores for each of the twenty Organizational Climate subscales for each of the four organizational units. Organizational units not differing at the .05 level of significance (see Table 4) are highlighted by underlined means. Other differences are highlighted by a dotted line. For each scale the means are presented from the highest to the lowest, with the unit indicated.

Table 4
Comparisons of Mean Scores of Climate Subscales
for Each Organizational Unit

Scale	Organizational Unit with Mean Score			
<u>Leadership</u>				
A	Production 16,67	Marketing 13,26	Finance 12,75	Personnel/P.A. 12,64
B	Personnel/P.A. 25,00	Marketing 23,74	Finance 23,00	Production 20,67
C	Personnel/P.A. 36,36	Finance 32,67	Marketing 32,21	Production 27,17
D	Personnel/P.A. 35,18	Finance 32,00	Marketing 31,68	Production 24,67
<u>Selfcontrol</u>				
E	Personnel/P.A. 31,73	Finance 30,67	Marketing 28,42	Production 22,75

Table 4 (continued)

Scale	Organizational Unit with Mean Score			
F	Production 18,75	Marketing 16,95	Personnel/P.A. 16,00	Finance 15,25
Work				
G	Personnel/P.A. 26,54	Finance 25,67	Marketing 24,00	Production 22,92
H	Personnel/P.A. 32,00	Finance 29,83	Marketing 29,79	Production 24,25
I	Finance 35,50	Personnel/P.A. 35,09	Marketing 33,11	Production 29,33
J	Personnel/P.A. 27,64	Marketing 25,79	Finance 25,50	Production 20,83
			-----7%-----	
K	Finance 32,17	Personnel/P.A. 29,82	Marketing 27,37	Production 26,75
			-----6%-----	
L	Finance 29,58	Personnel/P.A. 27,54	Production 26,42	Marketing 26,11
			-----8%-----	
Interpersonal Relations				
M	Finance 28,08	Personnel/P.A. 26,36	Marketing 23,95	Production 21,41
N	Finance 30,67	Personnel/P.A. 29,36	Marketing 27,79	Production 24,25
O	Production 29,58	Personnel/P.A. 25,82	Marketing 25,58	Finance 21,33

Table 4 (continued)

Scale	Organizational Unit with Mean Score			
Routine				
P	Finance 33,92	Personnel/P.A. 33,64	Marketing 32,37	Production 32,33
Q	Finance 33,08	Personnel/P.A. 32,64	Marketing 31,21	Production 27,08
R	Personnel/P.A. 31,00	Finance 28,10	Marketing 27,90	Production 24,50
S	Personnel/P.A. 24,18	Finance 23,50	Marketing 22,68	Production 18,80
Society				
T	Personnel/P.A. 31,54	Marketing 29,79	Finance 29,17	Production 26,25

Table 5 presents the chi square approximation of Kruskal-Wallis statistics, first for all four groups combined ($df = 3$) and then for comparisons of each pair of functional units ($df = 1$).

Table 5

Chi Square Approximations of Kruskal-Wallis Statistics for Comparisons of Functional Units

Scale	All Groups df = 3	Marketing vs Personnel/P.A. df = 1	Marketing vs Finance df = 1	Marketing vs Production df = 1	Personnel/P.A. vs Finance df = 1	Personnel/P.A. vs Production df = 1	Finance vs Production df = 1
Leadership							
A	17,63***	0,37	0,93	14,98***	0,00	11,63***	8,03***
B	10,98 **	2,40	1,17	7,20***	2,59	6,89***	2,12
C	14,43***	2,83	0,06	8,00***	2,87	10,90***	4,98 *
D	17,83***	2,91	0,20	13,86***	1,76	11,09***	6,66***
Selfcontrol							
E	16,03***	3,38	0,84	12,41***	1,16	9,50***	6,64 **
F	12,98***	1,48	2,30	4,19 *	0,00	6,97***	12,03***
Work							
G	4,39	1,81	1,08	1,08	0,12	3,44	1,48
H	12,79***	0,75	0,01	8,02***	0,60	10,52***	6,35 **
I	9,39 **	0,64	1,12	6,92***	0,08	4,83 *	5,50 **
J	14,71***	2,77	0,00	12,69***	0,42	11,13***	3,33
K	11,03 **	3,56	5,41 **	0,78	1,23	5,25 **	6,28 **
L	7,67	0,43	6,31 **	0,00	3,05	0,39	5,01 *
Interpersonal Relations							
M	11,49***	1,99	2,80	4,26 *	0,50	6,46 **	7,57***
N	13,11***	0,17	2,27	7,36***	0,31	5,27 **	11,39***
O	15,50***	0,00	5,45 **	10,54***	3,11	3,66	9,06***

Table 5 (continued)

Scale	All Groups df = 3	Marketing vs Personnel/P.A. df = 1	Marketing vs Finance df = 1	Marketing vs Production df = 1	Personnel/P.A. vs Finance df = 1	Personnel/P.A. vs Production df = 1	Finance vs Production df = 1
Routine							
P	1,62	0,61	0,96	0,03	0,00	0,75	0,86
Q	7,46	1,31	0,73	4,83 *	0,03	4,15 *	4,21 *
R	14,01***	3,25	0,03	7,97***	2,30	10,14***	5,13 **
S	9,66 **	0,95	0,00	7,39***	0,16	7,11***	4,01 *
Society							
T	7,95 *	83,0	0,45	5,80 **	0,98	5,53 **	2,45

Note: * p < .05
 ** p < .025
 *** p < .01

It is clear that the null hypothesis that the four functional units all constituted samples from the same population with respect to their mean scores on the various Organizational Climate subscales could be rejected. Support was thus implied for the hypothesis predicting significant differences on the climate dimensions.

Discussion

Support for the hypothesis predicting significant differences on the climate dimensions between the four functional units mentioned earlier, have emerged from the one-way analysis of variance by rank. The only exceptions were on the subscales G - 'Future orientation', and P - 'Commitment to rules'.

The chi square approximation of Kruskal-Wallis statistics (see Table 5) highlighted the level of significance on the twenty climate subscales between the four functional units very clearly.

Comparing the mean scores of climate subscales, it is noticeable that the Production unit, in particular, featured prominently as significantly different from the other functional units with respect to various climate dimensions (see Table 4).

It would appear as if the most significant differences exist between the Production unit and the rest of the units, while no significant differences were noted between the Marketing and Personnel/Public Affairs, and Personnel/Public Affairs and Finance units.

It is clear that especially the members of the Production unit differ from the other organizational units: for example, with respect to the degree to which the communication between people of different hierarchical levels is restricted; the degree to which ideas and conceptions can be exchanged; the degree to which new ideas are sought, encouraged and implemented, etc.

It would thus appear that, in addition to functional units having a

specialized technological function, they also develop a distinctive nucleus of organization-psychological procedures and values which sets them aside from one another. Whilst the members of a functional unit respond and attend to different subenvironments of the larger organizational environment, most of the time they also pursue different goals and orientations to work, interpersonal relations, etc. If the utilization of an employee is to be maximally effective, the behaviour and needs of the employee will have to be in harmony with the tone of the climate peculiar to that functional unit.

It would also seem as if managers will have to concern themselves more with the differentiation and integration concepts in understanding the climate of their own and other functional units. This may require some specific training inputs for managers. On the one hand, this could mean strengthening the climate in a peculiaristic way by enhancing the cohesiveness of the unit. This would, up to a point, increase morale and productivity. However, beyond that hard-to-determine point, it is likely to lead to dysfunctional group phenomena, like group think and destructive conflict with other units. Managers, therefore, have to focus on appropriate measures to facilitate a balance between organizational goals and functional units' needs and goals.

It can be concluded that a careful diagnosis of the unique context of a functional unit cannot be disregarded. It would be dysfunctional to attempt forcing a uniform climate on a whole organization. There should rather be a striving to understand the context in which organizations, units and subunits function. This appears to be important, especially when focusing on the interaction of production units with others in an organization. In order to use data, like those collected in the present study, to the advantage of an organization, it would seem fruitful to arrange organizational development activities for the purpose of feeding back findings and to facilitate a process of digestion by participants. It could be done in the tradition of survey feedback initiated by the Institute for Social Research at the University of Michigan (French & Bell, 1984).

It would probably be necessary to arrange an interlocking series of workshops, first feeding back information to the top executive team and then down through the hierarchy of the organization in each functional area. The objective would be to help units understand their own climate, evaluate its appropriateness and effectiveness, think through how to benefit from a strengthening of the awareness of the climate, but also how to prevent it from becoming dysfunctional.

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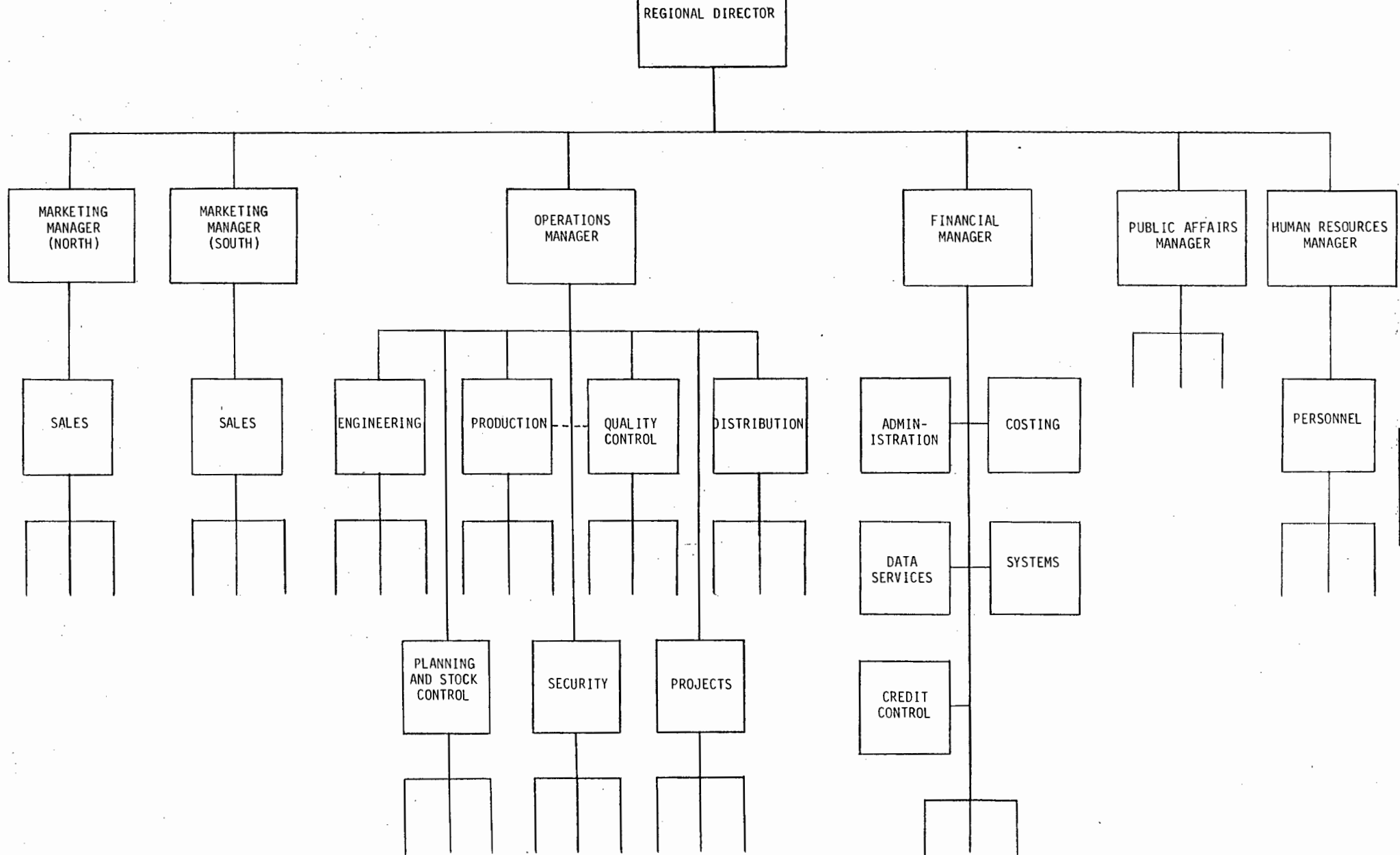
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APPENDIX B

ORGANIZATION CLIMATE INDEX FOR PROFIT ORGANIZATIONS (OCIPO)

		Always	Generally	Sometimes	Never
1.	Criticism of the policy and work done here is encouraged	4	3	2	1
2.	With us it is important to belong to the right clique	4	3	2	1
3.	Aims and instructions are carefully explained to everyone	4	3	2	1
4.	Mistakes and slip-ups are freely discussed so that everyone here can learn from them	4	3	2	1
5.	The ability to think ahead is appreciated here	4	3	2	1
6.	The latest technical developments are discussed	4	3	2	1
7.	Intricate problems are reflected upon and discussed	4	3	2	1
8.	The people here are very absorbed in their work	4	3	2	1
9.	The people here spend a lot of energy on what they are doing	4	3	2	1
10.	The people here help each other	4	3	2	1
11.	There is a good communal spirit around here	4	3	2	1
12.	The people here try to make work difficult for each other	4	3	2	1

	Always	Generally	Sometimes	Never
13. The people here expect that violation of rules will be reported	4	3	2	1
14. The work is well organised here	4	3	2	1
15. Good manners are very important around here	4	3	2	1
16. Changes of policy take place very slowly	4	3	2	1
17. Our organisation is interested in social problems	4	3	2	1
18. New ideas are tried out	4	3	2	1
19. The activities here are carefully planned	4	3	2	1
20. Friction and working against one another ... occurs here	4	3	2	1
21. The quality of work is checked	4	3	2	1
22. Problems that arise here are sorted out	4	3	2	1
23. The people are encouraged to think ahead	4	3	2	1
24. In this organisation one is allowed to defend one's own ideas	4	3	2	1
25. People with a modest background have less of a chance to get promotion or achieve success here	4	3	2	1
26. Actions in aid of charity are encouraged	4	3	2	1
27. A person with an untidy appearance will be checked up	4	3	2	1

		Always	Generally	Sometimes	Never
28.	One feels at home here	4	3	2	1
29.	The people here are prepared to take a break during working hours	4	3	2	1
30.	There is enough opportunity to work creatively	4	3	2	1
31.	The latest scientific inventions are discussed here	4	3	2	1
32.	If people don't agree with a decision they try to change it	4	3	2	1
33.	This organisation pays attention to personal problems of the staff	4	3	2	1
34.	The people here take scientific findings into consideration	4	3	2	1
35.	Daily activities require a lot of strain	4	3	2	1
36.	Set down rules and regulations are regarded as very important	4	3	2	1
37.	A lot of people are keen to read a paper or deliver a talk to a club or association	4	3	2	1
38.	If one knows the right person around here, you have a better chance	4	3	2	1
39.	Here people plan how they are going to work, before just starting	4	3	2	1
40.	There is some or other dispute around here	4	3	2	1

		Always	Generally	Sometimes	Never
41.	Looking for new approaches is encouraged	4	3	2	1
42.	The people here tend to accept foolish direction without protest	4	3	2	1
43.	People show their feelings	4	3	2	1
44.	Outside working hours people are prepared to pay attention to work related matters	4	3	2	1
45.	After working hours people have time for a chat	4	3	2	1
46.	It is expected that one will behave according to the regulations	4	3	2	1
47.	Here one is allowed to speak ones mind	4	3	2	1
48.	One gets involved in serious discussions	4	3	2	1
49.	Decisions are passed on rather reluctantly	4	3	2	1
50.	New scientific findings bring about change here	4	3	2	1
51.	The people here are neatly dressed and well groomed	4	3	2	1
52.	One is allowed to depart from set rules and habits	4	3	2	1
53.	When something goes wrong people blame one another	4	3	2	1
54.	It is easy to make new friends around here	4	3	2	1

	Always	Generally	Sometimes	Never
55. The people here help one another out of trouble	4	3	2	1
56. The people here are more interested in fun than in work	4	3	2	1
57. Good work is highly applauded	4	3	2	1
58. People who try to start any serious discussion are made fun of	4	3	2	1
59. Technical improvement is pursued	4	3	2	1
60. The people here know production or task changes offhand	4	3	2	1
61. If one feels like it here, one is free to express one's feelings	4	3	2	1
62. If one criticizes a person here it is taken as a personal insult	4	3	2	1
63. Senior personnel make time to give advice at work	4	3	2	1
64. A person who makes sure that he is seen, has a better chance in this organisation	4	3	2	1
65. It is permitted to react against decisions of the higher ranks	4	3	2	1
66. Senior personnel are very jealous of their authority	4	3	2	1
67. At meetings the superiors have more to say than the subordinates	4	3	2	1
68. The rules are laid out understandably	4	3	2	1

	Always	Generally	Sometimes	Never
69. Extra schooling is encouraged	4	3	2	1
70. The work here is meaningful and absorbing	4	3	2	1
71. During breaks the people spend their time together sociably	4	3	2	1
72. Here innovations are adapted to existing rules	4	3	2	1
73. People say hello to each other in the same way	4	3	2	1
74. Contact with the outside world is avoided	4	3	2	1
75. Relations between people of different levels are very good-natured here	4	3	2	1
76. When there are conflicting interests, it is the same people who eventually have their way	4	3	2	1
77. the only person whose opinion counts, is the boss	4	3	2	1
78. If one wants to discuss serious problems, one is seen to be a troublemaker	4	3	2	1
79. The people here are interested in their work	4	3	2	1
80. To help another who is in a tight spot, is permitted	4	3	2	1
81. Differences of opinion are talked about in a friendly way	4	3	2	1
82. Passing on information is done thoroughly	4	3	2	1

		Always	Generally	Sometimes	Never
83.	People with lots of initiative receive faster promotion	4	3	2	1
84.	The quality of work done here is checked and evaluated	4	3	2	1
85.	Discussion of serious problems is found boring and irritating	4	3	2	1
86.	One can feel free to raise complaints	4	3	2	1
87.	The people here get along well with one another	4	3	2	1
88.	The work here is boring and irritating	4	3	2	1
89.	There is resistance to abuse of power	4	3	2	1
90.	There are a lot of new ideas around here	4	3	2	1
91.	The people here work well together	4	3	2	1
92.	One has to achieve a lot before receiving acknowledgement for your work	4	3	2	1
93.	The people here bear future possibilities in mind	4	3	2	1
94.	In this organisation everyone is treated equally	4	3	2	1
95.	The organisation appreciates that its employees are involved with societies and social problems	4	3	2	1
96.	Disobedience to the rules is punished	4	3	2	1

		Always	Generally	Sometimes	Never
97.	The most important thing around here is to keep oneself amused	4	3	2	1
98.	To be thoroughly updated on requirements for the work here is appreciated	4	3	2	1
99.	The boss asks advice from his subordinates	4	3	2	1
		Everyone	Many	Some	Nobody
100. try/tries to avoid contact with senior personnel	4	3	2	1
101. indicate(s) clearly when he/they disagree(s) with the policy here	4	3	2	1
102. here are/is rated according to diligence rather than background	4	3	2	1
103. in the management treat(s) subordinates humanely	4	3	2	1
104. around here show(s) his/their feelings clearly	4	3	2	1
105. around here need(s) to be farsighted	4	3	2	1
106. in the management rate(s) the outcome of scientific research highly	4	3	2	1
107. would like to attend a lecture held by a well-known industrialist	4	3	2	1
	*read 'he' as 'he/she', 'his' as 'his/her(s)', 'him' as 'him/her' in the following questions *				
108. is/are compelled to work hard here	4	3	2	1

		Everyone	Many	Some	Nobody
109. here is/are concerned about one another	4	3	2	1
110. has/have many friends here	4	3	2	1
111. here can quickly settle a dispute	4	3	2	1
112. soon learn(s) what is allowed and what is not	4	3	2	1
113.	If there is a change in the organisation, is/are quickly informed	4	3	2	1
114.	Here attend(s) to his/her appearance	4	3	2	1
115. keep(s) his/their eyes open for an improvement here	4	3	2	1
116. feel(s) that this organisation is uninterested in the needs of the whole community	4	3	2	1
117. appreciate(s) unusual or exciting ideas	4	3	2	1
118. know(s) to whom he/they can go with exceptional matters	4	3	2	1
119. around here get(s) angry easily	4	3	2	1
120. has/have got time for each other	4	3	2	1
121. make(s) high demands on himself	4	3	2	1
122. is/are interested in intellectual activities and problems	4	3	2	1
123.	Here prize(s) frankness	4	3	2	1
124.	The same claims are made of	4	3	2	1

	Everyone	Many	Some	Nobody
125. here has/have much to say of social problems	4	3	2	1
126. Rules of courtesy are very important to	4	3	2	1
127. Rules and regulations are obeyed by	4	3	2	1
128. is/are helped to feel at home here	4	3	2	1
129. here is/are always hard at work	4	3	2	1
130. here would like to attend lectures on technical problems	4	3	2	1
131. go(es) out of his/their way to hide his/their feelings	4	3	2	1
132. The opportunity to talk to higher staff members about work is open to	4	3	2	1
133. try/tries to avoid a clash with higher staff members at all costs	4	3	2	1
134. of the senior personnel is/are to tolerant of complaints on objections	4	3	2	1
135. has/have the opportunity to gain technical information	4	3	2	1
136. here is/are serious about his/their work	4	3	2	1
137.here know(s) the rules	4	3	2	1
138. reckon(s) being dutiful to the company as an important task of this organisation	4	3	2	1

	Everyone	Many	Some	Nobody
139. Promotion is determined for by his/their diligence and efficiency	4	3	2	1
140. has/have a sense of duty towards the work	4	3	2	1
141. When there are disputes quarrel(s) violently	4	3	2	1
142. here accept(s) any decisions made by the management	4	3	2	1
143. who hold(s) something against another, will not show it	4	3	2	1
144. The work here has a personal challenge for	4	3	2	1
145. here feel(s) a part of the group	4	3	2	1
146. Here behave(s) and dress(es) similarly	4	3	2	1
147. In case of problems will ask higher staff members to explain	4	3	2	1
148. here can speak freely about everything	4	3	2	1
149. has/have a well founded opinion of things	4	3	2	1
150. has/have the motto : "myself first, and then the others"	4	3	2	1
151. Here pass(es) clear and thorough information on to the others	4	3	2	1
152. bear(s) in mind what opinions are held in the company	4	3	2	1
153. prefer(s) to dress comfortably rather than	4	3	2	1

	Everyone	Many	Some	Nobody
according to standard regulations				
154. Directives from the top are conveyed to in such a way that they can easily be put into practice in each one's work	4	3	2	1
155. who is/are newly employed, is/are immediately informed of what the rules are	4	3	2	1
156. who is/are disturbed while working, get(s) angry and flare(s) up	4	3	2	1
157. join(s) in with group activities	4	3	2	1
158. Here see(s) to himself/theirselves first	4	3	2	1
159. speaks/speak about the possibility of quitting his/their job	4	3	2	1
160. is/are convinced that he/they has/have to work hard because his/their work is important	4	3	2	1
161. around here stay(s) on the lookout for new and different methods of working	4	3	2	1
162. The ability to think logically is rated highly by	4	3	2	1
163. occasionally read(s) a bit about science and technology	4	3	2	1
164. It is seen as a shortcoming by if a person does not think ahead	4	3	2	1
165. express(es) himself/theirselves freely and spontaneously	4	3	2	1

	Everyone	Many	Some	Nobody
166. of the senior personnel is/are as willing to listen to others as he/they is/are to give orders	4	3	2	1
167. start(s) here with an equal opportunity	4	3	2	1
168. is/are in a position to show clearly if he/they is/are dissatisfied about anything	4	3	2	1
169. of the subordinates can make suggestions about the way things are done at work	4	3	2	1
170. is/are quite well informed about how the other people feel	4	3	2	1
171. reckon(s) the senior personnel to be very competent in their areas of work	4	3	2	1
172. here work(s) not only for the pay, but also for the pleasure of it	4	3	2	1
173. has/have the opportunity to chat a while	4	3	2	1
174. The regulations stipulate clearly what has/have to be done	4	3	2	1
175. What outsiders think of the business weighs a lot for	4	3	2	1
176. in the management has/have special benefits	4	3	2	1
177. who is/are brought in here, most probably has/have the right contacts	4	3	2	1
178. say(s) exactly what he/they think(s)	4	3	2	1

	Everyone	Many	Some	Nobody
179. in the top structure is/are busy planning long term goals	4	3	2	1
180. Finding solutions to intricate problems is found interesting by	4	3	2	1
181. work(s) hard and dedicatedly when there is no supervision	4	3	2	1
182. like(s) to explain things to others	4	3	2	1
183. here forget(s) minor disputes quickly	4	3	2	1
184. know(s) what he/they has/have to do all of the time	4	3	2	1
185. has/have a clearly defined function	4	3	2	1
186. Newcomers are helped to feel at home by	4	3	2	1
187. here read(s) serious magazines	4	3	2	1
188. around here take(s) other people's ideas into consideration	4	3	2	1
189. is/are spontaneous towards the management	4	3	2	1
190. dislike(s) strange clothing	4	3	2	1
191. has/have the opportunity to better his/their qualifications for his/their work	4	3	2	1
192. To demonstrate one's feelings is seen to be childish by	4	3	2	1
193. in the management	4	3	2	1

		Everyone	Many	Some	Nobody
	like(s) to bring in innovations				
194. here is/are ill-disposed and flare(s) up easily	4	3	2	1
195. here like(s) to do his/their work	4	3	2	1
196. know(s) offhand which assignment he/they will have to do	4	3	2	1
197. find(s) it a case of jobs for pals here	4	3	2	1
198. is in favour of apprenticeships and study visits being allowed here	4	3	2	1
199. ask(s) permission before departing from the usual way of doing things	4	3	2	1
200. think(s) that scientific research is necessary	4	3	2	1
201. feel(s) rather tired after work	4	3	2	1
202. has/have contact with the superiors	4	3	2	1

If you want to remark on this questionnaire, use this space :
