Theses   Theses & Dissertations

1991

The Impact of Organizational Shape on the Intrinsic Job Satisfaction of White-Collar Workers

Bernie L. Alexander

**THE IMPACT OF ORGANIZATIONAL SHAPE
ON THE INTRINSIC JOB SATISFACTION
OF WHITE-COLLAR WORKERS**

Bernie L. Alexander, B.A.

An Abstract Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate
School of Lindenwood College in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirements for the
Degree of Master of Business Administration

1991

ABSTRACT

This thesis focuses on the study of job satisfaction and the impact of organizational shape on the intrinsic job satisfaction of white-collar workers.

Research has attributed the decline in white-collar job satisfaction to such things as over-complex organizational structures, broad spans-of-control and job specialization.

The purpose of the present study is to investigate the possibility that, within a corporate setting, there is a difference between the intrinsic job satisfaction of white-collar workers who are employed by flat, de-centralized organizations and those who work for tall, centralized organizations. Specifically, it is hy-pothesized that white-collar workers of flat, decen-tralized organizations have greater intrinsic job satisfaction than white-collar workers of tall, centralized organizations.

One-hundred graduate and undergraduate students

participated in the study, sixty-one males and thirty-nine females. The subjects were administered an investigator-designed, two-part survey adapted from the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (short form). The purpose of the survey was to measure the differences in intrinsic job satisfaction between white-collar workers employed by flat, decentralized organizations and white-collar workers employed by tall, centralized organizations. The data were analyzed using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (r).

Results of the analysis produced sufficient evidence to support the hypothesis and to conclude that, within this sample pool, white-collar workers of flat, decentralized organizations have greater intrinsic job satisfaction than white-collar workers of tall, centralized organizations.

2

**THE IMPACT OF ORGANIZATIONAL SHAPE
ON THE INTRINSIC JOB SATISFACTION
OF WHITE-COLLAR WORKERS**

Bernie L. Alexander, B.A.

A Culminating Project Presented to the Faculty of the
Graduate School of Lindenwood College in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirements for the
Degree of Master of Business Administration

1991

COMMITTEE IN CHARGE OF CANDIDACY:

Assistant Professor Daniel Kemper, M.B.A.
                    Chairperson and Advisor

Adjunct Professor Joseph Ancona, M.B.A.

Adjunct Professor Carolyn Scott, M.A.

DEDICATION

To Micah, Bethany, and Bridget who have sacrificed
beyond words during the course of these studies. I
Love You!

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am foremost, eternally gratefully to my absolute best friend, Jesus, for making this possible. Second, a special thank-you to my advisor and chair, Daniel Kemper for his great sense of humor and kind words of encouragement. And finally, sincere thanks to the members of my committee, Joe Ancona and Carolyn Scott who so willingly consented to read and edit my work.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

List of Tables

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

Job Satisfaction

With the exception of a few highly specialized
journals and periodicals, it is difficult to read a
publication today without seeing at least one article
dealing with job satisfaction (Scanlan 12).

Since the publication of Fritz Roethlisberger and
W.J. Dickson's "Management and the Worker" and Robert
Hoppock's monograph on job satisfaction in the 1930's,
research on the topic of job satisfaction has increased
rapidly. To date over 3,000 articles have been
published on this subject (Locke 309).

Job Satisfaction Defined

Researchers have defined the term "job
satisfaction" in a number of different ways. For
example, Edwin Locke defined job satisfaction as the
pleasurable emotional state that comes from an
evaluation of how well a job achieves or helps to
achieve personal job values. Locke believed that job

1

satisfaction occurred when one's job delivered what the individual thought it should deliver (315).

The evaluation process to which Locke referred consisted of the following three elements: 1) a perception of some aspect of the job; 2) a real or implied value standard; and 3) a conscious or subconscious judgement of the relationship between one's perceptions and one's values. For instance, Locke contended that it is possible to predict an employee's satisfaction with the length of his or her work week if the following factors are known: 1) how many hours the employee (believes he/she) is working; 2) how many hours a week the employee wants to work (ideally); and 3) the judged relationship (difference) between these two figures (316).

Hoppock, on the other hand, saw job satisfaction as a combination of psychological, physiological, and environmental circumstances that cause one to truthfully say, "I am satisfied with my job" (Hoppock 47).

In a universal sense, job satisfaction is often described as feeling good about one's work. The keys

to job satisfaction include high pay, excellent
benefits, plush offices, good promotional
opportunities, interesting and challenging work,
friendly, competent co-workers, and an organizational
structure which gives employees the freedom to make
decisions affecting their careers. In essence, job
satisfaction is the difference between what the
employee wants, expects or needs from a job and what he
or she actually receives. The closer these two
elements are, the greater the job satisfaction (Mc Afee
33).

Intrinsic and Extrinsic Sources

All sources of job satisfaction can be divided
into two categories: intrinsic and extrinsic.
Intrinsic sources come from within the individual and
have psychological value. Such satisfactions are
basically self-administered. Autonomy (independence,
such as the ability to choose one's own work pace) is
one source of intrinsic satisfaction (Vecchio 120).

Extrinsic sources of satisfaction come from the
individual's environment and are tangible in nature.

Forces beyond the individual's control determine the magnitude and frequency of extrinsic satisfaction. Working conditions, fringe benefits, job security, and opportunities to interact with coworkers are sources of extrinsic satisfaction (120).

Some sources of satisfaction can have both intrinsic and extrinsic value because of what they symbolize, i.e., a high salary and rapid career advancement (120).

Paul Wernimont's writings on the topic were similar to Robert Vecchio's. Wernimont argued that job satisfaction is determined by the "work contract." He believed that employees come to the job with culturally influenced views as to what the company and management are expected to contribute in return for the employee's efforts and costs. These returns are the extrinsic factors. Employees also have definite views about what they are to contribute and of what is expected in return. What the company as a whole will get from the employee is tied in with and dependent upon whether the employee attains personal goals and aspirations.

These goals and aspirations are the intrinsic factors (Wernimont 49).

Nancy Morse joined Vecchio and Wernimont in their theories regarding intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction but went on to suggest a possible strong positive relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction and the extent to which employees are permitted to make decisions and vary their tasks. In other words, the more decisions employees are permitted to make and the more varied the tasks, the higher their level of intrinsic job satisfaction. Employees who are denied decision making opportunities and variety of tasks obtain little intrinsic satisfaction and are of limited value to the company (Morse 72).

Determinants of Job Satisfaction

Despite the fact that a large number of studies have been done on the subject of job satisfaction, little is understood about its cause. There is still confusion over whether the determinants lie solely within the job itself (the "intrinsic" view), or

between the worker and the environment (the "extrinsic" view). Locke maintained that the causes of job satisfaction do not lie in the job or solely in one's environment but lie in the relationship between the job and the environment (Locke 319).

The idea that job satisfaction is the result of an interaction between the person and the environment is not new. In 1939, Roethlisberger and Dickson wrote that workers' attitudes towards objects in the work place were related to the relationship between an organism (human being) and its physical environment (Roethlisberger and Dickson 261-62).

Several years later Renis Likert wrote that a subordinate's reaction to the supervisor's behavior always depends upon how that behavior is related to the subordinate's expectations, values and interpersonal skills (Likert 94-95). If, for example, the supervisor's behavior is consistent with how the employee expects the supervisor to act in a given situation, based upon the employee's value system, that behavior will be acceptable to the employee. On the other hand, supervisory behavior which is inconsistent

with the subordinate's expectations and values will be thwarted because the subordinate does not possess the interpersonal skills necessary to handle this behavior effectively. R. H. Rosen and R. A. Rosen also believed in a relationship between job satisfaction, perception and value standards (Locke 319).

Despite the apparent similarities among authors, the concept of value was not used consistently by all researchers and was later either replaced by or used synonymously with the concepts of expectation and need (319).

Expectation is a term denoting an individual's beliefs about what will occur in the future. What is expected, however, may or may not correspond with what is valued (320). For example, the company for which Mrs. Jones has worked for the past six months has just announced an impending cutback in her clerical pool. Since Mrs. Jones has the least seniority she thinks her job will be terminated (expected). However, she likes her job and needs the money (value).

From an empirical point of view, values and expectations often coincide, because most people value

only that which they have some reasonable chance of attaining (320).

The concept of need comes from the fact that living organisms require certain objects and conditions to maintain their physical health and survival (320).

Much has been written about the relationship between need fulfillment and job satisfaction. Some of the more popular writers on this subject include Robert Schaffer, Abraham Maslow, and John Ivancevich.

Schaffer suggested that one's job satisfaction depends upon the extent to which the following twelve needs are fulfilled:

A. <u>Recognition</u>. The need to have the works which are associated with one's job known and approved by others.

B. <u>Affection and Interpersonal Relationships</u>. The need to have a feeling of belonging with and acceptance by other people.

C. <u>Mastery and Achievement</u>. The need to perform satisfactorily according to one's own standards and perception of one's abilities.

D. <u>Dominance</u>. The need to have power and control

over others.

E. <u>Social Welfare</u>. the need to help others and to have one's efforts benefit others.

F. <u>Self-expression</u>. the need to have one's behavior consistent with one's self-concept.

G. <u>Socioeconomic Status</u>. The need to maintain one's self and family in accordance with certain standards with respect to material matters.

H. <u>Moral Value Scheme</u>. The need to have one's behavior consistent with a moral code or structure.

I. <u>Dependence</u>. The need to be controlled by others. Dislike of responsibility for one's own behavior.

J. <u>Creativity and Challenge</u>. The need for meeting new problems requiring initiative and inventiveness, and or producing novel works.

K. <u>Economic Security</u>. The need to feel assured of steady income. Unwillingness to "take a chance."

L. <u>Independence</u>. The need to direct one's own behavior rather than be directed by others (Schaffer 4-5).

Schaffer's writings leads one to conclude that these twelve needs are common to all workers and that

employees who have all twelve needs fulfilled are more

satisfied than those workers whose needs are only

partially fulfilled.

Maslow agreed with Schaffer but went on to devise

a model for explaining the essential needs for healthy

psychological development (Vecchio 173).

According to Maslow, needs can be classified into

a hierarchy, with the more essential needs at the

bottom of the hierarchy. Maslow's hierarchy is

illustrated in Figure 1. Lower-order needs (deficiency

needs), must be satisfied to ensure a person's very

existence and security. Higher-order needs (growth

needs), are concerned with personal development and

realization of one's potential. The specific needs

under each category are arranged into a five-step

hierarchy showing the increasingly psychological nature

of each set (174).

Figure 1

Maslow's Hierarchy of Need
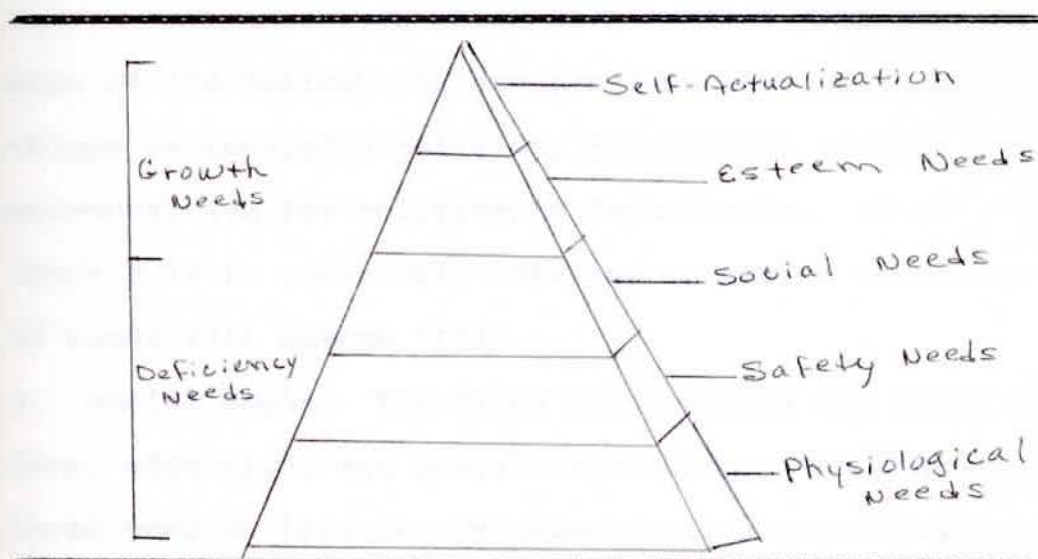
SOURCE: Vecchio, Robert P. <u>Organizational Behavior.</u>
Chicago: The Dryden Press, 1988.

Deficiency Needs

1. Physiological needs.   The most basic level of
Maslow's hierarchy includes the needs for food, water,
oxygen, sleep, warmth, and freedom from pain.   If these
needs are not satisfied, an individual's actions will
be dominated by attempts to fulfill them.   If these

needs are sufficiently met, the second group of needs emerge (174).

2. Safety needs. These needs involve obtaining a secure environment in which to live free from threats. Some of the devices society provides include such things as insurance policies, job-tenure, savings accounts, and law enforcement departments. If an individual is reasonably safe and secure, a third set of needs will emerge (174).

3. Social needs. The third set includes the needs for love, affection, and sexual expression. The absence of loved ones or friends can cause serious psychological maladjustment (174).

Growth Needs

4. Esteem needs. If the deficiency needs have been reasonably satisfied, a concern for self-respect and the esteem of others may develop. Esteem-needs include the desires for recognition, achievement, and prestige, as well as appreciation and attention from others (174).

5. Self-actualization needs. The category includes

5. Self-actualization needs. The category includes one's desire for self-fulfillment. Personal development is often expressed in many different ways, i.e., artistically, athletically, maternally, or occupationally. Not all people have the desire to develop their own potential. An individual who attains self-actualization will have occasional peak experiences, a sense of completeness or oneness with the universe (174).

One of Maslow's main premises was that the five need categories followed a hierarchical ordering in terms of potency. In other words, he believed that if a deficiency arose, a lower-order need could supersede a higher-order need to demand its fulfillment. For example, imagine that you are engaged in a stimulating conversation with one of your co-workers (satisfying a social need) when suddenly your oxygen is cut off. It would be difficult to think about anything else at that moment except restoring your oxygen supply, a lower-level need. This ability of lower-order needs to assert themselves is called prepotency (174).

Generally, needs arise gradually rather than

that must be reduced. Typically, needs are not 100 percent satisfied; partial satisfaction is more common. For example, physiological needs may be 85 percent satisfied, safety needs 75 percent, social needs 40 percent, etc. (175).

Organizations generally do a fairly good job of satisfying employees' lower-order needs either directly (by providing a safe, warm environment) or indirectly (by good wages that can be used to buy goods to satisfy other needs). Research by Porter suggested that upper-level employees are often concerned with growth needs that go unmet (175).

Maslow believed managers should try to create the atmosphere necessary to develop employees' potential to their fullest. A poor work environment, Maslow contended, leads to low job satisfaction (175).

Ivancevich agreed with Maslow's needs-hierarchy concept and emphasized the importance of such things as self-actualization, autonomy, opportunities for innovativeness, social interaction, security and pay to the achievement of job satisfaction (Ivancevich 272).

Although Maslow's needs-hierarchy concept has been

Although Maslow's needs-hierarchy concept has been widely published, some researchers have had trouble validating Maslow's notion of prepotency and therefore look for other sources of job satisfaction (Vecchio 175). One researcher with a different view about what causes job satisfaction was Burt Scanlan.

According to Scanlan there are six determinants of job satisfaction. The first determinate of job satisfaction is the nature of supervision, which is broken down into the degree to which the supervisor is considerate and the degree to which the employees can influence decisions which affect them (Scanlan 12).

The second determinant of job satisfaction is the kind of work group in which the employee is located. This includes: 1) the amount of interaction between peers, 2) whether or not co-workers have similar attitudes, 3) general acceptance by the group, and 4) the amount of interaction which is necessary to attain goals. The more interaction that takes place, the more acceptance that exists and the more cohesive the group is because of similar attitudes, the greater will be the level of job satisfaction (13).

content, which takes into account the status of the job, degree of specialization, choice of work pace, and the degree to which the job utilizes the skills and abilities of the employees. A high status job which fully utilizes the skills and abilities of the employee will lead to a higher degree of job satisfaction (13).

The last three factors which influence job satisfaction are wages, opportunity for promotion, and hours of work. Wages contribute to job satisfaction if the size of the increase given is significant, given voluntarily, earned in the sense that it really reflects high levels of accomplishment, and perceived by the employees as being awarded on the basis of performance (13).

With regard to promotion, jobs which have potential for continued growth, development, and advancement tend to produce more job satisfaction (13).

Although more research needs to be done on the subject of variable working hours, on the surface it appears that job satisfaction can be increased by giving employees an opportunity to select their own working hours within prescribed limits (Scanlan 13).

Job Satisfaction and Organizational Structure

Secondary data sources have indicated a strong relationship between certain organizational structure characteristics (e.g., span of control and size) and job satisfaction. Span of control is defined as the number of subordinates a manager is responsible for supervising. The more subordinates, the greater the supervisor's span of control. The word "size" refers to the total-organization. The term total-organization means a total operating company headed by an executive with the title "president" (Porter and Lawler 33-34). Generally speaking, if a company has a chief executive with the title of president and if that company can sell stock independently of other "companies" all under the same corporate holding entity, it is considered an organization (40). The relationship between organizational structure characteristics is important because one's location in the work environment determines the environmental stimuli and experiences to which one is exposed and to which one must react. Furthermore, individuals who are satisfied with their jobs tend to

be more satisfied with life in general and vice versa (Newman 372).

All organizations are structured in that they have parts which are systematically related to other parts. However, since organizations vary in structure, it is appropriate to examine the question of whether differences in organizational structure are related to differences in job satisfaction (Porter and Lawler 23).

Using the formal structure of organizations as might be indicated in the formal "organization chart" in Figure 2, Lyman Porter and Edward Lawler identified the following seven structural properties or variables: (24).

Suborganization properties

1. Organizational levels
2. Line and staff hierarchies
3. Span of Control
4. Size: Subunits

Total-organization properties

1. Size: total organizations
2. Shape: tall or flat
3. Shape: centralized or decentralized

Figure 2

Organization Chart for XYZ Corporation
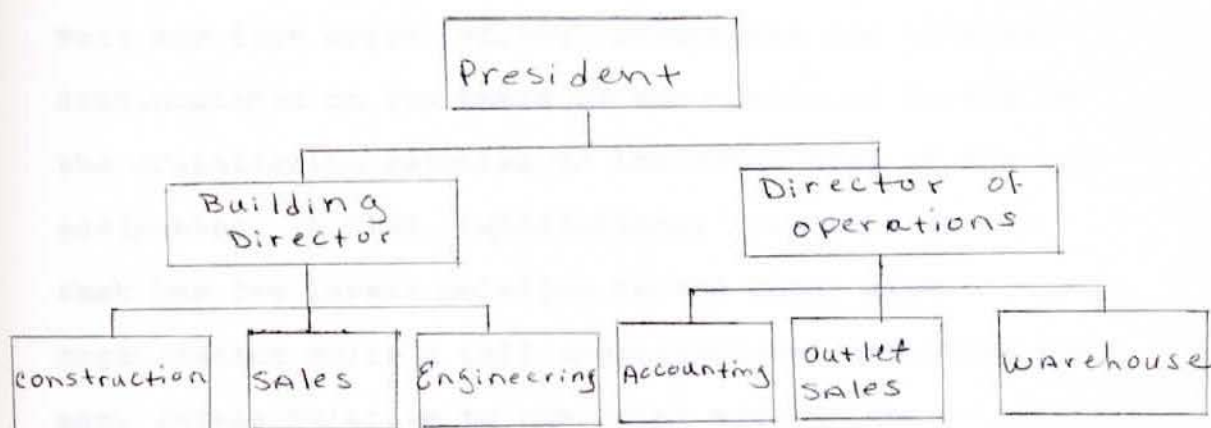
The first four variables above are considered as suborganization properties of structure because they permit comparisons of positions or parts contained within organizations with other positions and parts, either contained within the same organization or within other organizations. The last three variables are considered total-organizational properties of structure

because they require comparisons among organizations as complete entities (Porter and Lawler 24).

This study focuses on the following two variables:

1. Shape: flat or tall

2. Shape: centralized or decentralized

Tall and flat organizational structures are usually distinguished on the basis of the number of levels in the organization relative to the total size of the organization. A flat organizational structure is one that has few levels relative to the total size of the organization while a tall organizational structure has many levels relative to the total size of the organization. In other words, the degree to which an organization is tall or flat is determined by the average span of control within the organization. Overall, flatter structures tend to increase intrinsic job satisfaction (43).

Secondary data sources indicate a growing trend in large-scale organizations toward decentralization. But decentralization is often several things to different people. Some view it entirely in terms of decision-making; others see it from the standpoint of geographi-

cal dispersion of plant installations; and still others approach it from a sociological, psychological, and spiritual viewpoint (45).

This study classifies centralized and decentralized organizations based upon the level at which decisions relative to the organization and employee are made. Many articles have claimed that decentralization greatly increases intrinsic job satisfaction (45).

The assumption that decentralized organizations increase intrinsic job satisfaction leads one to the main purpose of this project: Specifically, to investigate the possibility that white-collar workers of decentralized organizations have greater intrinsic job satisfaction than white-collar workers of centralized organizations.

Chapter II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Organizational Shape and Employee Attitudes

The science of organizational analysis has
developed to the point where numerous research studies
have examined the relationship of organizational shape
to employee attitudes and behaviors. Studies done
prior to 1977 lead some researchers to conclude that
there were consistent relationships between organi-
zational shape and employee attitudes and behaviors
(Cummings and Berger 40).

According to Larry Cummings and Chris Berger, the
impact of organizational shape upon employee job satis-
faction seems to depend upon where the employee is
located within the organization. High-level executives
in tall organizations and lower-level executives in
flat organizations often experience more satisfaction
than their opposites (42).

22

Jeanne Herman and Charles Hulin, who studied organizational attitudes from an individual and organizational point of view, supported Cummings and Berger. Herman and Hulin wrote that attitude differences, in terms of job satisfaction, are related to organizational hierarchy. Furthermore, members of smaller subunits express greater job satisfaction and have less absenteeism and turnover than members of larger subunits. Studies by J. Bachman and C. Smith verify the research findings of Herman and Hulin (Herman and Hulin 85).

Sergio Talacchi agreed, in part, with Cummings and Berger but supported the idea that individual attitudes and behavior are directly related to the organization's size. Talacchi examined the impact of size, defined by the number of employees, upon employee behavior and job satisfaction (Talacchi 399).

Talacchi found that increased size and division of labor had a direct affect on the job itself. There is the possibility that as the size of the organization increases, the non-material rewards which are directly connected to the job might decrease at a faster rate than rewards associated with interpersonal relations.

Although the increased size may reduce non-material rewards, it does not affect the material rewards, i.e., salary and fringe benefits (403).

Although the idea of organizational structure has been a popular topic for many writers, there have been few empirically based field studies investigating the relationship of formal organizational structure to such variables as job satisfaction, anxiety, stress, and performance (Ivancevich 272).

John Ivancevich and James Worthy were two researchers who conducted studies on job satisfaction and organizational shape (structure). Ivancevich investigated the relationship of organizational shape or structure to job satisfaction among 295 white-collar workers in three separate organizations. The results of his study showed that white-collar workers in flat organizations perceived more self-actualization and autonomy satisfaction than their counterparts in medium and tall organizations (273).

Merits of Flat Organizations

The literature on "tall" versus "flat" organizational structures leans heavily on the merits

of flat organizations. Most of the often-voiced re-
liance on the advantages of flat organizations is based
solely upon the research of James Worthy, which was
summarized in his (1950) article, "Organizational
Structure and Employee Morale" (Porter and Siegel 379).

Worthy's study involved approximately 100,000
employees of Sears Roebuck and was done as a part of
the company's personnel program to assist executives in
efforts to maintain sound and mutually satisfying
employee relationships. This study was considered
essential to the enterprise's economic success (Worthy
169).

Worthy found overcomplexity of organizational
structure to be one of the most important causes of
poor management-employee relationships within our
modern economic system. In viewing many businesses,
Worthy could not help but be impressed by the number of
different departments and sub-departments into which
they were divided, and the extent to which both
individuals and groups had become highly specialized.
In many cases employees did only elementary, routine
functions because the jobs had been broken down into
their most elementary components. Although, the

resulting specialization had certain advantages such as requiring fewer skilled people, shorter training time, etc., often the process had been carried to such extremes that the jobs had little interest or challenge; the workers made nothing they could identify as a product of their own skill (174).

Worthy goes on to say that the sharp trend toward over-specialization in our economy has not been limited to individual jobs. Just as certain activities have been broken down into their simplest components and each component assigned to a different person, so have many operations been set up as specialized entities. The over-specialization of the functions of entire departments and sub-departments have even more serious consequences.

For one thing, it brings together in one location large numbers of employees on the same job level which is likely to be very low in cases of severe over-specialization of individual jobs (175).

Another disadvantage of over-functionalization is the fact that, from the employees' viewpoint, it tends to destroy the meaning of the job. The employees are working at highly specialized tasks which have meaning

to management because they are a necessary part of a total process, but the employees see only the small and uninteresting part to which they are assigned. In reality, the job loses all meaning for them except for their pay check (175).

According to Worthy, over-functionalization requires close and constant supervision of the employees to maintain productivity. Also, the supervisors themselves must be closely supervised and controlled to assure the necessary degree of coordination between the various departments (175).

The important point in all this is that the over-complex, over-functionalized organizational structure is likely to require a driver type of leader who resorts to the over-use of pressure as a supervisory tool. The over-use of pressure as a means of supervising is related primarily to the character of the organizational structure and only secondarily to the character of the organizational head (177).

In more centralized organizations, supervisors and executives tended to be subject to constant control and direction and had little opportunity to develop qualities of initiative and self-reliance (177).

In contrast, organizations with extensive management decentralization relied heavily on the employee's personal initiative and capacity. There was usually a lack of detailed supervision and formal controls. Executives and supervisors had considerable freedom in the way they accomplished their jobs. Employees were evaluated primarily by their results, instead of on the details of the way those results were obtained. By concentrating on end-results along with management's ability to recognize and reward good work, management decentralization created a more powerful driving force than could ever be imposed from top-down. Job satisfaction increased because employees worked in an atmosphere of relative freedom from oppressive supervisors (178). They developed a sense of self-importance, and personal responsibility which other types of organizational structures often denied them (179).

Span of Control

The concept of span of control is thought to date as far back as the written record and was originally implemented by the military. Sir Ian Hamilton is

credited with bringing attention to this principle and pointing out its usefulness.

Worthy argued that a large number of very successful organizations have failed to pay much attention to one of the favorite tenets of modern management theory, the so-called "span of control." The theory of "span of control" says that the number of subordinate executives or supervisors reporting to a single individual should be severely limited to enable the individual to exercise the detailed direction and control which is usually thought necessary. But these organizations often deliberately give each key executive so many subordinates that it is impossible for he/she to exercise too close supervision over their activities (178).

In this type of organizational structure, individual executives are left to sink or swim on the basis of their own ability and capacity. They cannot rely, other than to a limited extent, on the managers above them. By the same token, these executives should not severely restrict, through detailed supervision and control, their subordinates' growth and development (178).

In order to function effectively in this type of set-up, individuals must be self-confident and capable. This system tends to weed out those who lack these qualities in adequate degrees. Those who are able to adapt to this type of structure, however, are likely to not only be better executives but also be the type of people who can build and maintain teamwork, cooperation and a high level of employee satisfaction. This is not so much because they consciously attempt to do so, but because these results are a natural by-product of their operating methods and a reflection of their own personalities (178).

On the other hand, in organizations with many levels of supervision and elaborate systems of controls, individuals not only have little opportunity to develop self-reliance and initiative but the system frequently weeds out those who do. Furthermore, those who survive in this type of organization are frequently, by the nature of the very qualities which enabled them to survive, found to have personalities and operating methods which do not encourage employee teamwork and cooperation (178).

An organization with fewer supervisory levels and

a minimum of formal controls places greater emphasis on ability to stimulate and lead. The driver type of manager, who functions through maintaining constant pressure and whose main sanction is fear cannot operate as effectively in this type of organizational structure (178).

In organizational structures where management has been effectively decentralized, an executive accomplishes results and moves to higher levels of responsibility mainly to the extent that he/she is able to get the willing, enthusiastic support of his colleagues and subordinates; the job cannot be done any other way. The results are a higher level of ac-complishment, a more satisfying type of supervision and a higher level of employee job satisfaction (178).

Worthy concluded that large organizations have a tendency to create large numbers of hierarchical levels of management which encourage centralization of authority and job specialization. This results in low group morale, low performance, low job autonomy with suppression of personal judgment and initiative and failure to develop managerial skills. Flatter, less complex organizational structures, with a maximum of

administrative decentralization, have a tendency to
create improved attitudes, more effective supervision,
and greater individual initiative and responsibility
among employees. In addition, arrangements of this
type encourage the development of individual self-
expression and creativity which are essential to
employee satisfaction and the democratic way of life
(179).

Porter and Lawler believed that ever since the
appearance of Worthy's article much attention has been
focused on the merits of flat vs. tall organizational
structures. Despite the fact that Worthy presented no
empirical evidence to support his statements, and
despite the fact that his observations were based upon
one situation in a single company, his views have been
quoted by other writers to support their beliefs that
flat organizations produce greater job satisfaction
than tall ones (Porter and Lawler 135).

Studies on Tall vs. Flat Structures

Furthermore, after the appearance of Worthy's
article in the American Sociological Review, not a
single article appeared on the subject until 1962 when

Leo Meltzer and James Salter published their study on the relationship of job satisfaction to organizational structure (135).

The Meltzer and Salter study was one of three studies which compared the satisfaction levels of employees in tall organizations with those in flat organizations. Meltzer and Salter reported on the job satisfaction of 704 physiologists in non-university organizations. Their respondents were classified by size (fewer than 20 professionals, 21-50, and 51 or more) and by the number of administrative levels within the organization (1-3 levels, 4-5, and 6 or more). They found that when size was not held constant the number of administrative levels had a negative relationship to over-all job satisfaction. However, when size was controlled an insignificant relationship between "tallness: or "flatness" and job satisfaction occurred. Therefore, Meltzer and Salter's results did not confirm Worthy's theory that flat structures produce greater job satisfaction if flatness is measured by the number of supervisory levels relative to an organization's size (136).

The second study comparing the job satisfaction

levels of employees in tall organizations with those in flat organizations was conducted by Porter and Lawler. A nationwide sample of over 1,900 managers at all administrative levels in all sizes and types of companies (both manufacturing and non-manufacturing) was selected. The goal of their study was to determine if the perceived need satisfaction of managers was greater in flat or in tall organizations. As in the Meltzer and Salter study, managers were classified as working in either tall or flat organizational structures based upon the number of administrative levels in the organization relative to its total size (44).

Within each size classification, respondents were classified as employees of either flat, intermediate, or tall organizations using the following criteria:

Flat organizations: Companies having the fewest levels relative to their size; approximately one-fourth of the managers employed by companies of a given size were assigned this classification;

Intermediate Organizations: Companies having a middle number of levels relative to their size; about half of the managers employed by companies of a given

size were given an intermediate classification;

Tall Organizations: Companies having the greatest number of levels relative to their size; approximately one-fourth of the managers employed by companies of a given size were assigned to the tall classification (139).

Porter and Lawler's research findings failed to clearly show superiority of flat over tall organizations in producing greater job satisfaction for managers. But two qualifications to this general finding were noted. First, organizational size appeared to have some effect on the relationship between structure type and the degree of need satis-faction. In companies with less than 5,000 employees, managerial satisfaction was greater in flat rather than tall organizations. For companies with 5,000 employees or more, the reverse was true with tall structures producing greater need satisfaction. The second qualification was that the effects of an organization's structure on need satisfaction seemed to vary with the type of psychological need being considered. Tall structures were associated with greater security and need satisfactions, whereas, flat structures produced

greater self-actualization (44).

Porter and Siegel conducted a third study which was basically a replication of the Porter and Lawler study with one main difference, the sample. Porter and Siegel's study included approximately 3,000 middle and upper-level managers employed by thirteen foreign companies, while the Porter and Lawler study was restricted solely to American managers. The purpose of the Porter and Siegel study was to replicate the Porter and Lawler study on a different population of managerial respondents to measure the effects of flat vs. tall organizations upon perceived need satisfaction (380). The findings of this study essentially matched those obtained by Porter and Lawler. Both studies found that for organizations of under 5,000 employees, flat organizational structures were associated with increased managerial need satisfaction. However, the foreign managers believed that flat structures created greater need satisfaction than did their American counterparts (Porter and Siegel 388).

The evidence from these three studies does not support Worthy's generalization that a flat organization produces greater job satisfaction. The evidence

does, however, point to size as one of the factors affecting the advantages of tall and flat organizational structures. Two of the studies reviewed found that in relatively small organizations a flat organization did appear to be advantageous in terms of producing managerial job satisfaction. However, for large organizations one study found that tall organizational structures produced greater job satisfaction. Therefore, it appears that the advantages of a flat structure not only decreases with organizational size, but that in relatively large organizations a flat structure may sometimes be a liability (Porter and Lawler 44).

The Meltzer and Salter study was the only empirical investigation that compared the job satisfaction and performances of individuals working in organizations with tall and flat structures. Only in large organizations did they find a significant trend and there it was in the direction of greater satisfaction and productivity in tall rather flat organizations. However, Meltzer and Salter studied very small organizations therefore, their findings might have limited application (136).

Organizational Structure and Span of Control

Advocates of flat structures contend that such organizational arrangements, with their broader spans of control, reduce the harmful effects of hierarchical control by superiors thus allowing subordinates greater freedom and autonomy to make decisions. As a result of this increased freedom and autonomy employees are suppose to contribute more to the organization and in turn receive greater satisfaction from their jobs (44).

In comparison, those who favor tall structures might agree that while tall structures may increase supervisory control, they also allow superiors to coordinate their subordinates' activities more effectively and communicate with them more directly, since there are fewer subordinates reporting to each superior (Porter and Siegel 389).

Organizational Structure and Need Satisfaction

One main difference between the two Porter studies was that flat structures tended to be more strongly associated with need satisfaction for the non-American sample, regardless of size consideration. Another

difference was that the 1965 study did not find, as the previous one did, variations in results by type of need. This raises some doubt as to whether the tall-flat type of structure is related to specific need satisfaction as earlier results indicated (390-91).

Trend Toward Decentralization

As stated earlier, there seems to be a growing trend in large-scale organizations toward decentralization. Many researchers see decentralization as the key to increased job satisfaction. However, in order to accurately measure the effects of decentralization upon job satisfaction, one must first establish the measure of decentralization to be used (45).

According to A. D. Chandler, the movement towards decentralization can be dated back to the 1920's and the the management policies of Alfred P. Sloan, Jr, at General Motors (Chandler 111). That the topic of decentralization is popular is clearly demonstrated by the many articles that have dogmatically set forth plans for a decentralized corporate way of life. Many writers have claimed that by increasing one's autonomy, regardless of an employee's level within the company,

decentralization improves both job attitudes and performance (45).

Centralized vs. Decentralized Organizations

Although most of the research on the effects of decentralization have been in the form of case studies, a review of secondary data sources revealed four studies which compared job satisfaction in centralized and decentralized organizations. The first study, by Helen Baker and Robert France, compared the attitudes of white-collar workers in centralized and decentralized industrial relations departments. Their classification of centralized or decentralized departments was based upon the level at which decisions relative to industrial relations were made. When asked which type of structure produces the best intramanagement relations, managers who worked in companies with decentralization favored decentralization, and those who worked in centralized companies favored decentralization. Baker and France found that employees of decentralized industrial relations departments experienced the same amount of job satisfaction as those working in centralized industrial relations departments

(Porter and Lawler 45). Although these findings do not support the claims of those who favor decentralization, it is important to remember that this study was concerned with only one type of department and the attitudes of only one level of management. Therefore, it is impossible to know whether these findings are applicable to the effects of company-wide decentralization (45).

The second study, conducted by William Litzinger, compared the attitudes of bank managers who worked under a centralized form of management with those working under decentralized management. The centralized group tended to place greater emphasis on consideration (empathy) and were found to be significantly more benevolent than their decentralized counterparts. This indicated that the centralized managers placed a higher value in doing things for others, sharing, helping the unfortunate, and being generous. On the other hand, the decentralized sample place higher values on leadership (Litzinger 43). Litzinger's results did not indicate a clear difference in job satisfaction between the decentralized and centralized groups. However, the results are difficult

to interpret because the measure of decentralization was not clearly stated (45).

Samuel Carlson and E. C. Weiss also compared the behavior of white collar-workers in centralized and decentralized organizations. Carlson found that executives in decentralized companies spent only 6.3 percent of their time taking orders, while their counterparts in centralized companies spent 14.6 percent of their time in this activity. He also found that executives in decentralized organizations spent less time giving orders than did executives in centralized organizations (6.8% vs. 13.8%). Carlson's finding that white collar workers in decentralized companies gave fewer orders and made fewer decisions supports the claim that decentralization can lead to greater autonomy at lower levels. However, the results of Carlson's study are difficult to interpret for two reasons: First, it is not clear what criterion was used for classifying organizations as centralized or decentralized. Secondly, his findings are further limited by fact that he had only nine managers as subjects in his study (46).

Weiss investigated the relationship between

decentralized and centralized organizational structures
and several measures of behavior. He classified 34
companies as either centralized or decentralized based
upon their answers to a 22-item questionnaire regarding
the level at which decisions were made in the company.
Weiss did not find any significant differences between
decentralized and centralized organizations based upon
the following variables: turnover rate, number of
grievances, number of white-collar workers, absentee-
ism, accident frequency, accident severity, and age of
managers. Although Weiss found no statistically sig-
nificant differences, the trend on each of the
variables considered was favorable to decentralized
organizations (Weiss 40).

Statement of Hypothesis

This chapter briefly discusses organizational
shape and employee attitudes, the merits of flat vs.
tall organizations, causes of poor employee re-
lationships and low morale, management decentral-
ization, centralized authority and job specialization,
organizational structure and span of control, organi-
zational structure and need satisfaction, the trend

toward decentralization, and centralized vs. decentral-
ized organizations.

Although the data regarding flat vs. tall and
centralized vs. decentralized structures are somewhat
inconclusive, there is evidence to support this
hypothesis: White-collar workers of flat, decen-
tralized organizations have greater intrinsic job
satisfaction than white-collar workers of tall,
centralized organizations.

Chapter III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Subjects

The subjects were volunteer undergraduate and
graduate students enrolled in the Lindenwood College
evening academic program. The students' instructors
also participated in this study. A total of 103 sub-
jects completed the survey, sixty-three males (61.17 %)
and forty-one females (39.80%). Two males (.02%) and
one female (.01%) who completed the survey were ex-
cluded from the sample pool because they did not satis-
fy the operational definition of a white-collar worker.
The resulting sample consisted of 100 participants,
sixty-one males and thirty-nine females. The average
age of the male students was 34.2 years, with a range
from twenty-three to fifty-nine years. The average age
of the female students was 33.3 years, with a range
from twenty-two to fifty-six years.

The students were employed as white-collar workers.

45

For the purposes of this study, a white-collar worker
is defined as one who does not manufacture or assemble
products. The mean number of years on their current
jobs for the female participants was 3.4 years, with a
range from three to twelve years. The mean number of
years on their present job for the male participants
was 5.5 years, with a range from four months to twenty-
one years. The students had no previous knowledge of
this study and were unfamiliar with the research in-
struments.

Instrument

The participants were asked to complete an inves-
tigator-designed, two-part survey (Appendix A) which
was adapted from the Minnesota Satisfaction Question-
naire (MSQ, short form). The MSQ is designed to mea-
sure one's satisfaction with his or her job. It is a
paper-and-pencil inventory appropriate for individuals
who are able to read at a fifth grade level or above.
The test is gender-neutral and takes approximately 5-
10 minutes to complete. Part one of the survey asked
for demographic information, i.e., sex, age, education,
years at present job, usual line of work, length of

time in that occupation, and the number of authority levels within each participant's organization. Each subject was asked to either circle the appropriate corresponding number or fill in the blank. Company names as well as the names of the participants were omitted. The second part of the survey was the Job Satisfaction Survey, which consisted of a twenty-item checklist designed to measure intrinsic job satisfaction. Each item used the following five response choices: Very Satisfied, Satisfied, "N" (Neither Satisfied nor Dissatisfied), Dissatisfied and Very Dissatisfied. Each choice was operationally defined on the survey form. The subjects were instructed to select the one best answer for each of the twenty items. All items pertained to the subject's current job. Although the participants were aware that the study dealt with the effects of organizational shape on job satisfaction, the investigator's hypothesis was not revealed.

Procedures

The investigator contacted the instructors prior to the survey's administration.

The nature of the study was briefly explained but the hypothesis was kept secret. Permission to administer the survey during class time was sought and obtained.

The research instruments were administered to the participants in a relaxed atmosphere either shortly before class or just before break. A brief explanation of the survey was given; but, the purpose of the study was not revealed at this time. To guarantee confidentiality, participants were asked to refrain from putting their names or the names of the companies for which they worked on any of the forms. The surveys were identified for analysis by an identification number. Female participants were asked to circle the number "2." Male participants were requested to circle the number "1." All students filled in their ages and circled their educational level. The participants were instructed to answer all questions as failure to do so might invalidate their survey. Most of the students completed the survey in less than 10 minutes.

Immediately after the surveys were turned in, a short debriefing session was held. At this time, the purpose of the study was revealed, the participants were thanked for their cooperation, and request forms

(Appendix B) were made available to those wanting a copy of the study's abstract and test results. Students who were absent when the survey was administered were excluded from this study.

Data Analysis

This was a correlational study with organizational structure (centralized vs. decentralized) as the independent variable and intrinsic job satisfaction as the dependent variable. The relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction and decision making opportunity was also addressed. Correlation was measured using the Pearson product-moment coefficient (r) and the following scale was used to determine the correlation's magnitude: .80-1.00 Very Strong; .60-.79 Strong; .40-.59 Moderate; .20-.39 Weak; .00-.19 Negligible. The level of significance was set at .05.

The investigator hand-scored all research instruments. Descriptive statistics were used to determine means of the scores based upon education, sex, age, number of years at present job, and levels of authority within company. Response choices to each of the twenty items were weighed and scored according to the guide-

lines presented in the MSQ manual. The data were
categorized using an intrinsic scale (Appendix C).
Each subject's raw score was converted to a percentile
using normative data tables provided in the MSQ manual
to determine each subject's level of intrinsic job
satisfaction. An individual percentile score of 75 or
higher would represent a high degree of satisfaction; a
percentile of 25 or lower represents a low level of
satisfaction; and scores in the middle range (26 to 74)
would indicate average satisfaction. Groups are
considered satisfied if the overall group percentile is
at least 50 (Appendix D). Inferential statistics were
used to determine the degree of correlation between the
independent and dependent variables.

Chapter IV

RESULTS

The sample pool was reduced by 2.9 percent or three questionnaires which were rejected because the participants were not white-collar workers. All remaining questionnaires were complete. The resulting sample consisted of 100 subjects, 61 males and 39 females.

Table 1 contains the mean values of the sample pool.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics
Sample Pool

	MALE	FEMALE
	$\overline{X}$	$\overline{X}$
AGE	34.2	33.3
YEARS AT PRESENT JOB	5.5	3.4
EDUCATIONAL LEVEL	15.4	15.7
SEX	61.0%	39.0%

51

Table 2 contains the three levels of authority and the percentages of men and women who fell within each level.

Table 2

Authority Level Percentages

Levels of Authority	Male	Female
1-3	18.3%	25.6%
4-5	32.8%	20.5%
6 or more	49.2%	53.8%

Table 3 shows the authority level categories available for selection and each group's average intrinsic job satisfaction percentile.

Table 3

Group Intrinsic Job Satisfaction Percentiles

Authority Level	Average Percentiles
1-3	39.24
4-5	38.75
6 or more	35.10

Calculations to determine correlation between the
independent variable and the dependent variable were
performed on the data using a computerized version of
Pearson r. The result of this computer exercise is
in table 4.

Table 4

Pearson Product-moment
Correlation Coefficient

Number of Pairs = 100

Correlation Coefficient (r) = .70

Chapter V

DISCUSSION

The data presented in the preceding chapter
reveals interesting facts about the sample pool. Most
of this information has been arranged in tables and is
explained as follows: Table 1 shows that while the
participants were very close in age and educational
level, the male subjects had been on their present jobs
more than two years longer than the female subjects.
Table 2 indicates that 21 percent of the participants
work for organizations with 1-3 levels of authority; 28
percent are employed by companies with 4-5 levels and
32 percent of the sample pool are employed by companies
with 6 or more authority levels. Authority level is
defined as the point at which key business decisions
are made. Table 3 gives the average percentile scores
for each of the three authority levels. While the
group that worked for organizations with 1-3 authority
levels enjoyed a slightly higher level of intrinsic job
satisfaction than the two remaining groups, none of the

54

groups were considered satisfied according to the "50 percent" criterion setforth in the MSQ manual (Appendix D).

The reason for using the Job Satisfaction Survey was to measure the intrinsic job satisfaction level of white-collar workers. The survey accomplished this task by using an intrinsic scale (Appendix C). This scale is composed of eleven elements defined as follows: (1) Ability utilization (the chance to do something that makes use of the employee's abilities); (2) Achievement (the feeling of accomplishment received from doing your job); (3) Activity (being able to keep busy all the time); (4) Authority (the chance to tell others what to do); (5) Creativity (the chance to try one's own methods of doing the job); (6) Independence (the opportunity to work alone on the job); (7) Moral values (being able to do things that don't go against the employee's conscience); (8) Responsibility (the freedom to use own judgment); (9) Security (the way the job provides for steady employment); (10) Social service (the opportunity to help others); and (11) Variety (the chance to do different things).

Table 4 reveals the number of score pairs for the

sample pool along with the obtained Pearson r. Using
the magnitude interpretation defined in Chapter III, an
r=.70 (rounded) indicates a strong correlation between
the independent variable (decision-making) and the de-
pendent variable (intrinsic job satisfaction). Using a
standard statistical table, the investigator determined
the significance of r at the .05 level, (df=98), to be
.21 (rounded). Because the obtained r (.70) was great-
er than the table r (.21), the null hypothesis stating
there was no correlation between the independent and
dependent variables was rejected. Furthermore, the
obtained r is significant beyond both the .05 and .01
levels.

Summary

This study has covered a number of aspects of job
satisfaction, more specifically, the intrinsic job
satisfaction of white-collar workers. Although job
satisfaction is a popular topic among today's liter-
ature writers, little empirical data is available.
While few researchers agree on the definition of job
satisfaction and what it takes to sustain it, they do
agree that intrinsic satisfaction is important not only

to the employee but to the organization as a whole. Fulfilled employees are indeed productive employees!

The intent of this research project was two-fold: First, to measure the correlation between decision-making at the employee's level and intrinsic job satisfaction and second, to examine the relationship of the number of authority levels within an organization to group satisfaction. The statistical analyses presented in the preceding chapter produced sufficient evidence to support the hypothesis and to conclude that, within this sample pool, white-collar workers of flat, decentralized organizations have greater intrinsic job satisfaction than white-collar workers of tall, centralized organizations. The investigator's results agree with some of the research findings discussed in this paper, although the variable, size, was not addressed in this study.

Limitations

The limitations of this study should be carefully weighed when discussing the research findings. First, the number of secondary data sources available to the investigator were extremely limited. Second, the

subjects in this study were adult evening college students (both graduate and undergraduate) who were also employed as white-collar workers. While this subject pool appeared to be ideal for this project, it is possible that the responses from white-collar workers who were not also students would have been different. Third, the manual used for hand-scoring the surveys was limited to five job classifications categories. Several of the participants whose job titles did not match one of those five categories had to be assigned, subjectively, by the investigator based upon loosely defined guidelines. Fourth, although the inment used was patterned after a commercial instrument, several changes were made. It is possible that the results from a commercial instrument would have been different.

Suggestions for Future Research

A replication of this study would be appropriate for future research; however, some modification in research methodology might be warranted to achieve more generalizable results. It is advised that the sample pool be expanded to include a broader spectrum of

white-collar workers (non-students as well as stu-

dents).   It might also be advisable to examine

alternative research instruments and consider machine-

scoring by a reliable source.

APPENDIX A

WHITE-COLLAR
JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY
(PART ONE)

CONFIDENTIAL - PLEASE DO NOT PUT YOUR NAME OR THE NAME OF YOUR COMPANY ON THIS SURVEY!

Statistical Information

Please answer all questions, as failure to do so will result in an invalid survey.

1. Circle "1" if male, "2" if female.   1   2

2. Age _____

3. Circle the number of years of schooling you have completed:

    4 5 6 7 8 (Grade School)   13 14 15 16 (College)

    9 10 11 12 (High School)   17 or more (Graduate
                                  or Professional
                                  Student)

4. What is your present job title?

    _____

5. What do you do on your current job?   _____

    _____

6. How long have you been working on your present job?

    _____years_____months

7. What is your occupation, your usual line of work?

    _____

8. How long have you been in this line of work?

_____years_____months

9. How many levels of authority are there in your company? (check one).

___1-3; ___4-5; ___6 or more

WHITE-COLLAR
JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY
(PART TWO)

<u>CONFIDENTIAL - PLEASE DO NOT PUT YOUR NAME ON THIS
SURVEY!</u>

Ask yourself: How satisfied am I with this part of my
job.

Very Sat. means I get more than expected from this
aspect of my job.

Sat. means I get what I expect from this aspect of
my job.

N means I can't decide whether I am satisfied
with this aspect of my job.

Dissat. means I get less than expected from this
aspect of my job.

Very Dissat. means I get much less than expected
from this aspect of my job.

On my present job, this is how I feel about. . .

1. Being busy all the time........
    __Very Dissat. __Dissat. __N __Sat. __Very Sat.

2. The chance to work alone........
    __Very Dissat. __Dissat. __N __Sat. __Very Sat.

3. The chance to do different things on the job.......
    __Very Dissat. __Dissat. __N __Sat. __Very Sat.

4. The way my supervisor handles his/her workers. . .
    __Very Dissat. __Dissat. __N __Sat. __Very Sat.

5. The competence of my boss in making decisions......
    __Very Dissat. __Dissat. __N __Sat. __Very Sat.

6. The way my job provides for steady employment......
   __Very Dissat. __Dissat. __N __Sat. __Very Sat.

7. The opportunity to do things for others............
   __Very Dissat. __Dissat. __N __Sat. __Very Sat.

8. The opportunity to tell others what to do..........
   __Very Dissat. __Dissat. __N __Sat. __Very Sat.

9. The opportunity to do something that uses my abili-
   ties..
   __Very Dissat. __Dissat. __N __Sat. __Very Sat.

10. My pay and the amount of work I do..................
    __Very Dissat. __Dissat. __N __Sat. __Very Sat.

11. The opportunities for advancement on this job......
    __Very Dissat. __Dissat. __N __Sat. __Very Sat.

12. The freedom to use my own judgment..................
    __Very Dissat. __Dissat. __N __Sat. __Very Sat.

13. The opportunity to try my own methods of doing the
    job..
    __Very Dissat. __Dissat. __N __Sat. __Very Sat.

14. The working conditions..............................
    __Very Dissat. __Dissat. __N __Sat. __Very Sat.

15. The way my co-workers get along.....................
    __Very Dissat. __Dissat. __N __Sat. __Very Sat.

16. The praise I receive for doing a good job..........
    __Very Dissat. __Dissat. __N __Sat. __Very Sat.

17. The feeling of accomplishment I get from my job....
    __Very Dissat. __Dissat. __N __Sat. __Very Sat.

18. The way company policies are enforced..............
    __Very Dissat. __Dissat. __N __Sat. __Very Sat.

19. Being able to do things that agree with my values..
    __Very Dissat. __Dissat. __N __Sat. __Very Sat.

20. The chance to work with others.....................
    __Very Dissat. __Dissat. __N __Sat. __Very Sat.

APPENDIX B

RESULTS OF WHITE-COLLAR JOB SATISFACTION STUDY

If you would like a copy of my thesis abstract and a copy of the results of my study please fill out the form below.

NAME_____

ADDRESS_____

_____

_____

Thank-you!

APPENDIX C

WHITE-COLLAR
JOB SATISFACTION
INTRINSIC SCALE

Scale	Items
Intrinsic	1 2 3 4 7 8 9 10 11 15 16 20

66

APPENDIX D

MANUAL FOR THE MINNESOTA SATISFACTION
QUESTIONNAIRE

Interpretation of MSQ scores-Raw scores for each MSQ scale can be converted to percentile scores, using the appropriate tables of normative data given in Sections III-B and IV-B. An individual's percentile score on any scale gives his relative position in a norm group. It indicates the percentage of people in the norm group with scores equal to or lower than the individual's raw score. The same raw score on a scale may convert to different percentile scores for different norm groups.

The most meaningful scores to use in interpreting the MSQ are the percentile scores for each scale obtained from the most appropriate norm group for the individual.

The appropriate norm group for an individual is the one that corresponds exactly to his job. Since, at the present time, the number of norm groups is limited, it may be necessary to select a norm group that is very

similar to the individual's job. In selecting a sim-
ilar norm group, care must be exercised to determine
similarity on the basis of a large number of charac-
teristics such as: tools used, materials used, tasks
performed, type of supervision, rate of pay and
physical working conditions. Determining similarity on
a very superficial basis may lead to misinterpretation
of the MSQ scores.

Average levels of satisfaction, by scale or for
all scales, could be established for groups of clients
counseled by specific counselors or using specific
techniques. When percentile scores are used, the av-
erage percentile score for the follow-up group should
be 50 or better for the group to be considered satis-
fied.

When percentile scores are used in the follow-up
of an individual client, a percentile score of 75 or
higher is ordinarily taken to represent a high degree
of satisfaction; a percentile score of 25 or lower
would represent a low level of satisfaction; and,
scores in the middle range of percentiles (26-74) would
indicate average satisfaction.

Works Cited

Cummings, Larry L., and C.J. Berger. "Organizational Structure: How Does It Influence Attitudes and Performance." Management Review 66 (February 1977) : 40-43.

Herman, Jeanne, and Charles Hulin. "Studying Organizational Attitudes from Individual and Organizational Frames of Reference." Organizational Behavior and Human Performance 8 (1972) : 84-108.

Hoppock, R. Job Satisfaction. New York: Harper, 1935.

Ivancevich, John. "Analysis of Control, Basis of Control, and Satisfaction in an Organizational Setting." Academy of Management Journal 13 (December 1970) : 427-436.

Likert, Renis. New Patterns of Management. New York : Mc Graw-Hill, 1961.

Litzinger, William D. "Entrepreneurial Prototype in Bank Management." Academy of Management Journal 6 (1963) : 36-45.

Locke, Edwin A. "What is Job Satisfaction?" Organizational Behavior and Human Performance 4 (1969) : 329-336.

Mc Afee, R. "Job Satisfaction: It's the Little Things That Count." Management Solutions 3 (August 1988) : 32-37.

Meltzer, Leo, and James Salter. "Organizational Structure and the Performance of Job Satisfaction of Physiologists." American Sociological Review 27 (1962) : 351-362.

69

Morse, Nancy C.   Satisfaction in the White-Collar Job.
    Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, Survey Research
    Center, 1953.

Newman, John E.   "Understanding the Organizational
    Structure - Job Attitude Relationship Through
    Perceptions of the Work Environment."
    Organizational Behavior and Human Performance 14
    (1975) : 371-397.

Porter, Lyman W., and E. Lawler.   "Properties of
    Organizational Structure in Relationship to Job
    Attitudes and Job Behavior."   Psychological
    Bulletin 64 (1965) : 23-51.

Porter, Lyman W., and Edward Lawler III.   "The Effects
    of Tall Versus Flat Organizational Structures on
    an Organization's Job Satisfaction."   Personnel
    Psychology 17 (1964) :   135-148.

Porter, Lyman, and Jacob Siegel.   "Relationships of
    Tall and Flat Organization Structures to the
    Satisfaction of Foreign Managers."   Personnel
    Psychology 10 (1965) : 379-392.

Roethlisberger, Fritz, and W.J. Dickson.   Management
    and the Worker.   Cambridge: Harvard U. Press,
    1939.

Rosen, R.A.H., and Rosen, R.A.   "A Suggested Modi-
    fication in Job Satisfaction Surveys."
    Personnel Psychology 8 (1955) :   303-314.

Scanlan, Betty K.   "Determinants of Job Satisfaction
    and Productivity."   Personnel Journal 55 (January
    1976) :   12-14.

Schaffer, R.   "Job Satisfaction As Related to Need
    Satisfaction in Work."   Psychological Monographs
    67 (1953) :   #14.

Talacchi, Sergio.   "Organization Size, Individual
    Attitudes and Behavior: An Empirical Study."
    Administrative Science Quarterly 5 (1960) :
    398-420.

Vecchio, Robert P.   <u>Organizational Behavior</u>.
     Chicago: The Dryden Press, 1988.

Weiss, E.C.   "Relation of Personnel Statistics to
     Organizational Structure."   <u>Personnel Psychology</u>
     10 (1957) :   27-42.

Wernimont, Paul.   "Intrinsic and Extrinsic Factors in
     Job Satisfaction."   <u>Journal of Applied Psychology</u>
     50 (1966) :   41-50.

Worthy, James C.   "Organizational Structure and
     Employee Morale."   <u>American Sociological Review</u>
     24 (1950) :   169-179.