

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL
CLIMATE AND JOB SATISFACTION OF BLUE
COLLAR WORKERS IN SELECTED
OKLAHOMA INDUSTRIES

By

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CHAPTER I
THE RESEARCH PROBLEM
Introduction

Many studies have been conducted concerning job satisfaction in industry. Taylor's early work in scientific management, indicated that social scientists view job satisfaction as an important area for investigation (Locke, 1976). Reasons for such high level interest are as varied as the theories which try to explain the nature and causes of job satisfaction.

According to Locke, (1976, p. 1297), job satisfaction has been studied because:

1. There are those that view the activity of work as fulfilling some of man's basic needs; therefore, satisfaction in work contributes to the dignity of the individual.
2. Others hold that satisfaction in work can be linked to the work's physical and mental well-being outside the work environment.
3. Many have associated job satisfaction with increased productivity.

Katzell and Yankelovich state "under certain conditions, improving productivity will enhance worker satisfaction and improvement and job satisfaction will contribute to productivity," (1975, p. 17). Social scientists also believe that distinct relationships exist between organizational climate, job satisfaction, and productivity (LaFollette, 1975).

Climate has been perceived as having a high face validity in the work context. A person visiting an organization may easily observe the sense of immediacy experienced in the production department, while the atmosphere in research and development is much less hurried. Emphasis on procedure and protocol, personal commitment among workers, and the sense of friendliness in personal relationships are also common features experienced in a work climate.

The same environment usually elicits differing experiences by different people. For example, a small child's first day at school may seem uncertain and threatening. Other children who have been to school before, may experience excitement in the situation. "Similarly, a work place may be experienced differently by different people. It may be seen by a confident, achievement-oriented person as stimulating and rich in opportunities for growth. A more hesitant individual may perceive ambiguity and role conflict in a place of employment" (Crouch, 1982, p. 1).

Differences in behavior and satisfaction can be attributed to individual experiences of climate. Positive behavior is displayed by the achievement-oriented person who perceives an environment as motivating. An individual who displays a much more reserved behavior may perceive an environment as non-motivating. While personality is one explanation for differences in behavior of members of an organization, the actual job performed is considered a more important indicator. A manager responsible for coordinating the work of others, experiences a different level of interpersonal contact than individuals who work alone. The job coordinator has more opportunity than the lone operative to engage in casual conversation with others. In this example,

the character of the task defines the limit of opportunity for affiliative behavior (Crouch, 1982).

Relationships between worker's predisposition, tasks, perceived climate, and behavior are important issues.

The small child's first day, uncertainty is observed in his nervous and unsettled behavior. This correspondence between the atmosphere experienced and behavior occurs for the majority of novices, regardless of their personal dispositions. A similar correspondence occurs between perceptions of a situation and the feelings and emotions experienced. The small child no doubt feels most unsatisfied and unhappy, preferring the security of home to the stress and uncertainty of school (Crouch, 1982, p. 2).

Differences in behavior and satisfactions can be described in terms of patterns involving climate, role, and personal preferences. In the field of social psychology, this view originated with Lewin (1935) and Murray (1938) who described behavior as a joint outcome of personal attributes and perceived environment. Subsequent research by Lewin (Lewin, Lippitt, & White, 1939) reinforced this perspective. Early development of the concept of climate in both the organizational literature (Schneider and Bartlett, 1968, 1970; Tagiuri, 1968; Payne and Pheysey, 1971; and House and Rizzo, 1972) and in educational literature (Halpin and Crofts, 1963; Pace and Stern, 1958) is also based on this view of climate and behavior.

The early use of the term climate in the organizational literature is broad and abstract. Argyris (1958) used the term climate to represent the complex set of relationships between formal features of an organization, personal factors, and their interactions. Incorporating these three variables, Argyris developed a general discipline model of climate. McGregor (1960) and Liket (1961) both considered climate as a distinctive feature of systems of organization.

In later literature the term climate related specifically to the perceptions by organization members of their work environment (Tagiuri, 1968). Indik (1965), Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler and Weick (1970) and James and Jones (1974) examined the similarities and differences among individuals in their experience of a work environment. Two levels of analysis psychological climate and group climate were identified. Psychological climate refers to individual differences in climate perception, while group climate refers to the agreement of consensus among group members about their climate perceptions. James and Jones described psychological climate as:

. . . individual attributes, namely the intervening psychological processes whereby the individual translates the interaction between perceived organizational attributes and individual characteristics into a set of expectancies, attitudes, behaviors, etc. (1974: 1110)

Schneider (1975) and James (1978) conclude that the theory of psychological climate should be based in cognitive psychology and social learning theory. Therefore, climate perception results from an individual's effort to construct meaning in his environment. The result of this process is a frame of reference which is used to form expectancies about the individual's own behavior and the behavior of others. Individual needs and differences are important factors in the cognitive structuring of a person's environment. Differences in experiences are associated with the formal roles of group members. Furthermore, task characteristics influence the interpretation of work group climate through their effect in facilitating or restricting different kinds of behavior (Crouch, 1982). The psychological climate study conducted by Gavin and Howe (1975) showed relationships between individual climate perceptions and job satisfaction. This study also identified systema-

tic differences in climate perceptions across hierarchical levels in organizations. However, in this study as well as others, there is no prediction of the relative importance of different relationships. It is this lack of a theoretical basis for research hypotheses which results in poor specification of the relationships between psychological climate and other variables (Crouch, 1982).

Statement of the Problem

There is a lack of information concerning the job satisfaction of blue collar workers as it relates to the organizational climate in selected Oklahoma industries.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between job satisfaction of blue-collar workers and perceived organizational climate of selected Oklahoma industries. Further, the study was designed to determine whether or not differences exist between overall satisfaction of blue-collar workers in selected Oklahoma industries; and that these differences are related to the differences in organizational climate of these industries.

Need for the Study

The fact that the social climate - the socio-psychological aspects of work environment influences worker's satisfaction and productivity was recognized following the Hawthorne studies. As the women in the relay assembly study were provided with opportunities to participate in the decision-making process and personalized supervision, they developed

a team spirit and this resulted in increased production and positive attitude development (Roethlisberger and Dickson, 1939).

Job satisfaction was originally perceived as a direct result of the amount of money received by the employee for his work which, in turn, determined his productivity level (Taylor, 1911). As a result of the human relations movement of the late 1920's and early 1930's and the Hawthorne studies, the emphasis on pay diminished and a variety of societal and organizational factors came into play.

A review of literature by Brayfield and Crockett (1955) indicates that authorities vary widely in their theoretical approach, but there are a number of points on which they are agreeable. For decades, theorists assumed that a high job satisfaction was predictive of greater work productivity. Research has consistently supported Brayfield and Crockett, who found no significant direct relationship between job satisfaction and higher productivity (1955). However, that low job satisfaction does have an indirect effect on organizational productivity through higher turnover rate and absenteeism was indicated in the Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson and Capwell study (Herzberg, et al., 1957).

Locke (1976) in an extensive review of literature on "the consequences of job satisfaction" states that:

Job satisfaction, itself or in combination with the conditions (both in the individual and the job environment) which bring it about, has a variety of consequences for the individual. It can affect his attitude toward life, toward his family, and toward himself. It can affect his physical health and possibly how long he lives. It may be related (indirectly) to mental health and adjustment, and play a causal role in absenteeism and turnover. Under certain conditions, it may also affect other types of on-the-job behavior as well (p. 1334).

Locke discussed a number of research studies which support his summary

statement. For him one's satisfaction can be an important element in determining his overall life satisfaction--family and other off-the-job satisfactions, how an individual views himself, physical health, mental health, absenteeism, and turnover rate, etc.

New research results have not diverted attention from the issue of the effect of satisfaction on production. Lawer (1973) sees satisfaction as "one measure of the quality of life in organizations." Lawer suggests that even if no relationship exists between job satisfaction and productivity, job satisfaction still needs to be studied "because it portrays the quality of working life," (p. 233-237).

This previous statement comes even more important when we realize that each individual spends a major portion of his life at work. Work is an avenue of contact with other individuals and the society at large. Work has a real influence on self-esteem, self-identity, and self-concept (Jahanshahi, 1985). According to the book Work in America, work plays a pervasive and powerful role in the psychological, social and economic aspects of our lives" (U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1972, p. 2).

Different scholars have different views regarding work. For instance, Sayles (1966) reported that a person's work is the most important activity in his or her life and that people who do not have satisfying jobs rarely have satisfying lives, while to Lofquist and Davis "work is the single situation most capable of providing some satisfaction of all levels of needs" (1969, p. 11). Kasl also stated that "in modern American society, work is described as having certain universal functions: it provides money, regulates life activity, offers status or social identification, permits association with

others, and makes available a meaningful life experience" (1977, p. 85).

Research Questions

The research questions for this investigation were:

Question 1: To what degree are blue-collar workers in industry satisfied with various aspects of their jobs?

Question 2: Is there a difference between overall satisfaction of blue-collar workers in different industries with regard to the size of the organization?

Question 3: What differences are there between the organizational climate of small and large industries as it is perceived by blue-collar workers in these organizations?

Question 4: What are the effects of different demographic variables (age of respondents, their sex, level of income, level of education, length of service in present industry, length of industrial experience, and size of industry) on the relationship between satisfaction and organizational climate.

Limitations of the Study

The population for this study was selected from 88 industries located in the state of Oklahoma. These industries employ between 100-250 blue collar workers in union and non-union shops. Any generalization beyond this population must be cautioned. The finding of this study may or may not be applicable to a like sample in a different setting.

As in any study dealing with the attitudes of the respondents,

there is always a risk of inconsistency between reported attitudes and the actual ones. The reader should keep this in mind when considering the results of this study, since many of the questions deal with the matter of attitudes and the personal opinions of the respondents.

Definition of Selected Terms

Blue-collar workers: "Production, maintenance and service workers, whether they are skilled, semi-skilled, or unskilled. Craftsmen, foremen, operators, service workers (except for private household workers), farm laborers, foremen and other laborers are generally considered blue-collar workers" (Greenwald & Associates, 1973, p. 55).

Job Satisfaction: "A pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (Locke, 1979, p. 1300).

Organizational Climate: Litwin and Stringer define organizational climate as "a set of measurable properties of work environment, perceived directly or indirectly by the people who live and work in this environment and assumed to influence their motivation and behavior" (1968, p. 188).

Productivity: "A measurement of the efficiency of production; a ratio of output to input" (Rosenberg, 1983, p. 59).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

Today's work force lives in a world made smaller by the communication explosion. It is better trained and educated, more aware, more sophisticated, and certainly less dependent and submissive than its predecessors. It is indeed, a new work force, and administrators have come to realize that many once tried and true methods of managing human resources no longer are effective or even "relevant" to use a favorite word of the new generation (Rosenbaum, 1982).

When there were few jobs to be had, man would work under almost any conditions. When there were inadequate provisions for job security, the work force formed a union. When business evolved from a purely economic institution into a social institution, the worker became the recipient of pensions, paid vacations, insurance packages, and other so called fringe benefits. All these were aimed at increasing employee motivation, productivity and satisfaction (Spitzer, 1980).

Satisfaction with one's work is a worthwhile goal in American society. This concept is supported by the fact that many studies have been conducted in the area of job satisfaction, mostly among business and industry. Employee satisfaction in any organization is considered

to be an important part of how that organization functions (Russell, Lankford, and Grinnel, 1981). Locke (1976) states two reasons why job satisfaction is an important consideration.

1. It can be viewed as an end in itself, since happiness, after all, is the goal of life.

2. It can be studied because it contributes to other attitudes and outcomes (p. 1328).

It was soon noted that the job satisfaction concept was useful in non-industrial settings as well as industrial settings and business. This is because of the universality of basic human characteristics. Yet, for all their basic similarity, persons react quite differently to seemingly identical situations. Some persons clearly thrive on challenge; others quit their jobs for apparently little or no reason. This is true not only of the industrial setting; it is also true of professional settings as well (Meeker, 1983).

A job is a complex interrelationship of tasks, responsibilities, interactions, incentives and rewards (Locke, 1976). According to Wilson (1976), a "good manager is an enabler of human resources" (p. 25). In his later article, Wilson (1981) stated that one of the keys to getting the highest level of creativity and productivity from employees is the "permission to be the best that we can be in the work that we do" (p. 13). With having information regarding employee satisfaction, the manager must be able to make sound decisions in regard with necessary changes in the job situation that will help employees to do their work and ultimately lead to greater organizational effectiveness.

Definition of Job Satisfaction

The definition of the concept of job satisfaction should begin with an identification of its roots. Since satisfaction is an emotional response, the meaning of the concept can only be discovered and grasped by a process of introspection, that is an act of conceptual identification directed one's mental contents and process (Locke, 1976). To him job satisfaction is "as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (Locke, 1976, p. 1300). Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969) in reviewing researches in regard with definition of job satisfaction stated that "job satisfactions are feelings, or affective responses to facets of the situation" (p. 6). It seems the two key concepts in both definitions are the job and feeling.

To Davidson, Suppes and Siegel (1957); and Vroom (1964), job satisfaction is a function of the strength of the needs of a person and the extent to which these needs are fulfilled. This concept may be expressed as follows:

$$\text{Job satisfaction} = F \begin{array}{l} \text{strength} \\ \text{of needs} \end{array} - \begin{array}{l} \text{need fulfillment} \\ \text{on the job} \end{array}$$

According to Wofford (1967) job satisfaction is the overall attitude of well-being with regard to the job and its environment. Need strength is the degree of tendency to respond so as to attain fulfillment from the stimuli confronting the person. Categories of needs may be established in accord with the types of stimuli in the environment. Security and maintenance, order and structure, personal interaction, achievement, personal enhancement, and group achievement. The latter three need categories are at the upper level and the first three are at

the lower level in Maslow's hierarchical arrangement. This concept of job satisfaction is in accord with definition by Guion (1958). He views job satisfaction as "the extent to which the individuals needs are satisfied and the extent to which the individual perceives that satisfaction as stemming from his total job situation" (p. 62). Although there is wide disagreement on conceptual and operational definitions of job satisfaction, while there is a common agreement that it is the "affective feeling" toward job, which is experienced by an individual during the course of his employment (Jahanshahi, 1985).

Job Satisfaction Theories

Several basic psychological theories have been brought forward during the past decades regarding job satisfaction and how it effects employees and employers. Job satisfaction theories can be divided in two categories (Compell et al., 1970), content theories and process theories. The author intended to explore and discuss two content theories of job satisfaction and some criticisms directed toward these theories.

Content theories "attempt to specify the particular needs that must be satisfied or the values that must be attained for an individual to be satisfied with his job" (Locke, 1976, p. 1307). Two major theories are presented in the following manner, first Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory and second, Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory.

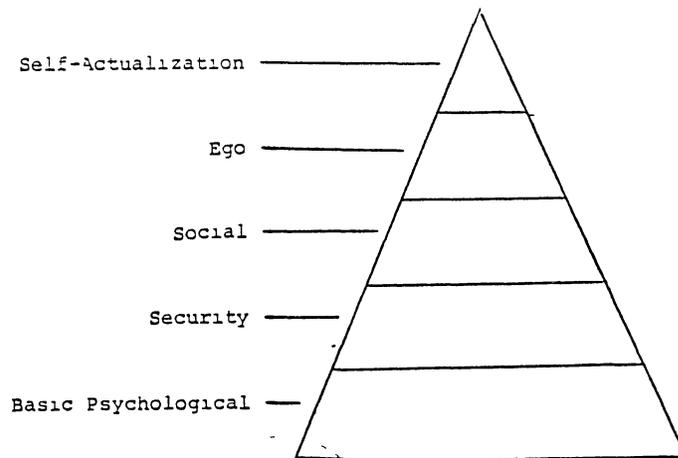
Hierarchy of Needs Theory

Maslow theorized that experienced needs are the primary influences on an individual's behavior. When a particular need emerges, it

determines the individual's behavior of motivations, priorities and action taken. Thus motivated behavior is the result of the tension, either pleasant or unpleasant, experienced when a need presents itself. The goal of the behavior is the reduction of this tension or discomfort and the behavior, itself, will be appropriate for facilitating the satisfaction of the need. Only unsatisfied needs are prime sources of motivation (Maslow, 1973).

Understanding behaviors and their goals involves gaining insight into presently unsatisfied needs. Maslow developed a method for gaining insight by providing categories of needs in a hierarchical structure. He placed all human needs, from primitive or immature (in terms of the behaviors they foster) to civilized or mature needs, into five need systems. He believed that there is a natural process whereby individuals fulfilled needs in ascending order from most immature to most mature. This progression through the need hierarchy is seen as climbing of a ladder where the individual must have experienced secure footing on the first rung in order to experience the need to step up to the next higher rung (Locke, 1976). He continues that the awareness of the need to climb further up the ladder is a function of having fulfilled the need of managing the proceeding rung, and only satisfactory fulfillment of this need will allow the individual to deal with the new need or rung. According to Maslow the inability to fulfill a lower-order need or difficulty in fulfilling a lower-order need may result in an individual's locking in on immature behavior patterns or may produce a tendency to return to immature behavior under stress any time an individual feels a lower-order need not fulfilled to his satisfaction. The individual may also revert to behaviors which fulfilled lower-order

needs when the satisfaction of higher needs are temporarily blocked (1943). This is not to say that any need is ever completely satisfied; rather Maslow indicates that there must be at least partial fulfillment before an individual can become aware of the tensions manifested by a higher-order need and have the freedom to pursue its fulfillment (Locke, 1976).



The Maslow need hierarchy is presented in the illustration above. The basic level represents needs which reflect physiological and survival goals. At this level are such factors as shelter, clothing, food, sex, and other necessities. In a culture like the United States of America where these basic needs are almost automatically met, there is not likely to be any need tension concerning the fulfillment of basic needs. However, individuals adapt this basic level upward to include such needs as avoidance of physical discomfort, pleasant working environment, or more money for providing creature comforts.

The second level of the hierarchy consists of safety needs. When the individual has at least partially fulfilled the basic needs, he will experience the tensions relating to needs of security. These needs are often satisfied by an adequate salary, insurance policies and

so on. When safety needs have been met, the individual will become less preoccupied with self and will endeavor to form interpersonal relationships. The relative success of this need for belongingness will result in his feeling accepted and appreciated by others. Thus the third level of needs concern family ties, friendship and group membership.

When an individual feels secure in his relationship with others, he will probably seek to gain special status within the group. His need tension will be associated with ambition and a desire to excel. These ego status needs will motivate the individual to seek out opportunities to display his competence in an effort to gain social and professional rewards.

Because ego-status fulfillment is greatly dependent upon the ability of others to respond appropriately to the individual's efforts to perform in a superior way, they are the most difficult to fulfill satisfactorily. However if the individual has gained satisfaction on level four, he may be able to move up to level five - self actualization. At this level, the individual is concerned with personal growth and may fulfill this need by challenging himself to become more creative, demanding greater achievement of himself, and in general, directing himself to measure up to his own criteria of personal success. Self-actualizing behaviors must include risk-taking, seeking autonomy, and developing freedom to act. The above five levels of the Maslow . Need Hierarchy were borrowed from (Dunathan & Saluzzi, 1980).

Maslow's need hierarchy theory has received very little empirical support particularly among practicing managers. Many studies have identified that self actualization and ego, the highest need categories on the scale, were the most important and the most lacking fulfillment

in many areas of management (Porter, 1962). Many years later studies also suggest that size of the company, cultural background of the employee, person's age or race, and the job a person performs in the organization can make a difference in the relative importance of each level of needs and how they are fulfilled (Hellriegel et al., 1983). Studies which have been conducted by (Porter, 1961, 1962 and Porter and Lawler, 1968) provided indirect support for Maslow's position. Upper level needs were found to be stronger for higher occupational groups, while lower level needs were found to be more important for blue-collar workers.

Two-Factor Theory

A second major content theory is Herzberg's Two Factor Theory (Herzberg, 1967). In this study 200 engineers and accountants were interviewed. The subjects were asked to describe an event or time when they felt particularly bad or dissatisfied with the job. The results of studies identified two sets of job factors which were known as "Intrinsic and Extrinsic" Factors.

1. "Intrinsic Factors" were those factors that lead to satisfaction including the work itself, responsibilities, achievement, and advancement. These factors also were known as "motivators". The motivators were related to the content of the work.

2. "Extrinsic Factors" were those factors that lead to dissatisfaction including company policy and administration, interpersonal relations, working conditions, and technical supervision. These were also called "hygienes". The hygienes were related to the environment and more structured company policy (Herzberg, 1968).

Herzberg (1968, p. 57) categorized several common factors that were related to satisfaction.

The hygiene factors were:

- company policy and administration
- supervision
- relationship with supervisor
- work conditions
- salary
- relationship with peers
- personal life
- relationship with subordinates
- status
- security

The motivators were:

- achievement
- recognition
- work itself
- responsibility
- advancement
- growth

Herzberg uses the term "hygiene factors" to isolate aspects of a job which prevent or promote dissatisfaction but do not yield satisfaction. This includes company policy, pay, job security, and working conditions. As an example, Herzberg says fringe benefits: workers grumble if they don't have fringe benefits, but the existence of benefits does not in itself produce motivation (Rosenbaum, 1982).

According to Rosenbaum (1982) factors that produce motivation are achievement, recognition, advancement, responsibility, and interesting work. Achievement includes the successful completion of a job, finding solutions to problems, and seeing the results of one's work. Recognition is a feeling of personal accomplishment with a completed task; advancement refers to promotion; responsibility is a worker's control over his or her job, including the ability to perform without supervision; and interesting work includes variety as opposed to routine, creativity as opposed to stultification, and challenge as opposed to repetitiveness. The last category is especially important for it concerns the actual content of the job and its impact on the employee: whether a person spends 8 hours of a day feeling bored or feeling worthwhile is surely a fundamental factor in determining motivation.

He believes part of the inspiration for Herzberg's theory clearly comes from Maslow and his hierarchy of needs: Herzberg's "motivators" - those factors which give the employee a sense of pride and accomplishment correspond with Maslow's "higher" needs, while the hygiene factors are equivalent to Maslow's lower-order needs for safety and survival. Thus the hygiene factors are important and must be adequately provided if the person is to transcend them and experience higher levels of "motivation" and "self-actualization" (Rosenbaum, 1982).

Of the two content theories presented here, Maslow's need hierarchy have been studied very little. Herzberg's two-factor theory, while intuitively appealing and eagerly accepted by many practitioners, has suffered a great deal of criticism for certain weaknesses in the methods used in its research (Jahanshahi, 1985). Failure to reproduce the findings with different research methods is one such criticism

(Reitz, 1977). Researchers and practitioners have become quite skeptical of the notion that certain factors are capable of affecting only job satisfaction, while only a limited number of other factors are capable of affecting motivation and effort (Locke, 1976). Many are particularly critical of the proposition that salary or money is incapable of affecting motivation or performance. There is much evidence that money is capable of energizing and directing a wide variety of human behavior, largely because it can be used to satisfy a wide variety of human needs (Schneider & Locke, 1971).

A further problem with this theory according to Rosenbaum is that it is too simplistic, it overlooks individual differences. To say that people at work are capable of being motivated only by achievement, recognition, advancement, responsibility, growth, and the job itself is to ignore the wide range of individual differences which are found in any organization. While "motivators" may be very rewarding to many people, there are nevertheless many others who, because of their experience or state, respond strongly to improvement in "hygiene" factors such as money, status, and working conditions (1982).

Dunnette, Campbell, and Hakel have brought forward the most negative summary of the evidence against the two-factor theory (1967).

According to them:

It seems that the evidence is now sufficient to lay the two-factor theory to rest, and we hope that it may be buried peaceably. We believe that it is important that this be done so that researchers will address themselves to studying the full complexities of human motivation, rather than continuing to allow the direction of motivational research on actual administrative decisions dictated by the seductive simplicity of two-factor theory (p. 173).

This criticism has been rejected by a majority of researchers. Sergiovanni (1967), for instance in a study of 71 teachers, found

strong support for the theory. In general, there are those who reject the validity of this theory (Young & Davis, 1983; Graen, 1968; Medwed, 1971), and there are those who accept it in its totality (Burr, 1980; Holdaway, 1978; Wozniak, 1973). Another group of researchers has found mixed results in their testing of the two-factor theory (Cohen, 1974; Schmidt, 1976). The two above paragraphs have been borrowed from (Jahanshahi, 1985).

Two more critics of Herzberg two-factor theory were Graen and Hulin. They found in their study that the variables classified as satisfiers (work itself and promotion) showed significant relationships on satisfaction and on dissatisfaction. In addition, those variables classified as dissatisfiers (co-workers, supervision and salary) showed significant relationships on satisfaction and not on dissatisfaction (1968).

Graen and Hulin proposed:

The results clearly disconfirm predictions of the two-factor theory. The findings that "satisfier" variables (work itself and promotion) contribute to both satisfaction and dissatisfaction and that "dissatisfier" variables (co-workers, supervision, and salary) contribute to satisfaction and not dissatisfaction are incompatible with the two-factor theory. The results of this study must be viewed as damaging to the two-factor theory and as supporting the traditional theory (1968 p. 341-2).

The traditional approach of theory, as cited by Graen and Hulin, is based upon the premise that "if a variable in the work situation leads to satisfaction, then its absence will lead to job dissatisfaction and vice-versa" (Ewen, 1964, p. 161). The traditional theory also hypothesizes that if job variables are categorized corresponding to the two-factor theory, both satisfiers and motivators contribute over the entire continuum of overall job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction.

The theory further accounts for the differences in overall satisfaction, dissatisfaction between satisfiers and dissatisfiers by proposing that intrinsic variables are related more strongly to overall satisfaction - dissatisfaction than are extrinsic variables and that the differences are more a matter of potency than a matter of directionality (Graen & Hulin, 1968).

The two previously discussed theories brought forward by Maslow, and Herzberg have had a measurable effect on the interest and concern for job satisfaction throughout the world. It is the purpose of the rest of this effort to review the literature in job satisfaction as it relates to society, the employer, the employee and industry in particular.

Job Satisfaction and Job Itself

One of the most important tasks with which an individual will be confronted will be establishing himself in an occupation. In American society, one's occupation is a major factor in shaping the self concept as well as determining one's level of living and prestige in the community.

"Work is important to people - though mankind has always worked for economic and social reasons only recently has job satisfaction been investigated in a systematic way" (Faris, 1976, p. 1). Research conducted by the U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare resulted in a book entitled, *Work in America* (U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1972, p. 2). *Work in America* stated, "work plays a pervasive and powerful role in the psychological, social and economic aspects of our lives."

Sayles (1966) concluded that a person's work is the most important activity in his/her life and that people who do not have satisfying jobs rarely have satisfying lives. The importance of work in American culture emphasized by Lofquist and Davis "work is the single situation most capable of providing some satisfaction of all levels of needs" (1969 p. 11).

Continuing the review of literature regarding the importance of job satisfaction in general terms, and job satisfaction in relation to the job itself, there is also considerable literature dealing with the consequences of job dissatisfaction. Barbash (1976) has reported his study regarding to the consequences of job dissatisfaction in this manner:

The concerns of the commentary hold that there is a serious problem of job satisfaction ... many workers at all occupational levels feel locked in, their mobility blocked, the opportunity to grow lacking in their jobs, challenge missing from their task ... people show their dissatisfaction in complaints and formal grievances, in industrial disputes, in absences and unpunctuality, in a fairly widespread lack of full commitment in work and in a very small minority of cases, incalculable that no work or intermittent work would be preferable to continuous employment of the kind offered (p. 12).

The relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover have been reported by Brayfield and Crockett (1955), Herzberg et al. (1957), Vroom (1964), Schuh (1967), and Lawler (1973). These studies reported a negative correlation between job satisfaction and turnover. Waters and Roach (1971, 1973) also conducted such studies. They concluded that overall satisfaction was a predictor of both permanent and temporary forms of withdrawal from the work situation. However, pay, integration, formal communication, instrumental communication, centralization, routinization, and opportunities are all factors which may

influence job turnover rates.

Temporary absence from work can also be negatively correlated to satisfaction. Vroom (1964) pointed out that:

Workers who are highly attracted to their job should be subject to stronger forces to remain in them than those who are less attracted to their jobs. These stronger forces to remain should be reflected in a lower probability of behaviors which take the person out of his job, both permanently and temporarily. (p. 187)

Morgan and Herman (1976) and Smith (1977) support the idea that poor health, family responsibilities, transportation difficulties may influence an employee's decision to attend work. However Steers and Rhodes (1978) found job satisfaction as the major influence on absenteeism. Other factors which may influence attendance motivation are:

- 1) economic and market conditions
- 2) incentive/reward system
- 3) work group norms
- 4) personal work ethics
- 5) organizational commitment

Another factor which negatively correlated with job satisfaction is employee health (both physical and mental). Jenkins (1971) reported several studies which link job stress, conflict and boredom with cardiovascular disease. Kornhauser (1965) studied the mental health of workers in a large automobile manufacturing company. Parameters for the study included: tension, self esteem, hostility, sociability, life satisfaction, and moral. Results of the study indicated a consistent relationship of overall mental health to job satisfaction.

Outside factors which may influence job satisfaction are life satisfaction, drug use, and counter productive behavior. Drug use and counter productive behavior may lead to complaints, grievances and

sabotage as expressions of job dissatisfaction (Reitz 1981). The importance of work may provide an explanation to why job dissatisfaction has a negative affect on the individual employee and employer.

Fishbein's (1977) theory accepts the idea that a person's behavior is a function of two basic determinants: (1) attitude toward the performing behavior and (2) a subjective norm regarding the behavior. An attitude toward job can be either positive or negative and can be reflected in a work's behavior. Positive workers view themselves as open, well-liked, and needed. Negative workers may find communication with others extremely difficult. This may result in self-isolation, either voluntary or involuntary (Mitchell, 1977).

Exton (1972) also reported in regard with possible effect of alienated people in a work force. He identified that substantially alienated people often seek recourse by withdrawing or by exhibiting hostility. According to Exton, withdrawing all but a minimum effort to meet basic job requirements is a technique often employed by alienated workers.

Alienation From Work

Marx's theory of human nature viewed labor as man's essential or unique social activities (Axelos 1976). He saw humanity as a self-defining historical phenomenon resulting from productive activities, this was affirmed by Plasek (1943) who said "by means of a process of Praxis, mankind simultaneously engages the creation of himself and of his world while performing productive activities" (p. 317). It was Marx's contention that bureaucracy in the work situation was inconsistent with human nature. Work, he noted, is man's own alienation

contradicting Hegel's concept of work. Marx offered his own interpretation and in the process crossed from metaphysics and the phenomenology of mind to historical physics and political economy (Marx, 1977).

Koplen stated that Marx's criticism of Hegel lies in the latter's concept of labor as the essence of man. Because Hegel regards labor as man's essence in the act of providing itself, he sees only the positive side of and not negative aspect. This is the crux of Marx's disagreement with Hegel.

Marx observed that when workers have little control over what they produce or the conditions under which they produce things, they become alienated. Since their products are directed from outside themselves and since they are themselves merely instruments, workers have difficulty in identifying their products with themselves. "A key factor in worker alienation is the worker's powerlessness in the face of the industrial organization that governs production" (Klinger, 1977, p. 209). Following this line of thought Marx concludes that "the life which a worker gives to his product opposes him as something alien" (Marx, 1977, p. 79).

Feuerlicht (1978) says that Marx's explanation of alienation from nature is not based on logical or psychological grounds. He believes that workers must experience that part of the outside world which is not the product of his work. Feuerlicht (1978, p. 131) says "that is the whole, rather than merely a part". In contrast to the hated work, it may be viewed as a relief. He claims that exploited workers constitute an extreme case and should not be used to justify the alienation of all alienated labor. It also has been said that the alternatives of socialism or communism, presented by Marx cannot solve the problem of

work alienation (Althusser, 1969; Petrovic, 1967; Fromm, 1962).

However, Marx was not alone in denouncing the alienating and dehumanizing effect of industrial work. The socio-psychological effect of the industrial revolution were obvious and widespread. Mass production, degrading labor conditions, and the use of increasingly complicated machines and methods influenced the feeling, thinking, and living of millions. Swados (1962) states that majority of the work before the industrial revolution was uncreative and undignified as well. The Egyptian slaves, the Roman galley slaves and the Russian serfs hardly expressed creativity in their work, nor showed any of their potential. Swados maintained that work had been historically a bitter experience with men, women, children and old people groaned under the burden of work for thousands of years. Swados states: in fields and woods, on mountains and on the seas, in houses and in caves...in kitchens and in factories,

people had suffered day and night, they sweated and cried, sickness, injury and early death or violent death were frequent fruits of their labor. This work was mindless, endless stupefying, sweaty, filthy, noisy, exhausting and insecure in its prospects and particularly without hope of advancement (1962, p. 111).

In modern times, work has continued its dehumanizing function. According to Keniston (1965, pp. 255-256): "Meaningful Work," "Joy in Work," and "Fulfillment Through work" have become old-fashioned and quaint, because the most important parts of workers personalities; their hopes, feelings, aspirations and dreams are systematically ignored in work. Mills also states that "alienation in work means boredom and the frustration of potentially creative efforts, of the productive sides of personality" (1953, p. 225). Work alienation affects not only blue-collar workers but, all occupational levels including managers.

Evidence of worker's discontent as a result of dehumanization include mental and physical sickness, low productivity, increasing absenteeism, wildcat strikes, industrial sabotage, and high job turnover rates.

"The growing dissatisfaction with work also leads to drug abuse, alcohol addiction, and delinquency" (Work in America, 1973: XVI, pp. 22, 30-31, 40; Hulin and Blood, 1968; David and Taylor, 1972; Walton, 1972).

Intrinsic engagement as a vital feature of acceptable work is the foundation for some suggested solutions to this estrangement (Blauner, 1964; Turner and Lawrence, 1965; Herzberg, 1966). They are agreed that the work place must provide the worker with (a) tasks that are more self-fulfilling and self-respecting, and (b) a greater latitude of exercising personal control over the work itself. Experts recognize that the above values are becoming more widespread and intensely held, especially among younger workers (Aronowitz, 1973). Without self-fulfilling jobs and personal control over their work, workers feel disrespect and impotence on the job, feelings which generalize to self family, social experiences, political participation, and other phases of life (Sheppard and Heeick, 1972).

The previous investigations cited to support these propositions are not precise. Sennet and Cobb (1972) made attempts to examine the worker's attitudes toward work. They concluded there should be a low emphasis on control at work, denial of self-respect, importance of intrinsic satisfaction and symbolic rewards. Seeman (1976) stated that although the analysis appears reasonable and sophisticated, it is doubtful how much of that analysis is imposed from outside through subtle interpretation. Scholars' commitment to humanized work may color their visions of the requirements of empirical evidence.

The source of trouble arises from the failure to maintain some of the necessary distinctions. Alienated labor has two potential sources of trouble: (1) the absence of intrinsic fulfillment in the work, and (2) the lack of control at work. Singer (1970) maintains that discontent in the work place causes the French 1968 explosion, while Seeman (1972) indicates that the lack of intrinsic fulfillment in work was the cause. Goldthrope et al., (1968), contend that expectations concerning intrinsic rewards are not as important as economic goals in worker's attachment to job, and that the instrumental attitude appears to function reasonably well in their study of British workers. Ducan and Schuman (1973) have cited counter evidence from the strikes at Luton, Lord Stown (Ohio) and Fiat (Italy). They indicate an increasing tilt toward intrinsic work vs. control aspirations are involved. Ducker (1973) states that the researchers have regularly confused the intrinsic rewards and control demands. A part of the trouble lies in the fact that these two features are more difficult to separate empirically than conceptually. Decharms (1968) proposes that in fact the two are intimately tied: to experience personal causation is to be intrinsically motivated. Kohn and Schooler (1973) contend that occupational self-direction greatly influence self-esteem, leisure use, and other elements of psychological functioning. However, apparent the mixture of external control and the work itself results in limited generalization on either concept.

If the emphasis is on the control element, work alienation might be properly seen as another aspect of the powerlessness component of alienation. Thus, the "worker's control" movement in Yugoslavia has been identified with the problem of alienated labor, concentrated on

effecting an increased degree of worker management of the enterprise rather than on substantial redirection of the work itself (Hunnis, Garson and Case, 1973). The degree that the movement is directed at the problems of powerlessness is no guarantee of improvement in the worker's attitudes about the nature of the work itself or about life outside the plant (Obradovic, 1970; Whitehorn, 1974). The term self-estrangement is generally characterized as the loss of intrinsic meaning or pride in work. It becomes the view of the self-estranged that he/she is without the ability to find activities in which he/she considers self-rewarding.

It has been suggested that work alienation can be reduced if workers participate in different phases of production, train for other jobs, assume more responsibility and autonomy (Work in America, 1973). To some extent, the proposals made in Work in America are also in line with the theory of young Karl Marx, "who saw in the division of labor and in private property the causes of alienation" (Feuelicht, 1978, p. 142). If work does not do justice to the creative potentials of the individual (alienating), it is not done for its own sake and it is not considered rewarding in itself. Seeman speaks of the inability of people to find a self-rewarding activity. "The worker who only works for his salary, the housewife who only cooks to get it over with, the man who only acts because of the impression he makes on others are examples of self alienation" (Seeman, 1959, p. 790). Goodman (1970) argues that there is no end to common sense and self-respect if people go through motions and do not make sense to them and do not have their allegiance just for wages or other extrinsic rewards.

Work may gain another kind of meaning in place of that lost.

Morse and Weiss (1955) contend that work may satisfy a pride of craft or creativity, not only for artists or craftsmen, but for any workers who take pride in doing good work, whether it be carpentry, stonemasonry, or driving a bus. Paletussing (1973) reminds us that the job produces a product in which the worker takes pride, even if his own role may be restricted. Perhaps the crucial point in Marx's view of worker alienation is that industrial workers have lost control over their work. Research results indicate that power and control do indeed play an important role in work alienation. Those workers who hold highly structured, tightly controlled jobs express more alienation than those who have more control over their job, and work dissatisfaction was practically nonexistent among the self-employed. Blauner (1964) found that the automobile assembly line intensified "all dimensions of alienation." He states:

Thus in this extreme situation a depersonalized worker, estranged from himself and larger collectives, goes through the motions of work in the regimented milieu of the conveyor belt for the sole purpose of earning his break (p. 82).

In this context, many other examples of work alienation can be identified. Kornhauser's (1965) conducted a study regarding the mental health of automobile workers in Detroit. He found that there is a relationship between optimum mental health and the amount of skill required in the job; that is, the more skill required and the greater the opportunities for its exercise, the "better" the health of the workers. Yet Seeman (1967) reported that manual workers in a Swedish city are not alienated in the sense of powerlessness, and that this may have something to do with the conditions of life apart from the job in such a society.

Although power and control play a significant role in the worker's

satisfaction or alienation in their jobs, the relevant factors are probably not power and control in and for themselves. Power is important, it enables workers to design their work to be as satisfying as possible. Workers who most believe in the validity and importance of authority relationships are far less alienated by highly structured and closely supervised jobs (Pearlin, 1962; Sheppard and Herick, 1972). In general it has been indicated that control over one's work is only one feature of work. The factors that produce satisfaction or alienation at work vary from one individual to another, depending on his or her values (Mobley and Locke, 1970). Although incentives can affect job satisfaction (Sheppard and Herick, 1972; Porter and Steer, 1973), it has been revealed that the important factor here is not the worker's objective pay level but, how well his or her pay compares with expectation, (Pearlin 1962; Porter and Steers, 1983). However workers who do not expect to be promoted tend not to desire promotion, while those who do expect promotion desire it (Hahn, 1975). It has been reported that the threat of being without income was unnecessary to motivate workers to work (Klinge, 1977). It has been suggested that of these various job facets, the one most closely correlated with overall job satisfaction is being "given a chance to do the things I do best," followed by "interesting work"; "good pay" and "opportunity to develop my special abilities" (Sheppard and Herick, 1972, p. 12). The data indicated that workers expect self fulfillment, stimulation and personal growth from their jobs. These factors are as important as wages and security. This situation can become more evident particularly at the level of the professional. Scientists who feel that their company restricts their choice of research projects actually encourages alienation from their work (Mille, 1967).

Job Satisfaction and Demographics

Sex

Differences in morale between men and women employed in industry, business, and the professional are of growing importance in a country in which women make up an increasingly large proportion of the working population (Herzberg et al. 1957). One of the primary factors frequently studied regarding job satisfaction in the sex of individuals and the role in the job market in which that person sees himself or herself (More, 1982). However, the studies comparing men and women in job satisfaction do not lead to any simple conclusions about such differences (Herzberg et al. 1957).

Herzberg and his associates has reported twenty-one studies in regard with this problem. In six of these, women were shown to be more satisfied than men; in three, women are less satisfied than men; and in five no differences between men and women emerge. Five other studies have no data comparing men and women, but they report surveys of women's job attitudes in which morale was found to be high (1957).

In general, the findings on the relationship between job satisfaction and sex are inconsistent and clearly the research results do not permit any very firm conclusion (Grunebeg, 1979). For instance one study, which investigated women's attitudes toward their jobs from 1967 to 1972, reported the following results.

1. Little support was found for the contention that levels of job satisfaction were very low among working women in their thirties and forties.

2. Black women were less well-satisfied with their jobs than

white women and reports of high job satisfaction declined considerably between 1967 and 1972.

3. Women were most satisfied with the "intrinsic" aspect as it relates to content of the job.

4. Women were interested in the socio-emotional aspects of the job, such as the quality of interpersonal relationships with co-workers, subordinates, clients, and supervisor (More quoted Quinn et al., 1982).

Hulin and Smith in their study found that females are likely to be paid differently, have different opportunities for promotion and have different levels of job. They suggested if these differences were changed then females might well be as satisfied as males. In general they reported that females were less satisfied with their job than males (1964).

According to Gruneberg, job satisfaction depends on the extent to which the job is able to provide employees with what he wants. Changing promotional opportunities and job level are unlikely to affect females. Job satisfaction if it does not result in changes in what females want from their jobs. For women who work for social reasons, for instance, making a job more demanding might mean less opportunity for the kind of social contact they find rewarding (1979). However the inconsistencies in findings on sex and job satisfaction may be due to a variety of factors. Gruneberg (1979) argued that males and females are likely different in job level, promotion prospects, pay, and so on, in the same organization. In different occupations, they may differ in the extent to which the same job satisfies their needs. He concluded that a job high on social satisfaction but low on skill utilization and

career prospects may result in higher job satisfaction for females than for males, where as in occupations allowing little cope for relationships, the differences in satisfaction might be in the opposite direction.

A recent study which was done by (Keaven et al.) in regard with the differences between the job satisfaction of males and females, reported that generally no observable differences in overall job satisfaction of males or females, but they found some factors which are important to note.

1. Dissatisfaction with pay was significantly greater among women.
2. Dissatisfaction with travel was significantly greater among men.
3. Notions that females are primarily concerned about pay and less concerned about advancement and skill utilization are not supported (More quoted Keaveny et al., 1982).

...However Grunberg (1979) stated that it is important to take care when making generalizations on the basis of present research findings. Some researchers have argued that females are less appropriate occupants of managerial positions because of their different work attitudes. In view of inconsistency of the present research, of changes in social values associated with women working, and of large individual differences in work values, such an attitude is unwarranted (p. 95).

He continued that the research findings reapproved what has been noted earlier; it means that not everyone has the same expectation from a work situation and different groups have different work attitudes.

Age and Length of Service

Herzberg and his associates have conducted a study on the rela-

tionshp between job satisfaction and age. The general finding reported by Herzberg et al. (1957) reveals that job satisfaction begins high, declines, and then starts to improve again with increasing age. The general finding also reported by Quinn, et al. shows that age and job satisfaction are closely associated. "Younger workers are significantly more dissatisfied with their jobs. They are also more dissatisfied with the financial rewards and the challenges their jobs provide" (1974, p. 11). A recent study by Glenn, Taylor, and Weaver (1977) indicates that female job satisfaction also increases with increased age. However, it should be pointed out that some other researchers, like Hunt and Saul (1975), failed to find any relationship between job satisfaction and age for female workers (1975).

Saleh and Otis findings reveal that job satisfaction declined for some five years before retirement (1964). "They explained this decline as being due to a blockage in the possibilities of growth and achievement." For instance older persons are often passed over for promotion and have to take orders from younger people." Another possibility to bring forward by Saleh and Otis is a decline in physical health which may result in less adequate job performance. What ever the reason for the decline in job satisfaction, the distancing of an individual from his job may be a good way of adjusting to impending retirement" (Gruneberg quoted Saleh and Otis, 1979, p. 91). Herzbeg and his associates also suggest that job satisfaction increases with age because the individual comes to adjust to his work and life situation. Job satisfaction is initially high but declines as expectations are not met, only to rise again as the individual again adjusts to his work situation (1957).

A study was conducted by Rush and Peacock relating to a possible link of age to a career stage. They believe that "career clock" begins at different points for different individuals based on their background and experiences. They also reported:

We would also expect satisfactions and commitments to job, career, and organization to drop sharply in a mid-life transition. As individuals are faced with the discrepancy between what has been accomplished and the dream, they are likely to be less satisfied and less committed to their career (1980, p. 357).

Rush and Peacock concluded that there may be a relationship between time of life and career stages (and therefore satisfaction), but it begins at different points for individuals (1980).

The length of service that an employee has with a company tends to correlate with higher satisfaction (Alderfer, 1976). In a study of white collar government workers, it was found that age had a stronger relationship with job satisfaction in males than did length of service with the organization. For the females from the same group the result was contrary, the job satisfaction was stronger with regard to length of service than age (Hunt & Saul, 1975). Gibson and Klein (1970), however, indicated a decrease in satisfaction with increased tenure and attributed this to a realization that the rewards on the job are not going to be as great as they expected.

Gibson and Klein's study regarding the blue-collar workers suggest that frustration at seeing others promoted to management positions may increase dissatisfaction. On the other hand, when length of service was held constant, they find that job satisfaction was greater with increased age (1970). Gruneberg says it should be noted that, controlling for length of service in an organization still leaves open the possibility that older workers have had more experience, enabling them

to select the kind of job which will satisfy them, based on their previous work history (1979). The conclusions of Hunt and Saul quoted by Gruneberg that the research has highlighted the impracticality of attempting to develop a simple statement of the relationship between criteria of job satisfaction and employee age and tenure in an organization. "It is clear that the relationships studied are considerably influenced by the type of sample and the particular satisfaction criteria involved. Personality variables such as the level of job performance and the effects of age and tenure in an organization's reward system appear to play major parts in determining the nature of the empirical relationship observed between measure of age, tenure and job satisfaction" (1979, p. 93-4).

Education of the Individual

The effect of educational level on the job satisfaction of individuals was the subject of the study by many scholars. For instance, a study by Vollmer and Kinney (1955) showed that individuals of high ability may be more dissatisfied with jobs which do not allow for the application of their talents. They concluded that more college than high school educated employees reported dissatisfaction with their jobs and also more high school trained workers reported dissatisfaction than lower trained grammar school educated workers. Vollmer and Kinney point out that due to the greater educational investment there is reason to believe that college trained workers generally expect more out of life in terms of higher paid jobs, better working conditions, etc. "Thus far relatively low level jobs have higher expectations of what a job should offer and, low satisfaction with what they get"

(Vollmer & Kinney were quoted by Gruneberg, 1979, p. 96).

The results of the studies of Vollmer and Kinney are to some extent contrary with the studies reported by Herzberg et al. (1957). The results of the Herzberg's studies show a positive relationship between educational level and job satisfaction. Klien and Maher believe that such studies are somewhat limited in their sampling, to very specialized groups of individuals. "Yet it would not necessarily be surprising to find a positive relationship between education and job satisfaction" (Gruneberg, 1979, p. 97).

Another important recent study was concerned with the hypothesis that education increases dissatisfaction by raising expectations. Wright and Hamilton compare white male blue-collar workers with different amounts of education. They concluded that college educated persons were just as satisfied with their work, on the average, as were those with less education. Furthermore, two similar studies yielded similar results (Hamilton and Wright; Sheppard and Herick). These findings cast doubt on the education expectations-dissatisfaction hypothesis, but do not disapprove it. Most of the college-educated persons covered by these studies had not completed college, and most were young and had hopes of moving soon into better jobs (Glenn & Weaver quoted Wright & Hamilton, 1982). "Under other circumstances, being overeducated for one's job may well tend to lead to dissatisfaction" (Glenn & Weaver, 1982, p. 47).

Job Satisfaction and Life Satisfaction

Satisfaction with life was one important subject of mental health investigated by Kornhauser and has also been previously considered by

Hoppock 1935). Kornhauser noted that dissatisfied teachers came from unhappy home backgrounds (1965). Iris and Barret (1972) in their study of the employee of a chemical plant found out that the degree of life satisfaction was related to the satisfaction with job. The results of this study supported previous findings by Kornhauser (1965). These forementioned studies lead to suggestion that there are some individuals who are basically happy and some who are basically unhappy as a result of their life experiences.

Two distinct theories of the relationship between job and life satisfaction have been proposed; the compensation theory which argues that, "in order to compensate for dissatisfaction at work, one derives greater satisfaction with the other aspects of life, and Spillover theory which argues that unhappiness at work is likely to affect one's whole life" (Gruneberg, 1979, p. 125). In a study of both males and females, Weaver found that when the effects of other domain variables are removed, job satisfaction was correlated with happiness for employees in only two of the twelve occupational categories studied. They were male professional technical and female service workers (Weaver, 1978).

Weaver indicated that there was considerable interdependence among the variables he tested, which were job, communities, non-work activities, family, friendships, health, marriage, and financial condition. He concluded happiness is based on satisfaction in a number of different parts of life, and that workers whose happiness is related to the job is more likely to experience life satisfaction as well (Weaver, 1978).

The results of an international job satisfaction survey of Aus-

tralia, Belgium, Canada, Japan, the United Kingdom, and the United States disclosed that the workers most dissatisfied with their jobs were Japanese, the ones most satisfied were the workers in the United States. The evidence given for the high dissatisfaction of the workers in Japan was that workers demand more of a job and the job has an important place in their lives (Thurman, 1977).

In general the anticipation for the relationship between job and life satisfaction is complex, depending on different factors, like the job and personal circumstances. Grunebeg noted that:

When relationships do exist, this might be because a cheerful individual will enjoy both work and other life factors where a more morose individual would complain about both. The extent to which a job gives the potential for job involvement will affect the amount of personal investment which to some extent will determine the effect of job dissatisfaction or life satisfaction (1979, p. 127).

For all formentioned evidences, a straight forward interpretation of the relationship between life and job satisfaction is impossible. "It is however, possible to say, on the basis of the study by Iris and Barrett, that evidence exists to suggest that job satisfaction can influence felt life satisfaction" (Gruneberg 1979, p. 127).

Satisfaction With Pay

The notion that satisfaction with pay is an important element in our job satisfaction supported by many scholars, Dyer and Theriault conducted a study on managers from both the United States and Canada and proposed three hypotheses.

1. Persons with lower salaries will be less satisfied with their pay than those with higher salaries.
2. Persons with higher personal job inputs will be less satis-

fied with their pay than those with lower perceived personal job inputs.

3. Persons who perceive their jobs as more demanding will be less satisfied with their pay than persons who see their jobs as less demanding (1976, p. 597).

As the result of the study the first two hypotheses were accepted and the third one was rejected. This tends to support the notion that pay is important in the level of satisfaction a job may provide. Lawler (1971) compared two theories of pay satisfaction - the discrepancy theory and the equity theory. The discrepancy theory holds that pay satisfaction depends on the difference between obtained pay and valued pay while equity theory views pay satisfaction as a function of obtained pay in relation to the individual's perceived inputs in relation to other people holding similar jobs. He also noted that the pay an individual receives is of major significance to that person. The further evidence by Sybolt indicated that there is a significant relationship between pay and job satisfaction (1976).

Rosow's findings indicate that pay ranked high on any list of employee expectations. In his study he concluded that 77 percent of the workers support this notion that "good wages" is the most important aspect of the job. He cited:

The issue of financial motivation for the average worker in the 1980's will be one of maintaining direct cash take-home pay incentives, while employers will require a heightened sensitivity to the maintenance of meaningful cash incentives (1981, p. 84).

There are reasons to believe that for a person who needs to work to maintain the cost of living, pay is a major factor in the satisfaction of the job.

Organizational Climate

The influence of environment on human behavior is a recognized fact. Organizational Psychologists & Behaviorists have recently (within the past 20 years) begun to explore the influence of an organization's psychological environment on the behavior of the individuals within said organization. The psychological environment is better referred to as the organizational climate of an organization.

Organizational climate has its largest impact on the human resources of an organization. Climate influences personnel and personal performance of an organization. However, the parameters of organizational climate are not easily and clearly measured and defined.

Definition of Organizational Climate

Several definitions of climate have developed as researchers in psychology increased their interest in environmental impact on human behavior. One of the first definitions was offered by Lewin and his associates (Lewin, Lippitt, & White, 1938). They defined social climate as the atmosphere associated with a group. Atmosphere was influenced by leadership style, rules, & regulations within the group. Argyri's (1958) defined organizational climate as a homeostatic state of an organization, composed of many levels of analysis (personality level, organizational behavior level, etc.). The importance of this definition is its contribution to the concept of the existence of various levels of analysis which could be identified in organizational climate. James (1962) defined organizational climate as the image or perception people have of the company. This definition stresses the importance of human perception as the basis of organizational climate.

Gellerman (1960) referred to climate as the personality of a company and that each organization's personality is unique despite superficial similarities. Gellerman classified organizations into four climate types: 1) paternal passive, 2) paternal aggressive, 3) impersonal passive, and 4) impersonal aggressive. This classification scheme was based on the attitudes and temperaments of top officials, economic conditions, and company history. Since any of these factors may change, the organizational climate may be viewed as a dynamic situation.

Forehand & Gilmer (1964) defined organizational climate as:

...the set of characteristics that describe an organization and that (a) distinguish it from other organizations, (b) are relatively enduring over time, and (c) influence the behavior of people in the organization. (p. 362).

Gilmer & Forehand (1964) viewed organizations as miniature societies where success/failure related to interactions of the individual and the environment. Litwin & Stringer (1968) defined organizational climate as "a set of measurable properties of the work environment, perceived directly or indirectly by the people who live and work in this environment, and assumed to influence their motivation and behavior" (p.1). This definition attempts to fit the organizational climate concept into the McClelland-Atkinson motivation model of need achievement, power, and affiliation.

Sells (1968) attempted to expand the definition of climate to incorporate physical and social environments. Organizational climate is a function of the cultural patterns of organizations and includes generalized orientations of members which are (1) shared by a majority of

members of an organizational unit and (2) acquired in relation to factors specific to the situation. By this definition, Sells provided four significant research areas:

1. The identification and measurement of important individual orientations.
2. The identification of generalized and shared orientations of individuals (culture patterns).
3. The study of the sources of such orientation patterns and the processes of their acquisition by individuals.
4. The study of their effects on individual behavior and organizational behavior, (Collins, 1981, p. 7).

Friedlander, et al. (1969) defined climate as: an interaction of personal factors and organizational factors. This interaction of personality, needs, and values with structure, supervisory style, and objectives allows the individual to form perceptions and organizational climate can then be understood.

Yet another definition of organizational climate was developed by Campbell, Lawler, Dunnette, and Weick (1970). Organizational climate may be defined as:

... a set of attributes specific to a particular organization that may be induced from the way the organization deals with its members and its environment. For the individual member within an organization, climate takes the form of a set of attitudes and expectancies which describe the organization in terms of both static characteristics (such as degree of autonomy) and behavior-outcome and outcome-outcome contingencies. (p. 390).

Frederickson, Jensen, and Beaton (1973) emphasized the importance of individual expectancies. Frederickson, et al. defined climate as a set of expectancies, held in common by most members of an organization,

similar to a "uniformity" of appropriate behavior. This definition results from perceptions of uniformity of 1) behavior of organization members 2) declarations of policy from organization leaders, and 3) from uniform training backgrounds.

Schneider and Snyder (1975) viewed climate as a perception that people obtain of their own organization. Each perception is as individual as the person who forms the idea and is dependent on the context and information available. Schneider (1975) expanded the definition of climate:

Climate perceptions are psychologically meaningful molar descriptions that people can agree characterize a system's practices and procedure. By its practices and procedures, a system may create many climates. People perceive climate because the molar perceptions serve as frames of reference for the attainment of some congruity between behavior and the system's practices and procedures. (p. 475).

Each definition offers a slightly different interpretation for the concept of climate. The working definition proposed for this study was presented by Litwin and Stringer (1968) in which they viewed organizational climate as "a set of measurable properties of the work environment, perceived directly or indirectly by the people who live and work in this environment, and assumed to influence their motivation and behavior" (p.1).

Measurement of Organizational Climate

Two methods have been determined to measure organizational climate: objective and subjective. Barker (1963) is credited with first identifying objective aspects of the general environment (known as behavioral settings). Behavioral settings are visible features of the ecological environment that are reproducible in nature and can be

exactly located in time and space. Pugh, Hickson, Hennings, and Turner (1969) believed that organizational structure would fall into this type of classification.

The introduction of variables such as absenteeism, turnover, lateness, critical incidents, by Payne and Pugh (1976), as objective measures of climate further expanded the definition of climate.

Astin and Holland (1961) developed the Environmental Assessment Technique (EAT) to assess (objectively) the characteristics of academic climates. This study of an objective academic climate provided similar results to those of a perceptual measure; however, the EAT was not deemed suitable for use in business type settings (Payne and Pugh, 1976).

Lack of interest in developing an objective measure of climate may be summarized by the following criticisms:

- 1) Extreme number of variables to examine.
- 2) Unanswered questions concerning relationships between various properties to useful constructs or organizational functioning.
- 3) Objective indices indirectly influence organizational participants.
- 4) Objective measures of climate are redundant and add nothing to the field of industrial/organizational psychology (James and Jones, 1974).

Perceptual Measurement

The subjective (perceptual) approach is more popular than the objective approach to climate measurement. The subjective approach consists of responses to a list of descriptive statements about the

study organization by the actual constituents of the organization. This theory is based on the assumption that individuals working in the same environment will have similar perceptions about said environment.

Litwin and Stringer (1968), Dieterly and Schneider (1974), and Howe (1977) all employed this hypothesis in different environments and reached similar conclusions: subjects working in the same climate generally agree upon their descriptions of that climate.

Another basis for the use of perceptual climate measurement is its allowance for the interaction between the situation and the individual's interpretation of the events. Schneider and Bartlett (1970) stated: "...what is psychologically important to the individual must be how he perceives his environment, not how others might choose to describe it" (p. 510).

Problems associated with perceived climate measures are:

- 1) Measure is based upon individual perceptions.
- 2) Few researchers have assessed the degree of agreement among subjects and climate perceptions.
- 3) Perceptual climate measurements have been found to be related to job satisfaction.

James and Jones (1974) have suggested separating measures into objective and perceptual measures of an organization versus objective and perceptual measures of an individual.

Summary

An overview of different theories of job satisfaction and organizational climate was presented in this chapter. Content theories of job satisfaction included Maslow's need hierarchy and Herzberg's two-

factor theory, and some criticisms directed toward these theories were discussed.

Content theories attempted to determine factors contributing to the satisfaction/dissatisfaction of an individual. Two major theories were presented in the following manner; first Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory and second, Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene theory.

The second part of this chapter was a review of consequence of job satisfaction and the controversies involved in the relationship between satisfaction and other variables such as turnover, absenteeism and alienation from work as well. It was shown that dissatisfaction can result in absenteeism, turnover, mental and physical health of the employee, and other negative effects that can be devastating for the organization as well as individual.

Review of organizational climate studies suggested that there is some disagreement on the operationalization of the concept of climate. Some researchers argued that climate should be measured objectively, independent from the individual interference, while majority were in favor of perceptual measures and proposed that it is perception, rather than the actual climate, that accounts for the outcome variables such as job satisfaction and motivation.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURES

Introduction

To achieve the purpose of this study data were gathered on the blue collar workers' perception of organizational climate and their job satisfaction/dissatisfaction. The population of the study was limited to full-time blue collar workers of industries located in the State of Oklahoma. These industries have been determined to employ between 100-250 blue collar workers. The total number of blue collar worker's names obtained from twenty Oklahoma industries was three hundred.

The two questionnaires used to obtain the required information for the study were job descriptive index (JDI) and climate questionnaire (Form B). In addition, a series of questions were developed to obtain necessary biographical data about respondents and their respective industries.

This chapter includes fully developed research hypotheses, a description of population, sampling procedures, a description of research instrument, data collection, and data analysis methods.

Research Hypotheses

To achieve the purpose of this study, the following hypotheses, which have been written in null form were tested.

Hypothesis 1. There is no significant difference between overall job satisfaction of blue-collar workers in different industries with regard to the size of the organization.

Hypothesis 2. There is no significant differences between organizational climate of small (type one) and large (type two) industries as it is perceived by blue-collar workers in these organizations.

Hypothesis 3. There is no significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of blue-collar workers in selected industries and the organizational climate of these organizations.

Hypothesis 3a: Controlling for the size of the industry, there is no significant relationship between overall job satisfaction of blue collar workers and organizational climate in selected Oklahoma industries.

Hypothesis 3b: Controlling for the sex of the respondents, there is no significant relationship between overall job satisfaction of blue collar workers and organizational climate in selected Oklahoma industries.

Hypothesis 3c: Controlling for the age of the respondents, there is no significant relationship between overall job satisfaction of blue collar workers and organizational climate in selected Oklahoma industries.

Hypothesis 3d: Controlling for the level of income, there is no significant relationship between overall job satisfaction of blue collar workers and organizational climate in selected industries.

Hypothesis 3e: Controlling for the length of industrial experience, there is no significant relationship between overall job satisfaction of blue collar workers and organizational climate in selected industries.

Hypothesis 3f: Controlling for the level of formal educational experience, there is no significant relationship between overall job

satisfactoriness of blue collar workers and organizational climate in selected industries.

Population and Sample Selection

The total number of 88 industries located in the State of Oklahoma, which have been determined to employ between 100-250 blue-collar workers were identified through the latest available industry catalogues from Oklahoma State University Library, in order to serve as the population of this study. Of the 88 industries, 20 were randomly selected and utilized in the study. This 23 percent made the actual study population a total of 20 industries in the State of Oklahoma.

Each of 20 industries was sent letters explaining the author's intentions and requesting for possible participation in the study. Several days later letters were sent to twenty industry managers asking for a list of full-time blue collar workers' names for possible use in answering questionnaires to this study. Anonymity was assured for each industry and each respondent. Ten industries responded that they refused to participate, and five did not respond at all. Therefore, 15 additional industries were randomly selected from the remaining 68. Follow-up phone calls and interviews with industry personnel managers were necessary to assure receipt of the names of employees from several personnel managers.

A total of 1196 full-time blue-collar workers' names were received. Twenty five percent of these were selected at random by means of a table of random numbers to answer the appropriate questionnaires.

Procedures for Data Collection

On May 12, 1984, 300 questionnaires, coupled with a stamped, self-addressed return envelope were mailed to the sample population, blue collar workers in selected Oklahoma industries. An explanatory cover letter also accompanied the questionnaires. All questionnaires were coded in order that the follow-up letters could be sent to non-respondents. The names of all respondents were kept confidential. Within two weeks 99 or 33 percent were returned.

After three weeks lapse, a follow-up letter and a copy of original questionnaire was mailed to each of the participants who had failed to respond the first time. This was done to encourage participation of the non-respondents and to again reassure them of the confidentiality of the responses. (See appendix A for the follow-up letter).

By June 20, 1984, a total of 151 questionnaires (50%) were received. All 151 of the questionnaires were completed. Subsequently, data processing began with 151 questionnaires.

Demographic Data

All Respondents

Of the 151 blue-collar workers who participated in the study, one hundred and fifteen (76.16%) were males and the rest, thirty six (23.84%) were female. Blue-collar workers participating in this study fit into five groups according to their experience. Forty eight (31.79%) had between one to seven years of industrial experience: forty nine (32.45%) between eight to fourteen, thirty eight (25.17%) between fifteen to twenty one, eleven (7.285) between twenty two to

twenty eight, and five (3.31%) had between twenty nine to thirty six years of industrial experience.

Respondents ranged in age from sixteen to sixty five years old. Twenty five (16.56%) were between sixteen to twenty two, thirty three (21.85%) between twenty three to twenty nine: thirty three (21.85%) between thirty to thirty six: thirty two (21.92%) between thirty seven to forty three: eighteen (11.92%) between forty four to fifty: seven (4.64%) between fifty one to fifty seven, and three (1.99%) were between fifty eight to sixty five years old.

The educational level of respondents varied from less than a high school diploma to a (B.S./B.A.) college degree. Forty nine (32.45%) respondents had less than a high school diploma, forty (26.49%) had a high school diploma, forty four (29.14%) had a two year college degree and eighteen (11.92%) had a bachelors degree. The gross annual income of blue collar workers ranged from \$6,000 to more than \$46,000. Thirty two (21.19%) earned between \$8,000 to \$13,999, thirty five (23.18%) between \$14,000 to \$19,999, twenty one (13.91%) between \$20,000 to \$25,999, fourteen (9.27%) between \$26,000 to \$30,999, nineteen (12.58%) between \$31,000 to \$35,999, twenty four (15.89%) between \$36,000 to \$40,999, four (2.65%) between \$41,000 to \$45,999 and two (1.32%) earned more than \$6,000 annually. The length of employment with the perspective industries were divided into three groups. One hundred and fifteen (76.16%) had between one to ten years employment, thirty two (21.19%) between eleven to twenty, and four (2.65%) had between twenty one to thirty years employment with perspective industries. However the perspective industries were divided into two groups, those industries which had employed between 100 to 165 blue collar workers were

considered as small industries (type one), and those which had employed between 166 to 250 were considered as large industries (type two) in this study. (See Table I).

Instrumentation

Two questionnaires, Job Descriptive Index and Organizational Climate Questionnaire (Form B) were utilized to accomplish the objectives of this study. (see Appendix B).

Job Satisfaction

The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) was used to measure overall job satisfaction of blue collar workers. This 70-item instrument developed by Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969) measures satisfaction over five areas of a job: work itself, supervision, pay, co-workers, and opportunities for promotion on the job. Each respondent is asked to indicate the applicability of a short statement of an adjective describing a particular aspect of his or her job. The subjects are asked to mark "Y" if it applies to their job, "N" if it does not, and "?" if they can not decide as to the applicability of the item to their job.

Factor analysis of the data gathered from two studies of the electronic industry and a large bank in Minnesota led the authors to incorporate a modified scoring system rather than the traditional one. The revised scoring system presented in the following table was also used in the present study.

TABLE I

FREQUENCY OF RESPONSES BY SEX, EXPERIENCE, AGE, EDUCATION,
INCOME, THE LENGTH OF EMPLOYMENT WITH INDUSTRY, AND SIZE

	Frequency	Frequency %
<u>SEX</u>		
Female	36	23.841
Male	115	76.159
<u>EXPERIENCE</u>		
1-7	48	31.788
8-14	49	32.45
15-21	38	25.17
22-28	11	7.28
29-36	5	3.31
<u>AGE</u>		
16-22	25	16.556
23-29	33	21.854
30-36	33	21.854
37-43	32	21.192
44-50	18	11.921
51-57	7	4.636
58-65	3	1.987
<u>EDUCATION</u>		
Less than a High School diploma	49	32.450
High School diploma	40	26.490
Some College (1-2 years)	44	29.139
B.A./B.S.	18	11.921

TABLE I (Continued)

	Frequency	Frequency %
<u>INCOME</u>		
\$ 8,000 - \$13,999	32	21.192
\$14,000 - \$19,000	35	23.179
\$20,000 - \$25,999	21	13.907
\$26,000 - \$30,999	14	9.272
\$31,000 - \$35,999	19	12.583
\$36,000 - \$40,999	24	15.894
\$41,000 - \$45,999	4	2.649
\$46,000 and above	2	1.325
<u>LENGTH OF EMPLOYMENT WITH PRESENT INDUSTRY</u>		
1-10	115	76.16
11-20	32	21.19
21-30	4	2.649
<u>SIZE</u>		
Small	85	76.16
Large	66	43.709

TABLE II
TRADITIONAL AND REVISED WEIGHTS FOR
DIRECT SCORING OF JDI ITEMS

Response	Traditional Weight	Revised Weight
<u>Yes</u> to a positive item	3	3
<u>No</u> to a negative item	3	3
<u>?</u> to any item	2	1
<u>Yes</u> to a negative item	1	0
<u>No</u> to a positive item	1	0

Source: Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969, p. 79).

The five job areas included in the JDI were obtained through the review of previous satisfaction research. According to the authors these aspects are those that most consistently appear in studies designed to identify the underlying dimensions of job satisfaction. The items for each scale were obtained from previous literature and face to face interviews. The final items were obtained through modification, rephrasing, or deletion of the original items on the basis of an extensive series of item analysis.

Validity of the final version of JDI has been established by many different studies. Several studies by the authors led them to conclude that:

The JDI scales, as scored by direct method shows consistent discriminant and convergent validity. The validity of the JDI scales exceed that of the rating methods; the loading on relevant facts are generally higher, and loadings on supposedly distinct factors lower (Smith et al., 1969, p. 67).

Reliability statistics are also presented by the authors, as well as in many other studies utilizing this instrument. The coefficient of reliability of the measure's five dimensions, as reported by the authors, range from .80 to .88 using split-half method and applying the Spearman-Brown formula.

Organizational Climate

The organizational climate (Form B), developed by Litwin and Stringer (1968) was used to measure the organizational climate of selected industries in Oklahoma. Based on a theory of climate, this instrument which was originally developed to assess the perceived organizational climate of industrial workers, was used to collect members' perception of and subjective responses to the organizational environment. The climate of an organization could then be defined operationally as "the sum of the perceptions of individuals working in that organization" (Litwin and Stringer, 1968, p. 66).

The organizational climate questionnaire (Form B), consists of forty seven-point Likert type items. Organizational climate is measured by nine separate scales presented by authors in the following manner:

1. Structure--the feeling that employees have about the constraints in the group, how many rules, regulations, procedures there are; is there an emphasis on "red tape" and going through channels, or is there a loose and informal atmosphere.
2. Responsibility--the feeling of being your own boss; not having to double-check all your decisions; when you have a job to do, knowing that it is your job.
3. Reward--the feeling of being rewarded for a job well done; emphasizing positive rewards rather than punishment; the perceived fairness of the pay and promotion policies.

4. Risk--the sense of riskiness and challenge in the job and in the organization; is there an emphasis on taking calculated risks, or is playing it safe the best way to operate.
5. Warmth--the feeling of general good fellowship that prevails in the work group atmosphere; the emphasis on being well-liked; the prevalence of friendly and informal social group.
6. Support--the perceived helpfulness of the managers and other employees in the group; emphasis on mutual support from above and below.
7. Standards--the perceived importance of implicit and explicit goals and performance standards; the emphasis on doing a good job; the challenge represented in personal and group goals.
8. Conflict--the feeling that managers and other workers want to hear different opinions; the emphasis placed on getting problems out in the open, rather than smothering them over or ignoring them.
9. Identity--the feeling that you belong to a company and you are a valuable member of a working team; the importance placed on this kind of spirit (Litwin & Stringer, 1968, pp. 81-82).

Based on their own studies, Litwin and Stringer (1968) found a good internal consistency for seven scales.

Statistical Treatment of Data

Responses to the questionnaires were coded and keypunched on IBM cards. With the help from the programs provided in The SAS User's Guide (Helwig and Council, 1979) the following statistical procedures were used to analyze the data:

Hypothesis I was tested using the t-test to see if there was a significant difference between overall satisfaction of blue collar workers in different sizes of industries (small and large). The same procedure was used to test Hypothesis II, whether or not any significant differences existed between the organizational climate of these

two types of industries. In addition, a series of t-tests were calculated to determine the possible significant differences between each component of job satisfaction and organizational climate in selected industries.

Pearson product moment correlation coefficients were used to calculate the relationship between organizational climate and job satisfaction of all respondents, small, large size industries, male, and female blue collar workers. The same procedure was used to obtain separate correlation matrices for each of the above mentioned groups to determine the relationship between each component of job satisfaction with that of organizational climate.

Partial correlation procedures were calculated to determine the effects of each demographic variable on the relationship between the two major variables under study. The same statistical method was applied to the same relationship for small size and large size industries. Finally, the SAS programs were used to tabulate frequency counts and to produce scattergrams to display relationships.

Summary

In this chapter fully developed research hypotheses were presented. Included were a description of sampling procedures, as well as the method employed for data collection. In addition, a description of demographic characteristics of the respondents, information regarding the instruments used in the study, and statistical procedures utilized for the data analysis, were explained.

The population studied in this investigation consisted of 300 blue collar workers in selected industries in the State of Oklahoma. The

measuring instruments used were the Job Descriptive Index and Organizational Climate Questionnaire (Form B). The data were subjected to a series of correlation tests to determine the relationship between organizational climate and job satisfaction of the respondents. The t-test was used to test for the significant differences in satisfaction and perceived climate of small size (type one) and large size (type two) industry samples. A series of partial correlations were calculated to control for the effects of demographic characteristics of the sample on the relationship between the major variables under study.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between perceived organizational climate and job satisfaction of blue-collar workers in Oklahoma industries. In addition, it was planned to determine if there was any significant difference between job satisfaction of the two groups of blue-collar workers (type one and type two), and whether or not there was any significant difference in organizational climate of these industries, (type one and type two).

The results of statistical treatment of data compiled from 151 respondents is presented and discussed in this chapter. The traditional .05 level of significance was used to accept or reject the hypotheses under study.

Job Satisfaction of Blue-Collar Workers

A summary of the overall job satisfaction mean scores of blue-collar workers and their mean scores on the five sub-scales of the JDI are presented in Table III. Table III shows blue-collar workers who are employed by industry type one are more satisfied with their jobs than their associates who are employed by industry type two. However, the degree of satisfaction for blue-collar workers in industry type one is

(2.18) while the degree of satisfaction for blue-collar workers in industry type two is (1.43). A ranking of the weighted mean scores for both groups showed that satisfaction with co-workers ranked the highest for both groups (2.29 for type one and 1.65 for type two). The mean score of satisfaction with promotion policies ranked the lowest for industry type one (2.05). For industry type two the least amount of satisfaction was expressed regarding salary in those organizations (1.30). The tests of significance for the differences between mean scores will be presented in the following section.

TABLE III

WEIGHTED MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS IN INDUSTRIES TYPE ONE AND TYPE TWO ON JOB SATISFACTION AND ITS FIVE SUB-SCALES

	Industries type one (N=85)			Industries type two (N=66)		
	mean	std. dev.	std. error	mean	std. dev.	std. error
work	2.15	0.68	0.07	1.34	0.73	0.09
supervision	2.19	0.63	0.06	1.40	0.69	0.08
salary	2.15	0.79	0.08	1.30	0.80	0.10
promotion	2.05	0.77	0.08	1.36	0.80	0.10
co-workers	2.29	0.56	0.06	1.64	0.62	0.08
overall satisfaction	2.18	0.63	0.68	1.43	0.67	0.08

The mean scores of respondents on climate scale, (Table IV) indicates that blue-collar workers in industry type one scored an average of 3.50 on their perception of organizational climate, while the mean score for blue-collar workers in industry type two was (2.94). The highest mean score for type one was on support (3.71), while for type two the highest mean score was on conflict (3.10). The second highest mean score for type one was on reward (3.56) while for type two was warmth (3.09). The lowest score for type one was on conflict (3.34), while for type two was identity (2.78).

TABLE IV
WEIGHTED MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS
IN INDUSTRIES TYPE ONE AND TYPE TWO ON CLIMATE
AND ITS NINE SUB-SCALES

	<u>Industries type one (N=85)</u>			<u>Industries type two (N=66)</u>		
	<u>mean</u>	<u>std. dev.</u>	<u>std. error</u>	<u>mean</u>	<u>std. dev.</u>	<u>std. error</u>
Structure	3.48	0.52	0.05	2.94	0.74	0.09
Responsibility	3.38	0.38	0.04	3.06	0.49	0.06
Reward	3.56	0.49	0.05	2.98	0.62	0.08
Risk	3.51	0.72	0.08	2.83	0.74	0.09
Warmth	3.54	0.46	0.05	3.09	0.52	0.06
Support	3.71	0.67	0.07	2.81	1.04	0.13
Standard	3.46	0.52	0.05	2.79	0.65	0.08
Conflict	3.34	0.53	0.06	3.11	0.56	0.07
Identity	3.53	0.65	0.07	2.79	1.00	0.12
Org. Climate	3.50	0.39	0.04	2.94	0.56	0.07

Testing the Hypothesis

Hypothesis I

There is no significant difference between overall job satisfaction of blue-collar workers in different industries with regard to the size of the organization.

A t-test was utilized to determine if there was any significant difference between industry type one and type two blue-collar workers' job satisfaction. As Table V indicates, there was a significant difference between unweighted mean score of 148.28 for industry type one blue collar workers and the mean score of 97.20 for industry type two. The t value of 7.05 with 149 degrees of freedom, was significant at the .001 level of confidence ($p < .001$), the null hypothesis was rejected.

TABLE V

COMPARISON OF THE JOB SATISFACTION MEAN SCORES OF BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS IN INDUSTRIES TYPE ONE AND TYPE TWO

Group	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	t Value	P > T
Industries Type One	85	148.28	43.06		
Industries Type Two	66	97.20	45.59		
				7.05	.001

The t-tests comparing mean scores of two groups on five dimensions of job satisfaction are presented in Table VI. Data summarized in

Table VI indicates that there were significant differences between the mean scores of blue-collar workers in industry type one and type two. The t value for all five dimensions of job satisfaction were, 7.03 for work, 7.29 supervision, 6.46 salary, 5.33 promotion and 6.65 co-workers. The probability of .001 for all five aspects of job satisfaction indicates that there are significant differences between the way two groups of blue collar workers perceived work, supervision, salary, promotion, and co-workers in their organizations.

TABLE VI

COMPARISON OF MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, AND T SCORES
OF INDUSTRIES TYPE ONE AND TYPE TWO BLUE-COLLAR
WORKERS ON FIVE JOB SATISFACTION SCALES

	Industries type one (N=85)		Industries type two (N=66)		t. value	P> T
	mean	std. dev.	mean	std. dev.		
Work	34.35	10.82	21.39	11.75	7.03	0.001
Supervision	37.16	10.80	23.76	11.71	7.29	0.001
Salary	19.34	7.14	11.73	7.22	6.47	0.001
Promotion	18.47	6.97	12.29	7.18	5.33	0.001
Co-workers	38.95	9.51	28.03	10.62	6.65	0.001

Hypothesis 2

There is no significant differences between the organizational climate of small (type one) and large (type two) industries as it is perceived by blue-collar workers in these organizations.

This hypothesis was not supported by the data. A t-test was used to determine if there was any statistically significant difference between the two groups of blue-collar workers on this variable, revealed that there was significant difference between the mean scores of 164.48 for those blue-collar workers who worked in type one industries and 138.27 for those who worked in type two industries, which is indicated in Table VII.

TABLE VII
COMPARISON OF THE MEAN SCORE OF PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL
CLIMATE FOR INDUSTRIES TYPE ONE AND TYPE
TWO BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS

Group	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	t Value	P> T
Industries Type One	85	164.48	18.69		
Industries Type Two	66	138.27	26.48		
				7.12	0.001

T-tests for each dimension of climate for industries type one and type two, indicated that there were significant differences among the nine dimensions of climate (structure, responsibility, reward, risk, warmth, support, standard, conflict, and identity). The comparison of means, standard deviations, and T scores of industries one and type two blue-collar workers on nine organizational scales are presented in Table VIII.

TABLE VIII
 COMPARISON OF MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, AND T SCORES OF
 INDUSTRIES TYPE ONE AND TYPE TWO BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS
 ON NINE ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE SCALES

	INDUSTRIES TYPE ONE		INDUSTRIES TYPE TWO		T	P > T
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.		
Struc.	24.39	3.68	20.61	4.95	5.39	0.001
Respon.	23.66	2.63	21.44	3.45	4.48	0.001
Reward	21.39	2.93	17.88	3.76	6.44	0.001
Risk	10.54	2.16	8.50	2.24	5.66	0.001
Warmth	17.73	2.32	15.44	2.58	5.73	0.001
Support	18.54	3.35	14.06	5.23	6.39	0.001
Standard	20.74	3.14	16.76	3.93	6.92	0.001
Conflict	13.38	2.14	12.44	2.25	2.61	0.001
Identity	14.12	2.61	11.15	4.01	5.48	0.001

Hypothesis 3

There is no significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of blue-collar workers in selected industries and the organizational climate of these organizations.

The computed pearson correlation for overall job satisfaction and perceived organizational climate of all blue-collar workers was 0.89 at a $P < .001$ significant level. The compiled data indicates that there was a strong relationship between these variables. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

TABLE IX
 COEFFICIENT OF CORRELATION BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND PERCEIVED
 ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE OF ALL BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS

	n	Organizational Climate	P
Job satisfaction	151	0.89	0.001

The correlation for the relationship between aspects of job satisfaction and organizational climate showed a significant positive relationship between all dimensions of satisfaction and organization climate. Three dimensions of the climate scale; standard, reward, and support revealed the strongest relationship of overall job satisfaction of the blue-collar workers (.84, .81, and .80 respectively at .001 significant level).

Separate correlation coefficients were also used to determine the relationship between organizational climate and job satisfaction of blue-collar workers in both industries (type one and type two). The computed coefficient of .82 at a $P < .001$ significance level, indicated a strong relationship between these two variables in the following table.

TABLE X
 COEFFICIENT OF CORRELATION BETWEEN PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL
 CLIMATE AND JOB SATISFACTION OF THE INDUSTRIES TYPE ONE
 BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS

	n	Organizational Climate	P
Job satisfaction	85	.82	.001

The calculated correlation coefficient for the relationship between organizational climate and job satisfaction of industry type two blue-collar workers, presented in Table XI, was .90 at $P < .001$ shows a positive relationship between the industry type two-blue-collar workers' perception of organizational climate and their job satisfaction.

TABLE XI
COEFFICIENT OF CORRELATION BETWEEN PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE AND JOB SATISFACTION OF THE INDUSTRIES TYPE TWO BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS

	n	Organizational Climate	P
Job satisfaction	66	.90	.001

Three dimensions of organizational climate (reward, support, and standard) revealed the strongest relationship to industry type two blue-collar workers' job satisfaction (.83, .82, and .83 with a $P < .001$).

Subset of the Hypothesis Three

The following hypotheses were designed to test the relationship between organizational climate and job satisfaction of blue-collar workers while controlling for the effects of different demographic variables.

Hypothesis 3a: Controlling for the size of industries, there is no significant relationship between job satisfaction of blue-collar workers and organizational climate in selected industries.

Partial correlation was used to control for the effect of size of industries on the relationship between satisfaction and climate. The result was a coefficient of .86 ($P < .001$) which indicated a rejection of the null hypothesis.

TABLE XII

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE AND
JOB SATISFACTION, CONTROLLING FOR THE EFFECTS OF
SIZE OF INDUSTRIES

	n	Organizational Climate	P
Job satisfaction	151	.86	.001

Hypothesis 3b: Controlling for the sex of the respondents, there is no significant relationship between overall job satisfaction of blue-collar workers and organizational climate of selected industries.

As Table XIII shows, the computed correlation coefficient of .89 between job satisfaction and organizational climate shows the relationship between these two variables (even though the effects of the sex of respondents were partial out). Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

TABLE XIII

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE
AND JOB SATISFACTION, CONTROLLING FOR THE EFFECTS
OF THE SEX OF RESPONDENTS

	n	Organizational Climate	P
Job satisfaction	151	.89	.001

Hypothesis 3C: Controlling the age of the respondent, there is no significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of blue-collar workers and the organizational climate of selected industries.

Partalling out the effects of the age of blue-collar workers participating in this study, the relationship between satisfaction and climate remained strong. The computed coefficient was .87 at a $P < .001$ level of significance. As a result, the null hypothesis was rejected.

TABLE XIV
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE
AND JOB SATISFACTION, CONTROLLING FOR THE EFFECTS
OF THE AGE OF RESPONDENTS

	n	Organizational Climate	P
Job satisfaction	151	.87	.001

Hypothesis 3d: Controlling for the level of income, there is no significant relationship between overall job satisfaction of blue-collar workers and the organizational climate of industries.

Partial correlation technique was used to test the effect of the level of income of the blue-collar workers on the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational climate. A correlation coefficient of .82 at a $P < .001$ level of significance was computed. As a result the null hypothesis was rejected.

TABLE XV
 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE
 AND JOB SATISFACTION, CONTROLLING FOR THE
 EFFECTS OF THE LEVEL OF INCOME

	n	Organizational Climate	P
Job satisfaction	151	.82	.001

Hypothesis 3e: Controlling for the level of education of the respondents, there is no significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of blue-collar workers and the organizational climate of selected industries.

Utilizing the partial correlation technique for overall job satisfaction and the perceived organizational climate while controlling for the effects of the level of education of blue collar workers; resulted in the rejection of the null hypothesis. A computed coefficient of .82 at a $P < .001$ significance level is presented in the following table (XVI).

TABLE XVI
 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE
 AND JOB SATISFACTION, CONTROLLING FOR THE
 EFFECTS OF THE LEVEL OF EDUCATION

	n	Organizational Climate	P
Job satisfaction	151	.82	.001

Hypothesis 3f: Controlling for the length of industrial experience of the respondents, there is no significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of blue-collar workers and the organizational climate of selected industries.

The effect of industrial experiences of the respondent on the relationship between job satisfaction and organization was tested. A correlation coefficient of .87 at a $P < .001$ level of significance was computed using the partial correlation technique. As a result the null hypothesis was rejected.

TABLE XVII
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE AND
JOB SATISFACTION, CONTROLLING FOR THE EFFECTS OF
THE LENGTH OF INDUSTRIAL EXPERIENCE

	n	Organizational Climate	P
Job satisfaction	151	.87	.001

Hypothesis 3g: Controlling for the length of service of the respondents in their present industry, there is no significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of blue-collar workers and the organizational climate in selected industries.

In the text of Hypothesis 3g, a partial correlation technique was used to produce a correlation coefficient of .82 at a $P < .001$ significance level while controlling for the effects of the length of employment of the respondents in their present industry. Due to the fact that the significance level was shown to be beyond $P .05$, the null hypothesis was rejected.

TABLE XVIII

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE AND
JOB SATISFACTION, CONTROLLING FOR THE EFFECTS OF THE
LENGTH OF EMPLOYMENT IN THE PRESENT INDUSTRY

	n	Organizational Climate	P
Job satisfaction	151	.86	.001

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary of the Study

The purpose of the present study was to examine the relationship between job satisfaction of blue-collar workers and their perceived organizational climate in selected industries in the state of Oklahoma. Specific objectives of the study were to answer the following questions: To what degree are blue-collar workers in industry satisfied with various aspects of their jobs? Is there a difference between overall satisfaction of blue-collar workers in different industries with regard to the size of the organization? What differences are there between the organizational climate of small (type one) and large (type two) industries as it is perceived by blue-collar workers in these organizations? What are the effects of different demographic variables such as age, sex of respondents, level of income, size of industry, level of education, length of service with present industry, length of industrial experience, on the relationship between job satisfaction and the organizational climate?

In order to answer the proposed questions, a total number of 88 industries located in the state of Oklahoma, which have been determined to employ between 100-250 blue-collar workers, were selected. Of the 88 industries, 23 percent were randomly selected and utilized in the

study. This 23 percent made the actual study population a total of 20 industries in the state of Oklahoma. Of the 1196 full-time blue-collar workers, twenty-five percent (300) sample were selected. A total of 300 questionnaires were mailed to randomly selected sample blue-collar workers in selected Oklahoma industries. Within two weeks 99 questionnaires were returned. A follow-up letter and copy of the original questionnaire was mailed to the non-respondents. Within six weeks a total of 151 questionnaires were returned. These were used to collect the necessary data for the study.

Two separate measuring instruments were used; one measured blue-collar workers' satisfaction with five areas of their job: the other measured nine dimensions descriptive of organizational climate of the industries. In addition, a series of questions were included to obtain demographic data from the participants. Job satisfaction was measured by the Job Descriptive Index developed by Smith et. al (1969) consisting of the five dimensions of work, pay, promotion, supervision, and co-workers. The organizational climate questionnaire (Form B) developed by Litwin and Stringer (1968) was used to measure the perceived organizational climates of the two types of selected industries. The organizational climate questionnaire (Form B) consists of nine subscales: structure, responsibility, reward, risk, warmth, support, standards, conflict, and identity.

The returned questionnaires were coded, tabulated, key punched, and verified. The Oklahoma State University computer center analyzed the collected data by utilizing SAS (Statistical Analysis System). The significance level for study to accept or reject the null hypotheses was at .05. Other statistical procedures used for this study were

described in detail in Chapter 3.

Summary of the Findings

Computations of the job satisfaction mean scores for industry type one and industry type two revealed a high level of satisfaction for industry type one. For both types of industry the highest level of satisfaction was expressed in terms of interrelationship with co-workers; the lowest degree of satisfaction for type one was with promotion policies; and the least amount of satisfaction for type two was with salary.

Both industry blue-collar workers scored above the mean in their perception of the organizational climate. For type one the highest score was on support scale while the lowest score for type one was on conflict scale. The highest mean score for type two was on warmth and the lowest was identity.

Hypothesis 1 proposed that there was no significant difference between overall job satisfaction of blue-collar workers in different industries with regard to the size of the organization. The results of a t-test proceeded to the rejection of this null hypothesis since the computed t value of 7.05 was significant beyond the .05 level.

Hypothesis 2 stated that there was no significant difference between the organizational climate of small (type one) and large (type two) industries as it is perceived by blue-collar workers in these organizations. This hypothesis was not supported by data, therefore it was rejected.

Hypothesis 3 stated that there was no significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of blue collar workers in selected

industries and the organizational climate of these organizations. A strong coefficient .89 which has been produced by computation of the Pearson Product Moment Correlation, led to the rejection of the null hypothesis.

Hypothesis 3a to 3g were designed to test the relationship between the job satisfaction and the organizational climate, while controlling for the effects of different demographic variables. A calculation of partial correlation for each of these variables indicated that in all cases the relationship between the two major variables remained strong (from .82 to .89). Therefore, hypotheses 3a to 3g were all rejected.

Conclusion

Blue-collar workers in both types (one and two) industries had a positive perception of their organizations. They perceived their organizations to be far from being bureaucratic, plagued with red tape, and rigid rules and regulations. High mean scores on the reward scale for industry type one revealed the prevalence of the feeling of being rewarded for a job well done and fairness of the pay and promotion policies. It also emphasized positive rewards rather than punishment. While high mean scores on the conflict scale for industry type two indicated the prevalence of the feeling that managers and other workers want to hear different opinions; emphasis was placed on getting problems out in the open, rather than smothering or ignoring them. In general, high mean scores on overall satisfaction for industry type one indicated that blue-collar workers who are employed by industry type one are more satisfied than industry type two. This notion was supported by Merryman and Shani's study which indicated the average employee

satisfaction in a small company was significantly higher than the average job satisfaction in a large company (1976). The high mean scores on co-workers scale for both types of industry suggested the notion that there is a good relationship among the co-workers, they help each other, care about each other, and also motivate each other for better performance.

As the Pearson Correlation Computation suggested, work supervision, salary, promotion and co-workers are highly correlated with satisfaction and climate. Structure, responsibility, reward, risk, warmth, support and standard revealed a positive correlation with both satisfaction and climate for both types of industries. Size showed the negative correlation with the above mentioned scales. This finding was supported by Beer's study which noted, most of the research suggested an inverse relationship between size of the company and job satisfaction (1964). Porter submitted a solution to the apparent inverse relationship between the size of an organization and the job satisfaction of the employees. He stated that,

Increasing the size of the total organization, and thereby achieving the technical advantage of large scale organizations, will not necessarily tend to reduce the job satisfaction and morale of employees, as long as interorganizational units are kept small (1963, p. 396).

The compiled data noted that salary and overall job satisfaction were highly correlated for both types of industry. The correlation coefficients respectively were .96 for industry type one and .92 for industry type two. Their findings tend to support the notion that pay is important in the level of satisfaction a job may provide (1967). This was further confirmed by Quinn's study (1974).

Roscow suggested that pay ranks high on any list of employee

expectations. He conducted a survey in which 77 percent of the workers reported "good wages" as the most important aspect of the job. He concluded that for the person who needs to work to maintain a livelihood, pay is a major factor in the satisfaction of the job (1981). A significant relationship was also indicated between salary and climate factors. In other words, the data suggested since salary is an important factor in one's level of satisfaction, it has a relationship with one's level of responsibility, the amount of support one receives from his superiors, and the level of identity with the organization.

The computation of a t-test indicated that there is a significant difference between the perceptions of organizational climate for the two types of industry. The blue-collar workers in industry type one perceived their organizational climate better than blue-collar workers in industry type two. Type one industry workers found their organization to be far from being bureaucratic or plagued with rigid rules and regulations. They had a feeling of being their own boss, rewarded for jobs well done, challenged in the job and in the organization, good fellowship and friendly work group atmosphere, and the feeling that they belonged to a company as a valuable member of a working team (Litwin & Stringer 1968). Meanwhile, their counterparts from industry type two found their organization as being bureaucratic and plagued with red-tape, with a feeling of not being their own boss, they perceived the rewards to be less fairly distributed for a job well done, and they did not feel that they were valuable to the company. This finding is congruent with the argument that as size increases so does the level of formalization and specialization; therefore, it is necessary to increase formal rules and regulations to maintain coordination

among diverse subunits (Jackson and Morgan 1978). It should be remembered that in all cases, the computed mean scores were above the average; that is, the description of organizational climate and all its different aspects were more positive than negative.

The two groups of blue-collar workers differed significantly in their levels of satisfaction ($t=7.04$, $P.01$). In both cases, however, the weighted meanscores for the industry type one (2.18) was above the average while the industry type two (1.48) was below the average. The high mean score on co-workers scale was indicative of the prevalence of good fellowship and a general feeling of friendly work group atmosphere. In the case of industry type two, the weighted mean scores of satisfaction with work, supervision, salary, promotion all were below the mean average except co-workers which respectively were (1.34, 1.40, 1.30, 1.36 and 1.64). The presented data was an indication of dissatisfaction of blue-collar workers in industry type two. In general it can be concluded that the size of the industry affected overall job satisfaction of blue-collar workers under study. In otherwords, blue-collar workers in small size industries were more satisfied than their counterparts in the larger industries.

The organizational climate and job satisfaction of blue-collar workers were found to be highly correlated in both types of industry. Therefore, this study supported the results of other studies (some of which were reported in Chapters 1 & 2) which found a strong positive relationship between organizational climate and job satisfaction.

The computations of partial correlation coefficients for the effects of different demographic variables suggested that the relationship between the two major variables of job satisfaction and organiza-

tion climate remained significantly strong when the effects of these variables were correlated for. The control variables were: age, sex, level of income, length of service with current industry, length of the industrial experience, level of formal education and the size of industry.

Blue-collar workers in industry type one did not see any relationship between one's sex and work, supervision, salary, co-worker, overall satisfaction, responsibility, risk and standard. Other variables such as age, education, experience, length of service and income however, revealed a relatively significant relationship to all aspects of job satisfaction and organizational climate in industry type one.

Blue-collar workers in industry type two saw a negative correlation between one's sex and other aspects of job satisfaction and organizational climate. Other variables showed a positive correlation to other aspects of job satisfaction and organizational climate.

Recommendations For Further Practice and Research

The low mean scores of type two industry blue-collar workers on work, supervision, salary, promotion, suggest a strong need for improvement in these areas. The low mean score in work scale is an indication that blue-collar workers in type two industry are not satisfied with their work. In other words, their work is not fascinating, pleasant, challenging, creative, or useful. They view their jobs as frustrating, tiresome, routine, and boring. Low mean score on the supervision scale is an indication that management may be hard to please, impolite, annoying, and not considerate of worker's advice. Low mean scores on pay and promotion scales revealed that the blue-

collar workers in type two industry do not receive adequate income for normal expenses, have feelings of insecurity, see no opportunity for advancement, and view promotion policies as unfair. Therefore, the following recommendations for further practice are suggested based on the results of this study and are made to blue-collar workers, particularly the management of the industry type two. The four areas with which blue-collar workers had least satisfaction should be of major concern.

As was discussed in Chapters IV & V, promotional opportunities in type two industries are limited by the small structure of the organization. Blue-collar workers with expectations of "climbing the ladder" and limited understanding of industry type two structure may be somewhat disappointed. One way to eliminate this problem would be to brief all new blue-collar workers on the structure and policies of the organization. This would also serve to increase the understanding level of blue-collar workers and help them in determining their roles in their organization. Promotions as well as pay, are means of recognizing that workers are performing their jobs well and making a contribution to the overall effectiveness of their organization. Finding alternative forms of recognition will help to compensate for lack of promotions and low salaries. Management should encourage all blue-collar workers to have input in decisions affecting their organization and provide opportunities for workers to share ideas and make suggestions regarding policy, procedures, and new programs.

Aware or recognition certificates for new ideas which prove effective are other ways to communicate to workers that they are important and appreciated. A picture or story in newspapers is another way to

recognize workers and fulfill their need to be needed and increase their commitment to their organization.

Most human beings need to be recognized, but individual accomplishment often seems to get lost in large organizations. Employees need to feel important, regardless of how modest their position is. Frequently, the focus of recognition in organizations is entirely on the upper echelons. Employee's contributions to their own experience, and recognition of those contributions, results in a more effective, satisfied worker. Management may need to initiate communication to facilitate opportunities for those contributions.

With regard to work scale, management may solve this problem by rotating the employees and help them to find their area of interest. Workers should be permitted to stay in a job that they like. In general if employees are given the opportunity to voice their feelings and be heard, solutions to problems in the work may be found.

When the communication channels are open, solutions may result, as well as higher degrees of job satisfaction in employees. The more satisfied workers are the more productive they will be in helping their organization effectively.

Research

1. A further study needs to be conducted to cover larger proportion of Oklahoma industries, in order to promote the degree of generalizability.
2. Since the sample of present study was restricted to Oklahoma industries a larger and more representative sample consisting of different states in the U.S.A. is highly recommended for future studies.

3. Since the industries under investigation were divided by size, the division by technology called for further study.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A
RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE QUESTIONNAIRE (Form B)

Note: The subject could respond Definitely Agree, Inclined to Agree, Incline to Disagree, or Definitely Disagree.

1. Structure

The jobs in this organization are clearly defined and logically structured.

In this organization it is sometimes unclear who has the formal authority to make decision.

The policies and organization structure of the organization have been clearly explained.

Red tape is kept to a minimum in this organization.

Excessive rules, administrative details, and re-tape make it difficult for new and original ideas to receive consideration.

Our productivity sometimes suffers from lack of organization and planning.

In some of the projects I've been on, I haven't been sure exactly who my boss was.

Our management isn't so concerned about formal organization and authority, but concentrates instead on getting the right people together to do the job.

2. Responsibility

We don't rely too heavily on individual judgment in this organization; almost everything is double-checked.

Around here management resents your checking everything with them; if you think you've got the right approach you just go ahead.

Supervision in this organization is mainly a matter of setting guidelines for your subordinates; you let them take responsibility for their job.

You won't get ahead in this organization unless you stick your neck out and try things on your own sometimes.

Our philosophy emphasizes that people should solve their problems by themselves.

There are an awful lot of excuses around here when somebody makes a mistake.

One of the problems in this organization is that individuals won't take responsibility.

3. Reward

We have a promotion system here that helps the best man to rise to the top.

In this organization the rewards and encouragements you get usually outweigh the threats and the criticism.

In this organization people are rewarded in proportion to the excellence of their job performance.

- There is a great deal of criticism in this organization.

There is not enough reward and recognition given in this organization for doing good work.

If you make a mistake in this organization you will be punished.

4. Risk

The philosophy of our management is that in the long run we get ahead fastest by playing it slow, safe and sure.

Our business has been built up by taking calculated risks at the right time.

Decision making in this organization is too cautious for maximum effectiveness.

Our management is willing to take a chance on a good idea.

We have to take some pretty big risks occasionally to keep ahead of the competition in the business we're in.

5. Warmth

A friendly atmosphere prevails among the people in this organization.

This organization is characterized by a relaxed, easy-going working climate.

It's very hard to get to know people in this organization.

People in this organization tend to be cool and aloof toward each other.

There is a lot of warmth in the relationships between managements and workers in this organization.

6. Support

You don't get much sympathy from higher-ups in this organization if you make a mistake.

Management makes an effort to talk with you about your career aspirations within the organization.

People in this organization don't really trust each other enough.

The philosophy of our management emphasizes the human factor, how people feel, etc.

When I am on a difficult assignment I can usually count on getting assistance from my boss and co-workers.

7. Standards

In this organization we set very high standards for performance.

Our management believes that no job is so well done that it couldn't be done better.

Around here there is a feeling of pressure to continually improve our personal and group performance.

Management believes that if the people are happy, productivity will take care of itself.

To get ahead in this organization it's more important to get along than it is to be a high producer.

In this organization people don't seem to take much pride in their performance.

8. Conflict

The best way to make a good impression around here is to steer clear of open arguments and disagreements.

The attitude of our management is that conflict between competing units and individuals can be very healthy.

We are encouraged to speak our minds, even if it means disagreeing with our superiors.

In management meetings the goal is to arrive at a decision as smoothly and quickly as possible.

9. Identity

People are proud of belonging to this organization.

I feel that I am a member of a well functioning team.

As far as I can see, there isn't very much personal loyalty to the company.

In this organization people pretty much look out for their own interests.



Oklahoma State University

SCHOOL OF OCCUPATIONAL AND ADULT EDUCATION

STILLWATER OKLAHOMA 74078
CLASSROOM BUILDING 406
(405) 624-6275

Dear Respondent:

Your responses to this questionnaire are anonymous and will be greatly appreciated.

Only questionnaires that have a single response to every question can be processed, so please be careful that you do not inadvertently skip a question or have two answers for a single question.

Thank you for your cooperation in this project.

Sincerely,

M. Mirfa hrai
Graduate Student
Oklahoma State University

MM/kp

PLEASE ANSWER ALL QUESTIONS

1. What is your age?
 - A. 16 - 22 _____
 - B. 23 - 29 _____
 - C. 30 - 36 _____
 - D. 37 - 43 _____
 - E. 44 - 50 _____
 - F. 51 - 57 _____
 - G. 58 or above _____

2. What is your sex? Female _____ Male _____

3. How much education have you had?
 - A. Less than a high school diploma _____
 - B. High school diploma _____
 - C. Some college (1-2 years) _____
 - D. College degree (B.S./B.A.) _____
 - E. Other _____

4. How many years of industrial experience do you have? _____

5. How many years have you been with this firm? _____

6. Check the category which most accurately describes your gross income.
 - A. \$ 8,000 - 13,999 _____
 - B. 14,000 - 19,999 _____
 - C. 20,000 - 25,999 _____
 - D. 26,000 - 30,999 _____
 - E. 31,000 - 35,999 _____
 - F. 36,000 - 40,999 _____
 - G. 41,000 - 45,999 _____
 - H. 46,000 or above _____

A. Work

Think of your present work. What is it like most of the time? In the blank beside each word given below write:

Y for "YES" if it describes your work.

N for "NO" if it does not describe it.

? if you cannot decide.

- | | |
|----------------------|---|
| 1. _____ Fascinating | 9. _____ Useful |
| 2. _____ Routine | 10. _____ Tiresome |
| 3. _____ Satisfying | 11. _____ Healthful |
| 4. _____ Boring | 12. _____ Challenging |
| 5. _____ Good | 13. _____ Frustrating |
| 6. _____ Creative | 14. _____ Simple |
| 7. _____ Respected | 15. _____ Endless |
| 8. _____ Pleasant | 16. _____ Gives a sense of accomplishment |

B. Supervision

Think of those in your organization who in any way direct, coordinate, or supervise your activity. What is the most usual relationship? In the blank beside each word given below, write:

Y for "YES" if it describes the management.

N for "NO" if it does not describe it.

? if you cannot decide.

- | | |
|------------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 17. _____ Asks my advice | 26. _____ Tells me where I stand |
| 18. _____ Hard to please | 27. _____ Annoying |
| 19. _____ Impolite | 28. _____ Stubborn |
| 20. _____ Praises good work | 29. _____ Knows job well |
| 21. _____ Tactful | 30. _____ Intelligent |
| 22. _____ Influential | 31. _____ Leaves me on my own |
| 23. _____ Up-to-date | 32. _____ Lazy |
| 24. _____ Doesn't supervise enough | 33. _____ Around when needed |
| 25. _____ Quick tempered | |

C. Salary

Think of your present salary. Try to describe it as accurately as possible. In the blank beside each word given below, write:

Y for "YES" if it describes your salary.

N for "NO" if it does not describe it.

? if you cannot decide.

34. _____ Income adequate for normal expenses
35. _____ Satisfactory fringe benefits
36. _____ Barely live on income
37. _____ Bad
38. _____ Income provides luxuries
39. _____ Insecure
40. _____ Less than I deserve
41. _____ Highly paid
42. _____ Underpaid

D. Promotion

Think about the promotion practices in your organization. In the blank beside each word given below, write:

Y for "YES" if it describes promotion practices in your organization.

N for "NO" if it does not describe them.

? if you cannot decide

43. _____ Good opportunity for advancement
44. _____ Opportunity somewhat limited
45. _____ Promotion on ability
46. _____ Dead-end job
47. _____ Good chance for promotion
48. _____ Unfair promotion policy
49. _____ Infrequent promotions
50. _____ Regular promotions
51. _____ Fairly good chance for promotion

E. Co-workers

Think of your departmental colleagues. What are they like most of the time? In the blank beside each word given below, write:

Y for "YES" if it describes your colleagues

N for "NO" if it does not describe them

? if you cannot decide

52. _____ Stimulating
53. _____ Boring
54. _____ Slow
55. _____ Ambitious
56. _____ Responsible
57. _____ Fast
58. _____ Intelligent
59. _____ Easy to make enemies
60. _____ Talk too much
61. _____ Smart
62. _____ Lazy
63. _____ Unpleasant
64. _____ No privacy
65. _____ Active
66. _____ Narrow interests
67. _____ Loyal
68. _____ Hard to meet

CLIMATE QUESTIONNAIRE (FORM B)

Items in the Climate Questionnaire (Form B) by George H. Litwin and Robert A. Stringer, Jr. Subjects respond by indicating:

Strongly Agree; Agree; Undecided; Disagree; or Strongly Disagree

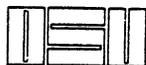
	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Undecided</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>
1. The jobs in this organization are clearly defined and logically structured.	1	2	3	4	5
2. We don't rely heavily on individual judgment in this organization; almost everything is double checked.	1	2	3	4	5
3. We have a promotion system here that helps the best individual rise to the top.	1	2	3	4	5
4. The philosophy of our management is that in the long run we get ahead fastest by playing it slow, safe, and sure.	1	2	3	4	5
5. A friendly atmosphere prevails among the people in this organization	1	2	3	4	5
6. You don't get much sympathy from higher-ups in this organization if you make a mistake.	1	2	3	4	5
7. In this organization we set very high standards for performance.	1	2	3	4	5
8. The best way to make a good impression around here is to stay clear of open arguments and disagreements.	1	2	3	4	5
9. People are proud of belonging to this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
10. In this organization it is sometimes unclear who has the formal authority to make a decision.	1	2	3	4	5

	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Undecided</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>
11. Around here the management resents your checking everything with them; if you think you've got the right approach you just go ahead.	1	2	3	4	5
12. In this organization the rewards and encouragements you get usually outweigh the threats and criticism.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Decision making in this institution is too cautious for maximum effectiveness.	1	2	3	4	5
14. This organization is characterized by a relaxed, easy-going working climate.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Our management believes that no job is so well done that it couldn't be done better.	1	2	3	4	5
16. The attitude of our management is that conflict between competing units and individuals can be very healthy.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I feel that I am a member of a well functioning team.	1	2	3	4	5
18. The policies and organization structure of the organization have been clearly explained.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Supervision in this organization is mainly a matter of setting guidelines for your staff; you let them take responsibility for the job.	1	2	3	4	5
20. In this organization people are rewarded in proportion to the excellence of their performance.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Our management is willing to take a chance on a good idea.	1	2	3	4	5
22. It's very hard to get to know people in this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Around here there is a feeling of pressure to continually improve our personal and group performance.	1	2	3	4	5
24. We are encouraged to speak our minds, even if it means disagreeing with other managers.	1	2	3	4	5

	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Undecided</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>
25. As far as I can see, there isn't very much personal loyalty to the organization.	1	2	3	4	5
26. Red-tape is kept to a minimum in this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
27. You won't get ahead in this organization unless you stick your neck out and try things on your own sometimes.	1	2	3	4	5
28. There is a great deal of criticism in this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
29. People in this organization tend to be cool and aloof toward each other.	1	2	3	4	5
30. Management makes an effort to talk with you about your career aspirations within the organization.	1	2	3	4	5
31. Management believes that if the people are happy, productivity will take care of itself.	1	2	3	4	5
32. In meetings, the goal is to arrive at a decision as smoothly and quickly as possible.	1	2	3	4	5
33. In this organization people pretty much look out for their own interests.	1	2	3	4	5
34. Excessive rules, administrative details, and red-tape make it difficult for new and original ideas to receive consideration.	1	2	3	4	5
35. Our philosophy emphasizes that people solve their problems by themselves.	1	2	3	4	5
36. There is not enough reward and recognition given in this organization for doing good work.	1	2	3	4	5
37. There is a lot of warmth in the relationship between management and staff in this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
38. The philosophy of our management emphasizes the human factor, how people feel, etc.	1	2	3	4	5

	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Undecided</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>
39. To get ahead in this organization it's more important to get along than it is to be a high performer.	1	2	3	4	5
40. Our productivity sometimes suffers from lack of organization and PLANNING.	1	2	3	4	5
41. There are an awful lot of excuses around here when somebody makes a mistake.	1	2	3	4	5
42. People in this organization don't really trust each other enough.	1	2	3	4	5
43. In this organization people don't seem to take much pride in their performance.	1	2	3	4	5
44. Our management isn't so concerned about formal organization and authority, but concentrate instead on getting the right people.	1	2	3	4	5
45. One of the problems in this organization is that individuals won't take responsibility.	1	2	3	4	5
46. If you make a mistake in this organization you will be punished.	1	2	3	4	5
47. When I am on a difficult assignment, I can really count on getting assistance from other management and co-workers.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX B
COVER LETTERS



Oklahoma State University

SCHOOL OF OCCUPATIONAL AND ADULT EDUCATION

STILLWATER, OKLAHOMA 74078
CLASSROOM BUILDING 406
(405) 624-6275

Dear Manager:

The purpose of this letter is to introduce myself, to explain my research project, and to request your cooperation and assistance.

I am completing a doctoral program in Occupational and Adult Education at Oklahoma State University. I have a deep interest in the educational purpose of how to improve the productivity of workers and to motivate them to perform better in job situations.

The purpose of this study is to investigate and analyze those variables which are important for developing and improving the productivity and make the worker perform better in his/her job situation. Your company has been identified as one having 100 to 250 employees in the state of Oklahoma. The enclosed questionnaires consist of two parts:

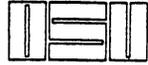
- (1) A data gathering instrument concerning the job satisfaction of workers.
- (2) To investigate and compile data concerning the climate of organization for improving the performance of workers in job situations.

In order to initiate my study, I will need a listing of twenty to thirty blue collar workers employed by your company. I would appreciate receiving this listing at your earliest convenience. A self-addressed stamped envelope has been provided for your use. I propose to mail the research questionnaire directly to each employee who is selected to participate in the study. No individual or industry will be identified by name in reporting the results of the study. Responses will be treated confidentially. All industries participating in the study will receive a copy of the results. I will look forward to hearing from you in the near future.

Sincerely,

Dr. Jerry G. Davis
Thesis Advisor

Mohammad M. MirFakhrai
Graduate Student
700 W. Scott #311
Stillwater, OK 74074
Tel: 405-624-9170



Oklahoma State University

SCHOOL OF OCCUPATIONAL AND ADULT EDUCATION

STILLWATER, OKLAHOMA 74078
CLASSROOM BUILDING 406
(405) 624-6275

Recently we sent a copy of the enclosed questionnaire to you asking for your help in a research project concerning the work environment of your organizations. We have not heard from you and since the possibility exists that your response may have been lost in the mail or mislaid, we have enclosed another for your convenience.

Again let us assure you that neither you nor your institution will be identified in the reported results. Your input is very important to the study.

Thank you for your help. We will look forward to hearing from you.

Sincerely,

Mohammad H. Mirfakhrai
Graduate Student
700 West Scott #311
Stillwater, OK 74074
(405) 624-9170

Dr. Jerry G. Davis
Thesis Advisor

2
VITA

Mohammad H. Mirfakhrai

Candidate for the Degree of
Doctor of Education

Thesis: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE AND JOB
SATISFACTION OF BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS IN SELECTED OKLAHOMA
INDUSTRIES

Major Field: Occupational and Adult Education

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Tehran, Iran, November 15, 1948, the
son of Mr. Bagher Mirfakhrai and Mrs. Zahera Yasdansapas.

Education: Graduated from DaralFonoon High School, Tehran,
Iran in June 1964; received Bachelor of Arts Degree from
College of Translation, Tehran, Iran in July 1977;
received Master of Education Degree from Phillips Univer-
sity, Enid, Oklahoma in May 1980; completed requirements
for the Doctor of Education Degree at Oklahoma State
University in December, 1985.