

THE ORGANISATIONAL DIAGNOSES OF A DISTRIBUTION ORGANISATION

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NOTE

The reader is reminded that the references as well as the writing style as prescribed by the *Publication Manual (4TH edition)* of the American psychology Association were followed in this mini-dissertation. These prescriptions are in line with the policy of the Programme for Industrial Psychology at the PU for CHE, namely to use the APA style in all scientific documents as from January 1999.

The reader is also reminded that organisation refers to company. In Industrial psychology organisation is the preferred term.

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ABSTRACT

Subject: The organisational diagnoses of a Distribution Organisation.

Key terms: Organisational Development, Organisational Diagnose, Psychodynamic perspective.

During the past three decades the economic performances of South Africa organisations were poor. This poor performance forced a lot of South African organisations to look at the way they do business.

A method to analyse the way business is conducted through an Organisation Diagnose. Organisation Diagnose is the process of using concepts and methods from the social and behavioural sciences to assess the current state of an entire organisation and to find ways to improve the organisations effectiveness.

The aim of this research was to evaluate perceptions of employees of a distribution organisation through an Organisation Diagnose.

A cross-sectional design was used as model for the research. Interviews and questionnaires were used as methods for data gathering. A representative sample ($N=30$) from different job levels and departments were interviewed. The main themes were identified and these themes were included in the questionnaire as dimensions.

The Study population ($N=88$) was chosen from a depot of a distributing organisation.

The empirical investigation was aimed at establishing the reliability and validity of the derived questionnaire and to determine the important dimensions to be focused on with regards to interventions.

The results of the empirical study showed that employees of a depot of a distributing organisation tend to have positive perceptions about supervision, remuneration and change organisations. The research also showed that employees of a depot of a distributing organisation tend to have negative perceptions about interpersonal relationships and promotion.

The research also indicated a large number of factors that was considered as neutral. This can be an indication that employees of a depot of a distribution organisation may have a lack of motivation.

Finally suggestions for future research were made.

OPSOMMING

Onderwerp: Die Organisasie Diagnose van 'n Verspreidings-Organisasie.

Sleutelterm: Organisasie ontwikkeling, Organisasie Diagnose, Psigodinamiese perspektief.

Gedurende die laaste drie dekades het Suid-Afrikaanse organisasies ekonomies gevaar. Dit het daartoe gelei dat baie maatskappye die manier waarop hulle besigheid doen moes evalueer.

'n Metode wat gebruik kan word om die wyse waarop besigheid gedoen word te evalueer, is 'n organisasie diagnose. Organisasie Diagnose is die proses waar konsepte en metodes van die sosiale en gedragswetenskappe gebruik word om die huidige stand van sake van 'n totale organisasie ondersoek word en metodes gevind word om die organisasie se effektiwiteit te verbeter.

Die doelstelling van hierdie navorsing was om persepsies van werknemers te bepaal in 'n Verspreidings-Organisasie deur 'n organisasie diagnose.

'n Kruis-seksionele ontwerp is as navorsingsontwerp gebruik. Onderhoude en vraelyste is gebruik om data in te samel. Onderhoude is gevoer met 'n verteenwoordigende steekproef en is gelyk aan 30 van die populasie. Hoof temas is geïdentifiseer uit die onderhoude en in 'n vraelys geplaas as items.

Die studie populasie ($N=88$) was gekies uit 'n tak van 'n Verspreidings-Organisasie.

Die empiriese ondersoek was daarop gerig gewees om die betroubaarheid en geldigheid van die vraelys te bepaal en om die belangrike dimensies waarop intervensies gefokus moet word te identifiseer.

Die resultate van die empiriese studie het getoon dat werknemers van 'n tak van 'n Verspreidings-Organisasies geneig was om 'n positiewe persepsie te hê aangaande supervisie, vergoeding en verandering in die organisasie. Die navorsing het getoon dat die werknemers geneig was om negatiewe persepsies te hê aangaande interpersoonlike verhoudings en bevorderingsgeleenthede.

Die navorsing het ook aangedui dat 'n groot aantal faktore deur die respondente as neutraal aangedui was. Dit kan dalk dui op lae motivering.

Aanbevelings vir toekomstige navorsing is ten slotte aan die hand gedoen.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This mini-dissertation focus on the use of an Organisational Diagnose to evaluate the perceptions of employees of a distribution organisation in terms of the strengths and weaknesses of and general feelings towards the organisation.

Chapter 1 contains the problem statement, research objectives, paradigm perspective and research methodology employed. In addition, the division of chapters in this mini-dissertation is presented.

1.1 PROBLEM STATEMENT

In the past three decades the economic performance of South African organisations was as a result of the political policy of the day, sanctions and other contributing factors, poor. This poor performance forced a lot of South African organisations to either rationalise, search for better business opportunities in other countries or look at the way they do business (Sigeau, 1999).

A method to analyse the way business is conducted is through an Organisation Diagnose. Organisation Diagnose is a model designed for planned, systematic, and ongoing problem- and action-oriented processes that focus on both technical and human improvement within the organisation (Bedeian, 1999). This long-term approach needs management support and is based on sound management theory and

practice. One seminal feature of Organisation Diagnose is its use of action research, or actual field research, with a continuous cycle of diagnostics: data gathering, analysis, planning, implementation, and feedback. The focus is on the effectiveness of the whole organisation (Vardalis & Wiatrowski, 2000).

This will be an interesting perspective since, one of the major problems for Organisational Development since the 1980s, appears to have been that the world economy appeared to be the catalyst for even greater rationalisation (Lock & Crawford, 2000). The tendency is to focus on the received wisdom of downsizing, which ultimately leads to a pre-occupation with mechanistic teamwork programmes that satisfy the rationale of senior management and shareholders but not necessarily the needs of the wider organisation (Goldstein & Burke, 1991). The reasons for service driven organisations to focus on the received wisdom of downsizing are attempts to reduce lead-time, the attempts to enhance services, cost minimisation, value creation and stock reduction (Howard, 1994). The above are all enticing business goals of lean production. These require new arrangements which ultimately means that service driven companies can only develop by reducing labour to half or less of the human effort, time and overall cost (Lock & Crawford, 2000).

Failure to achieve the desired performance is often seen as a failure of the task itself, thus requiring some new, previously unrecognised activity and is rarely seen as a deeper Organisational Development problem requiring entirely different solutions of participation and involvement (Glacel, 1998). Organisational Development is process focused by contrast to many programmed approaches, which are task focused. This means that Organisational Development operates at a

deeper level than those traditionally targeted for change by Organisational Development (Burke, 1994).

The reason for this is that over recent years, many failures have been reported in changing organisations. A criticism notes that many popular trends in management organisational consulting such as business process re-engineering, total quality management and the learning organisation represent systematic methods, for responding to and channelling effectively the forces of change (Cameron, 1981). Unfortunately, the vast majority of improvement initiatives undertaken by organisations, even with the best of intentions, are destined to have little impact with success rates, in some industries being as low as 10 percent (Church, A., Margiloff, A. and Coruzzi, C. 1995).

As Organisational Development approaches developed in the 1960s, the idea of organisational health became paramount. Diagnosing the dysfunctions were the key to re-establishing equilibrium. But this meant that a problem had to be identified first by someone in a strategic position who really feels the need for change and where somebody or something is hurting (French, Bell & Zawacki, 1994). A felt need was seen as the catalyst to an Organisational Diagnose intervention and such needs were said to form around the following (Bedeian, 1999):

- The need to change a managerial strategy.
- The need to make the organisation climate more consistent with both individual needs and the changing needs of the environment.
- The need to change cultural norms.

- The need to change structure and roles.
- The need to improve inter group collaboration.
- The need to open up the communications system.
- The need for better planning.
- The need for coping with problems of merger.
- The need for change in motivation of the workforce.
- The need for adaptation to a new environment.

The following research questions arose on the basis of the description of the research problem:

- How is Organisation Diagnoses conceptualised in the literature?
- What are the problems within a depot of a distribution organisation as perceived by the employees?
- What are the strong points of a depot of a distribution organisation as perceived by the employees?
- What is the status quo as to current changes being made by the top management of a depot of a distribution organisation?
- What suggestions can be made regarding interventions to address issues resulting from the organisation diagnose?

1.2 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The objectives of the research include both a general objective and specific objectives.

1.2.1 General Objective

With reference to the above formulation of the problem, the general objective of this research is to evaluate perceptions of employees within a depot of a distribution organisation going through mayor changes, through the use of an organisation diagnoses.

1.2.2 Specific Objectives

The specific research objectives are as follows:

- To conceptualise organisation diagnoses from the literature.
- To determine the problems within a depot of a distribution organisation as perceived by the employees.
- To determine the strong points of a depot of a distribution organisation as perceived by the employees.
- To determine the status quo as to the current changes being made by the top management of a depot of a distribution organisation.
- To make suggestions regarding interventions to address issues that resulted from the organisation diagnose.

1.3 THE PARADIGMATIC PERSPECTIVE OF THE RESEARCH

Huysamen (1993) defined research as the process by which a scientific method is used to expand the knowledge in a specific field of study. This study will endeavour to expand the knowledge in the field of social sciences. Mouton and Marais (1992) defined social science as "a collaborative human activity in which social reality is studied objectively with the aim of gaining a valid understanding of it". Social science research is thus undertaken within the larger framework of interacting paradigmatic and disciplinary contexts.

The paradigmatic context, also collectively termed the market of intellectual resources (Mouton & Marais, 1992), recognises that individual researchers, by way of their training, exhibit theoretical and methodological preferences. Furthermore, these preferences serve to confine the scope of theories and methodologies employed by researchers in their research. In addition, shared assumptions researchers relating to the nature, domain and structure of research within the social sciences also form part of the paradigmatic context (Mouton & Marais, 1992).

In their modified systems theoretical model of social science research, Mouton and Marais (1992) depicted the intellectual climate, the market of intellectual resources and the research process itself as three interactive subsystems extending to include interaction with a discipline-specific research domain.

The study will be done out of a psychodynamic perspective. The psychodynamic perspective is developed from the work of diverse social scientists that took on various consulting roles in organisations. While this approach to consultancy is related to the processual issues raised by process consultancy, it takes a particular direction with its focus on psychodynamics (Cameron, 1981). Thus, the consultant and client system are partners in the process of organisational analysis and design, and there is progressively wider involvement of the client system in designing and managing the successive phases of the change itself (Vardalis & Wiatrowski, 2000).

The major difference to other forms of management consultancy is that while many will talk about eliminating resistance to change, from this perspective resistance is a natural human process. Therefore, resistance is not there to be eliminated. Resistance needs to be understood and worked with in order to develop ongoing learning experiences within organisations (Yearout, Miles & Koonce, 2001).

The systems psychodynamic approach emerged from the work of social scientists at the Tavistock Institute, in the 1950s and 1960s, concerned with sociological and psychological aspects of organisations (Goldstein & Burke, 1991). Effectively, it combines systems theory with psychoanalysis. Thus, whereas the former is focused on holistic social and technical systems, the latter attempts to illuminate unconscious processes found in the individual's biography and in the interaction of groups (Vardalis & Wiatrowski, 2000).

Systems theory was informed principally by the work of functionalist sociologists influenced by the organismic approach to social life who began to see organisations as social systems with interconnected parts. Psychologists like Lewin, drew attention to the Gestalt

properties of human systems and to the tendency of systems to move towards a quasi-stationary equilibrium (Vardalis & Wiatrowski, 2000). As the founder of action research, Lewin informed the later work of the Tavistock Institute (Vardalis & Wiatrowski, 2000).

The development of human relations theory, and the later socio-technical system, emerged as a reaction to the dominance of the machine metaphor through the work of Trist and Bamforth (Greenhalgh, 2000). Combined with the psychoanalytic work of Klein, Jaques and Bion, work relationships were increasingly investigated for their social processes and their psychic projections and defences (Yearout, Miles & Koonce, 2001).

The consultancy role reflects this socio-psychological concern through a humanistic perspective. Although not every practitioner embraced the medical analogy of illness and treatment, some practitioners saw organisational consultancy as a macro-version of psychoanalysis (Goldstein & Burke, 1991).

Correspondingly, the feelings evoked in the organisational consultant about the role one is being put into and the way one is being used provide data about underlying processes in the client system. The other influence is the recognition that, as with the analyst, it is an important function to provide for the client system a holding environment by serving as a safe container who can accept and survive the anxieties and sometimes hostile projections coming from the client system. Although all relevant material will be discussed the study will be conducted out of the psychodynamic paradigm.

1.3.1 The intellectual climate

In this study, the disciplinary relationship focuses primarily on Industrial Psychology. Industrial Psychology can be defined as the scientific study of human behaviour in the work milieu. This imply the scientific observation, evaluation, optimal utilisation and influencing of normal and abnormal behaviour in groups interacting in the work milieu (Louw & Edwards, 1993).

It is postulated by Mouton & Marais (1992) that the intellectual climate of a specific discipline refers to a variety of meta-theoretical values and beliefs held by those practising within the same discipline. The intellectual climate differs from a discipline in the sense that beliefs in the intellectual climate take on the form of presuppositions.

1.3.2 The market of intellectual resources

The market of intellectual resources refers to the set of convictions that lend epistemic status to scientific assertions, and a distinction can be made between theoretical and methodological beliefs (Mouton & Marais, 1992).

1.3.2.1 Theoretical beliefs

Mouton and Marais (1992) defined theoretical beliefs as those beliefs from which testable statements about social phenomena are made. Theoretical beliefs are therefore descriptive and interpretative explanations pertaining to aspects of human behaviour and as such

include all statements forming part of hypotheses, typologies, theoretical definitions, models and theories.

The elements of theoretical beliefs, including theoretical definitions, models and theories, applicable to this research are as follows:

1.3.2.1.1. Theoretical definitions

The following conceptual descriptions are applicable to this research:

- Organisational development (OD). Bedeian (1999) define Organisational Development as a model designed for planned, systematic, and ongoing problem-and action-oriented processes that focus on both technical and human improvement within the organisation (Goldstein & Burke, 1991). This long-term approach needs management support and is based on sound management theory and practice. One seminal feature of Organisational Development is its use of action research, or actual field research, with a continuous cycle of diagnostics: data gathering, analysis, planning, implementation, and feedback. The focus is on the effectiveness of the whole organisation (Vardalis & Wiatrowski, 2000).
- Organisational Diagnose is a continuous cycle of diagnostics: data gathering, analysis, planning, implementation, and feedback within an organisation. This process generates information that is essential for organisational development (Yearout, Miles & Koonce, 2001).

- The psychodynamic perspective. The psychodynamic perspective is developed from the work of diverse social scientists who took on various consulting roles in organisations. While this approach to consultancy is related to the processual issues raised by process consultancy, it takes a particular direction with its focus on psychodynamics (Goldstein & Burke, 1991). Thus, the consultant and client system are partners in the process of organisational analysis and design, and there is progressively wider involvement of the client system in designing and managing the successive phases of the change itself (Vardalis & Wiatrowski, 2000). The major difference to other forms of management consultancy is that while many will talk about eliminating resistance to change, from this perspective resistance is a natural human process. Therefore, resistance is not there to be eliminated. Resistance needs to be understood and worked with in order to develop ongoing learning experiences within organisations (Yearout, Miles & Koonce, 2001).

1.3.2.1.2. Theoretical models and theories

According to Mouton and Marais (1992), theoretical models are used to classify and suggest relationships between variables, while theories are "...system(s) of interconnected abstractions or ideas that condense and organise knowledge about the social world" (Neuman, 1997). The following models and theories are used in this study:

- Systems theory
- Development of human relations theory

The systems psychodynamic approach emerged from the work of social scientists at the Tavistock Institute, in the 1950s and 1960s, concerned with sociological and psychological aspects of organisations. Effectively, it combines systems theory with psychoanalysis. Thus, whereas the former is focused on holistic social and technical systems, the latter attempts to illuminate unconscious processes found in the individual's biography and in the interaction of groups (Pratt, Gordon & Plamping, 1999).

Systems theory was informed principally by the work of functionalist sociologists influenced by the organismic approach to social life who began to see organisations as social systems with interconnected parts. Psychologists like Lewin, drew attention to the Gestalt properties of human systems and to the tendency of systems to move towards a quasi-stationary equilibrium (Vardalis & Wiatrowski, 2000). As the founder of action research, Lewin informed the later work of the Tavistock Institute (Vardalis & Wiatrowski, 2000).

The development of human relations theory, and the later socio-technical system, emerged as a reaction to the dominance of the machine metaphor through the work of Trist and Bamforth. Combined with the psychoanalytic work of Klein, Jaques and Bion, work relationships were increasingly investigated for their social processes and their psychic projections and defences (Yearout, Miles & Koonce, 2001).

1.3.3 Methodological beliefs

According to Mouton and Marais (1992), methodological beliefs are aligned to those beliefs that form part of the intellectual resources. They further point out that methodological beliefs are those

methodological preferences, assumptions and presuppositions about what ought to constitute good research. Included amongst these beliefs are the types of traditions practised in the philosophy of social science, such as positivism or phenomenology, as well as methodological models such as quantitative or qualitative models (Pasmore & Woodman, 1997).

This research makes use of a quantitative approach to gathering empirical evidence and is therefore characterised by the measurement of objective facts, a focus on variables, seeking reliability and being value free (Neuman, 1997). Furthermore, the research is accompanied by statistical analysis and therefore includes references to means, standard deviations, internal consistency, reliability, validity, practical significance, product-moment correlation coefficients and regression analysis. The research methodology employed in this research is described below.

1.4 RESEARCH METHOD

The research method consists of a literature review and an empirical study.

1.4.1 Phase 1: Literature review

The aim of the literature review is the conceptualisation of Organisational Diagnoses, relevant models and methods of organisation diagnose.

1.4.2 Phase 2: Empirical Study

The following components of the empirical study are designed to assist in achieving the research objectives.

1.4.2.1. Research design

The research objectives will be achieved by employing an Organisational Diagnoses.

A quantitative design was used to reach the research objectives. The decision to use quantitative research, was essential because of the nature of organisational diagnose. It is very important to interact with the employees of an organisation on a personal level in an organisational diagnose (Pratt, Gordon & Plamping, 1999). The specific design is the cross-sectional design, whereby information is collected from a sample or population at one time (Shaughnessy & Zechmeister, 1997). Information collected is used to describe the perceptions of the population at that time. This design can also be used to assess interrelationships among variables within a population. According to Shaughnessy and Zechmeister (1997), this design is ideally suited to the descriptive and predictive functions associated with correlational research. Correlational research is the method of choice when the goal of the research is prediction. However, there are serious limitations to using the results of this type of research to make inferences about casual relationships (Rothmann, 2001).

The aim of the research design is to structure the research in such a way that the internal validity and the external validity of the research findings are increased (Mouton & Marais, 1992). In this research

internal validity on a contextual level will be secured by the conceptualisation of organisational diagnoses and organisational development as defined in the literature. External validity will be secured by selecting subjects within a depot of a distributing organisation and using all employees of the depot for the research.

1.4.2.2 Study population

All 88 employees of a depot of a distribution organisation were chosen to partake in the research. Approximately 96 per cent of the population consisted of males. The age of the group varied between 19 and 60 years.

1.4.2.3 Measuring instruments

A questionnaire is used as a measuring instrument. Prior to constructing the questionnaire, interviews were conducted with a sample (N=30) of the staff members of a depot of a distributing organisation. Based on the results of the interviews as well as existing models of organisational behaviour, a questionnaire was developed.

1.4.2.4 Data analysis

The data-analysis is carried out with the help of the SAS-programme (SAS Institute, 2000). Principal factors extraction with varimax rotation is performed on the items of the questionnaire. Squared Multiple Correlations (SMC) will be used to determine the reliability of the questionnaire. Descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations, minimum, maximum, skewness, and kurtosis) will be used. Pearson's

product moment correlations and Spearman's correlations will be described.

1.5 CHAPTER DIVISION

The mini-dissertation consists of the following chapters:

Chapter 2: Organisation Diagnose

Chapter 3: Empirical study

Chapter 4: Results and discussion

Chapter 5: Conclusion, limitations and recommendations

1.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter sought to provide details of the motivation for this research as well as the methodology to be employed. In addition to the problem statement, the objectives of the research, research method and paradigmatic context were outlined. Finally, the envisaged chapter arrangement was indicated.

Chapter 2 focuses on Organisational Diagnoses.

CHAPTER 2

ORGANISATION DIAGNOSES

In this chapter the concept of organisation diagnoses is discussed. The use of organisation diagnoses, as a step in organisational development will be discussed. A working definition of organisation diagnoses as well as methods and models of organisation diagnoses will follow this.

2.1 ORGANISATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Organisations are social systems consisting out of the planned co-ordination of activities of a number of people for the achievement of some common explicit purpose or goal, through the division of labour and function and through a hierarchy of authority and responsibility (Vardalis & Wiatrowski, 2000). The complexity of the organisation as a social system requires that organisations be developed and improved continuously for future sustainability and survival. Organisational development efforts are directed toward organisations or major subparts of them (Schein, 1985).

Organisation development is a model that is designed for planned, systematic, and ongoing problem-and action-oriented processes that focus on both technical and human improvement within organisations (Bedeian, 1999). This long-term approach needs management support and is based on sound management theory and practice (Pasmore &

Woodman, 1997). The focus of Organisation Development is on the effectiveness of the whole organisation (Vardalis & Wiatrowski, 2000). There are six characteristics that differentiate organisation development interventions from more traditional interventions in the improvement of organisations (French, Bell & Zawacki, 1994):

- An organisation development program is a long-range, planned, and sustained effort that unfolds according to a strategy.
- The organisation development consultant establishes a unique relationship with client system members.
- The nature of the intervention activities differentiates organisational development from other improvement strategies.
- The targets of organisation development interventions differentiate organisation development from other improvement strategies.
- Organisation development consultants utilise a behavioural science base.
- The desired outcomes of organisational development are distinctive in nature.

The process of organisational development consist of the following phases (Bedeian, 1999):

- Getting involved

- Contracting
- Diagnoses
- Feedback
- Planning change
- Interventions
- Evaluating

Organisation Diagnose form part of the diagnosis phase of organisation development.

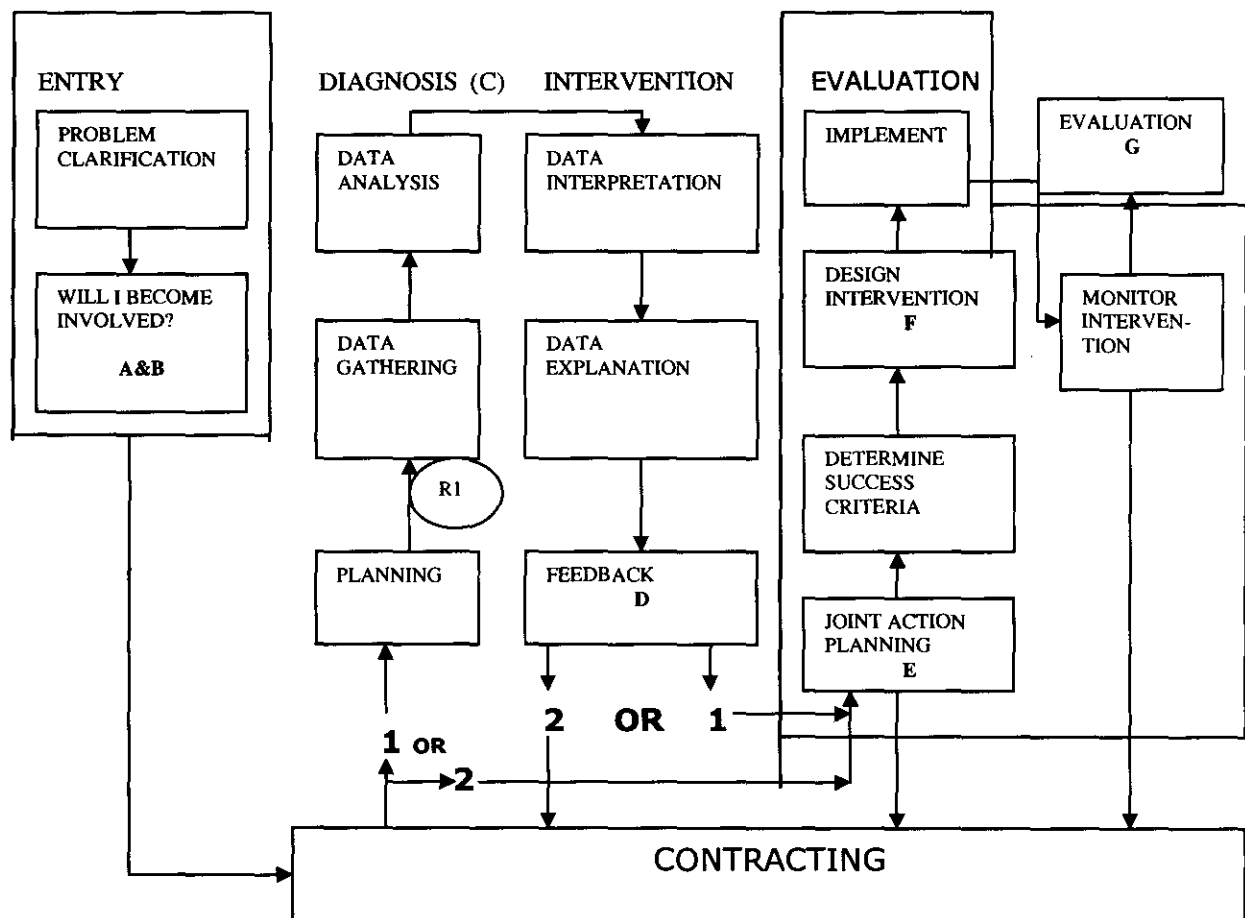


Figure 2.1: The process of Organisational Development

2.2. ORGANISATION DIAGNOSES

The field of organisational development continues to gain practitioners, clients, theorists, researchers, and new technologies. It has been applied in a wide range of settings and has become a preferred strategy for facilitating change in organisations (Pratt, Gordon & Plamping, 1999). One of organisational development's major tools in accomplishing increased individual and organisational effectiveness is organisational diagnosis. The organisational diagnose is the heart of organisational development, and will be described in detail (Schein, 1985).

2.2.1 Definition of Organisation Diagnoses

Organisation diagnosis is the process of using concepts and methods from the social and behavioural sciences to assess the current state of an entire organisation or a sub-unit and to find ways to improve its effectiveness. So in short a diagnosis can be described as the gap between health and sickness (Vardalis & Wiatrowski, 2000). Diagnosis plays a crucial role in the many programs of planned organisational change and development, all of which share the goal of improving one or more facets of organisational effectiveness (Bedeian, 1999).

2.2.2 Models of Organisation Diagnoses

Within the literature different models of Organisation Diagnoses can be found. The following models will be discussed for the purpose of this research:

- Weisbord's organisational diagnostic model

- The Burke-Litwin model of individual and organisational performance
- Likert's overlapping group / link-pin model
- Systems theory of French and Bell

2.2.2.1 Weisbord's *organisational* diagnostic model

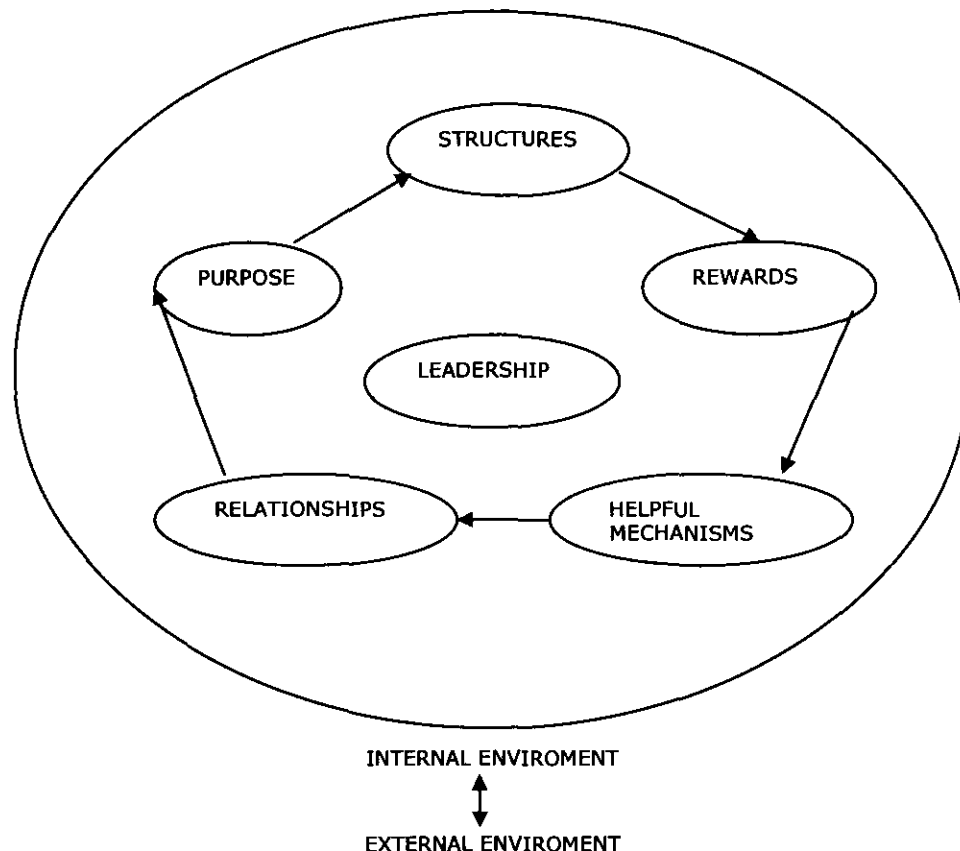


Figure 2.2. The six box organisational model (Weisbord, 1976)

The organisational diagnosis model used in this research is based on the organisational diagnose model of Weisbord (1976). The elements in Weisbord's model are similar to these in other diagnostic models, such as those of Nadler, (1977), Tichy (1983) and Burke and Litwin (1992). In comparison with other models of Organisation Diagnoses,

Weisbord's organisational diagnoses model is relatively uncomplicated, easy to understand and visualise by clients, reflect the essential activities and key variables in an organisation, and has been successfully implemented to assist clients in their change programs (Burke, 1991). The above mentioned serve as motivation for the use of this model in this research.

The development of organisational diagnostic models such as Weisbord's (1976) or Preziosi's (1980) have enhanced organisational practitioners' ability to assess organisational issues. A major criticism of models like the Weisbord's organisational diagnoses model is that the psychometric properties of this survey instrument have not been fully established. The Weisbord's organisational diagnoses model has been used as the basis for the models of Nadler (1977), Tichy (1983) and Burke and Litwin (1992).

Weisbord's (1976) organisational diagnosis model groups various activities, formal or informal, into six dimensions. These six dimensions are (Gaertner & Ramnaravan, 1983):

- purposes,
- structure,
- relationships,
- rewards,
- leadership and
- helpful mechanisms.

The dimensions of the Weisbord model can be describe as follows:

a) Purpose

Weisbord defined organisational purpose as basic plan to secure survival and richness (Weisbord's, 1976). Organisational problems frequently start with a lack of direction from the top. Lack of direction leads to the poor allocation of resources and confusion about what people should be doing. It is important for top management to establish what business the organisation is in. The second important issue is that employees should agree with the purpose of the organisation (Laufer, 1988).

b) Structure

Weisbord's (1976) defined structure as the ladder between the boss and the employee, and also the ladder of success (Weisbord's, 1976). For the structure dimension, the primary question is whether there is an adequate fit between purpose and the internal structure that is supposed to serve that purpose (Gaertner & Ramnaravan, 1983). The relationships dimension investigates relationship between individuals or departments that perform different tasks, and between people and the nature and requirements of their jobs. Organisational structure reflects the reporting relationships within an organisation (French, Bell & Zawacki, 1994). This structure should support or reinforce the accomplishment of strategic goals. A flatter structure is for example more appropriate for an organisation operating in a highly volatile industry because it facilitates faster communication across organisational levels. In contrast, a centralized structure helps to reduce the duplication of effort that commonly exists in decentralized organisations (Laufer, 1988).

c) Rewards

Weisbord (1976) defined reward as the dimension that measures employees' level of satisfaction with the rewards, the compensation package, incentive systems and the like, offered by the organisation. Employees exhibit behaviours that get rewarded. Organisations need to design reward systems that reinforce desired results. Unfortunately, organisations frequently reward the wrong behaviours. For example, group incentives should be used instead of individual rewards when productivity is highly dependent on teamwork (Rothwell, Sullivan & Mclean, 1995). Having managers identify and reward appropriate behaviours and results can reduce organisational problems.

d) Helpful mechanism

Weisbord (1976) defined helpful mechanism as the tool that makes the trade work. The helpful mechanism dimension refers to all the processes that every organisation must attend to in order to survive: planning, control, budgeting, and other information systems that meet organisational objectives. The helpful mechanism can thus be referred to as the support systems of the organisation, which include the tools, techniques, and processes that the organisations use to achieve efficiency and effectiveness.

e) Relationships

Weisbord (1976) defined relationships as the soft thatch of an organisation, change that and you change the whole organisation was his philosophy. The diagnostic area focuses on the quality of

interpersonal relationships among individuals and groups. It is important for organisations to foster constructive conflict while also removing any dysfunctional conflict (Laufer, 1988).

f) Leadership

Weisbord (1976) defined leadership as the core of every business. The heart beat of every organisation, for the organisation will function as the heart dictates. Leadership, the core of this model, is essential for organisational success and is used to maintain and support other components in the model. Successful change is unlikely without effective leadership. First off, someone is needed to champion the change effort in order to overcome the forces of resistance to change. Secondly, someone must coordinate and manage the change and development process.

2.2.2.2 The Burke-Litwin model of individual and organisational performance

The Burke and Litwin model is loosely based on the Weisbord model. It is a very complicated model and follows the Gestalt idea of a total systems approach (Gaertner & Ramnaravan, 1983). The model consists of 12 dimensions. The major idea of the model is that the one dimension has an equal influence on all the other dimensions. Changing one dimension means that all other dimensions will be changed. This model was developed for large organisations that have complex issues of change. The main dimensions of the Burke-Litwin model can be describe in the following way (Vardalis & Wiatrowski, 2000).

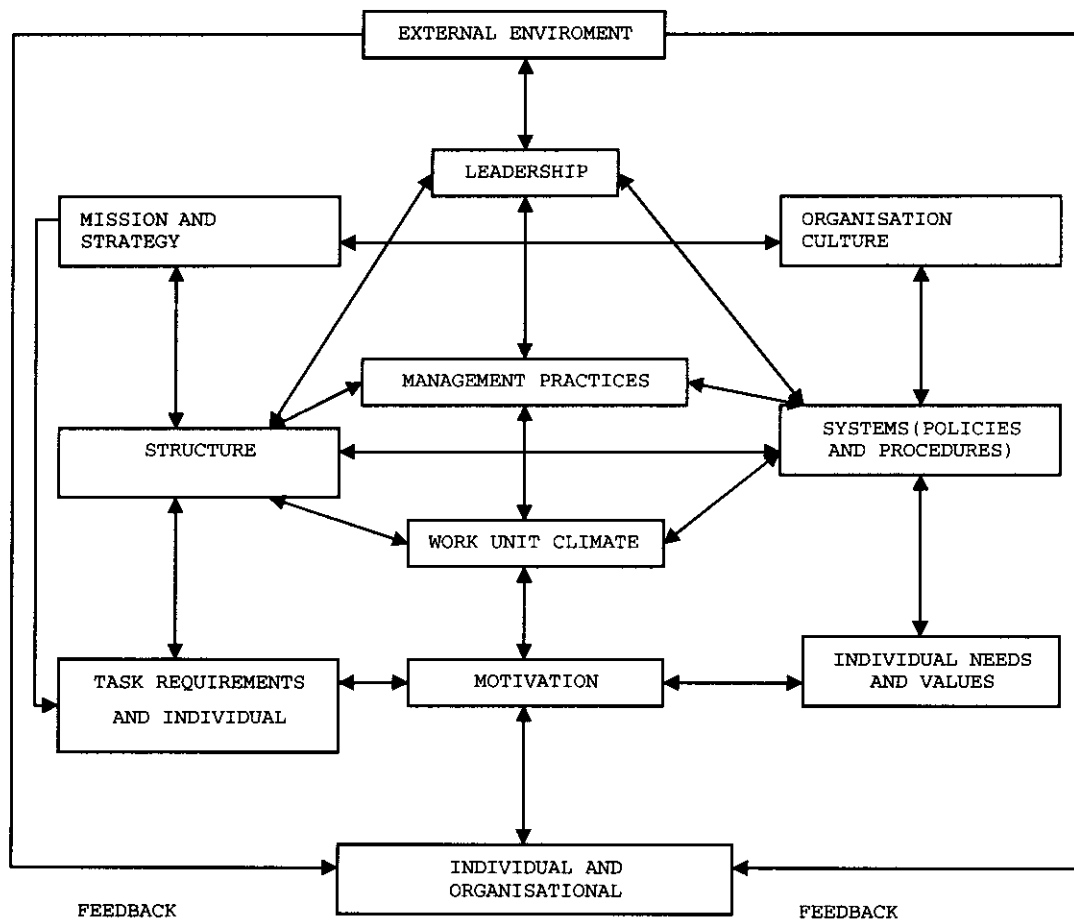


Figure 2.3: The Burke-Litwin model of individual and organisational performance (Vardalis & Wiatrowski, 2000).

a) Mission and strategy

The mission and strategy dimension implies the basic long-and short-term plans of the organisation. The mission and strategy is the base from which all organisations formulate basic business decisions. Organisational problems frequently start with a lack of direction from the top. Lack of direction leads to the poor allocation of resources and confusion about what people should be doing. It is important for top management to establish what business the organisation is in. The

second important issue is that employees should agree with the purpose of the organisation (Rothwell, Sullivan & Mclean, 1995).

b) Structure

For the structure dimension, the primary question is whether there is an adequate fit between purpose and the internal structure that is supposed to serve that purpose (Gaertner & Ramnaravan, 1983). The relationships dimension investigates relationship between individuals or departments that perform different tasks, and between people and the nature and requirements of their jobs. Organisational structure reflects the reporting relationships within an organisation (Lock & Crawford, 2000). This structure should support or reinforce the accomplishment of strategic goals. For example, a flatter is more appropriate for an organisation operating in a highly volatile industry because it facilitates faster communication across organisational levels (Buchanan & Boddy, 1992). In contrast, a centralised structure helps to reduce the duplication of effort that commonly exists in decentralized organisations (Rothwell, Sullivan & Mclean, 1995).

c) Culture

In this dimension culture is seen as the social construction of organisational. The Burke-Litwin model considers culture ambiguous and uncertain and in a constant state of flux. In addition, they recognise that symbols become the vehicles for staging reality and creating direction (Burke, 1991).

The model has identified the four following types of organisational cultures: Control, Collaboration, Competence, and Cultivation. These

four cultures can be identified by their distinctly differing approaches to strategy, leadership, and organisational behaviour (Hendry, 1994).

Control cultures

Drive for predictability and order. Leadership is authoritative and conservative, with a high regard for proper channels. The strategy for success is to create and enforce order throughout the organisation and with customers (Hendry, 1994).

Collaboration cultures

Pursue close relationships with customers. Mirroring this emphasis on the quality of relationships, their leadership invites high participation and focuses on building highly cohesive teams. Success comes from the quality of relationships, both within the organisation and between the organisation and its customers (Hendry, 1994).

Competence cultures

Pursue excellence, innovation, being the first with new ideas. Leadership in competence cultures is visionary, sets high standards and encourages people to achieve new heights. The strategy for success is to be exceptional, unique (Hendry, 1994).

Cultivation cultures

Pursue life enrichment, for customers and employees. Leadership is charismatic and inspirational (Hendry, 1994).

d) Individual needs and values

In Burke-Litwin model values plays a key role in organisational development, and traditional values promoting trust, collaboration, and openness is the essence to motivation (Lock & Crawford, 2000). The key is to determine the tension between humanistic objectives and values and organisational needs and values resulting in value dilemmas and value conflicts (Rothwell, Sullivan & Mclean, 1995). Unfortunately, this attempt to find a balance between more empowered solutions on the one hand, and organisational needs on the other, has become a major dilemma for the organisation development consultant (Beckhard & Pritchard, 1992).

e) Leadership

Leadership is the essence of this model. It is considered essential for organisational success. All the other components of the model are kept in balance by this dimension. Successful change is unlikely without effective leadership (Lock & Crawford, 2000).

f) Work unit climate

The work unit climate refers to the relationships within an organisation (Rothwell, Sullivan & Mclean, 1995). The diagnostic area focuses on the quality of interpersonal relationships among individuals and groups. It is important for organisations to foster constructive conflict while also removing any dysfunctional conflict.

g) Systems (policies and procedures)

The systems of the organisation refer to Weisbord's rewards and helpful mechanisms (Rothwell, Sullivan & Mclean, 1995).

2.2.2.3 Likert's overlapping group/link-pin model

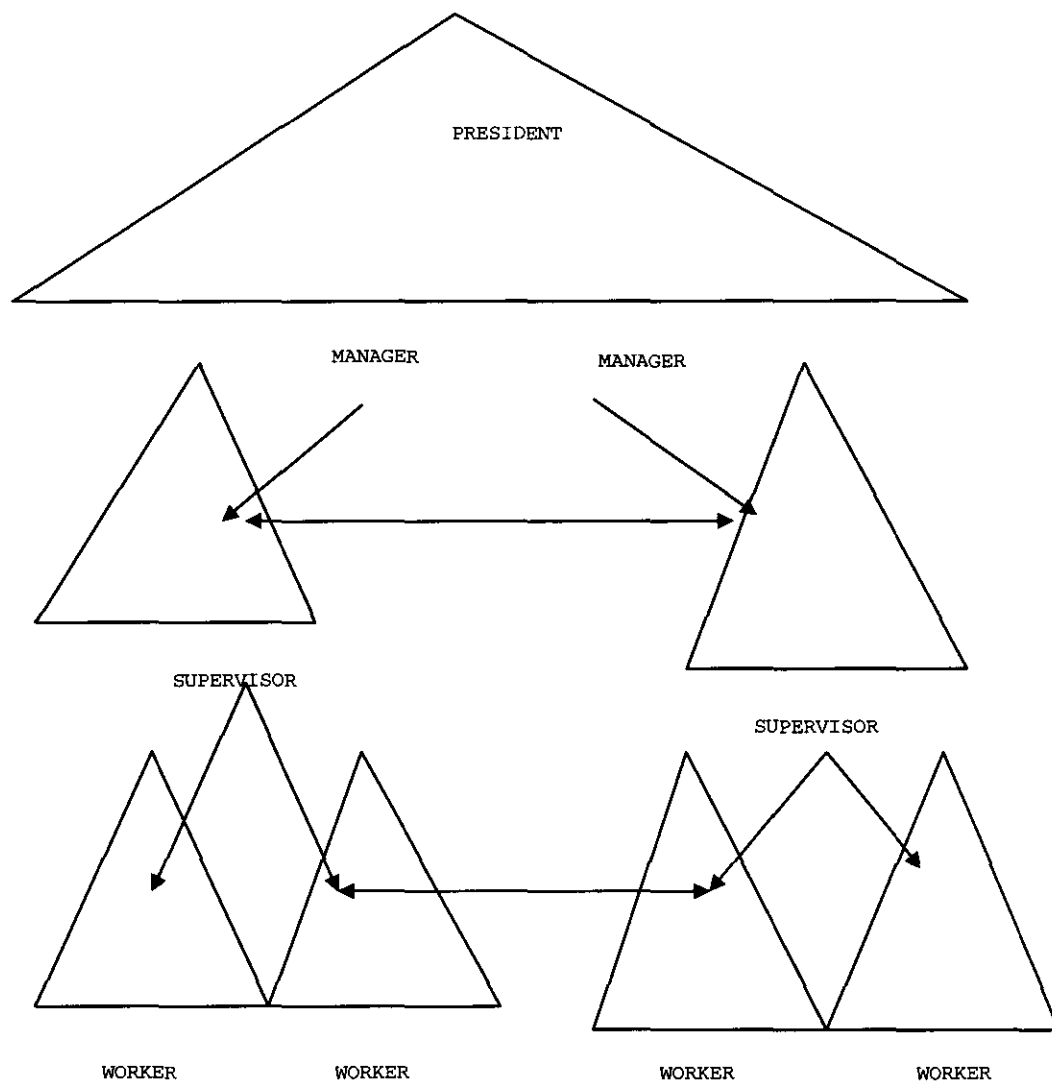


Figure 2.4: Likert's overlapping / link-pin model (Vardalis & Wiatrowski, 2000).

Likert's method began evolving when he observed that many organisations seldom used the results from attitude surveys to guide their change efforts. Managers authorized the survey but did not always act on the results. This created more frustration among employees than not asking for their opinions in the first place. The centrepiece of Likert's approach was a technique called the interlocking conference (Lock & Crawford, 2000). Survey results were given to top managers during the first conference, and then other conferences were held to inform the organisation's successively lower levels. In each conference, group members worked together to establish an action plan to address problems or weaknesses revealed by the survey (Pasmore & Woodman, 1997). This top-down strategy of feedback and performance planning ensured that the action plan devised by each group was tied to those at higher levels (Vardalis & Wiatrowski, 2000).

The major advantage of the model is that it is simple and cheap to apply. The major disadvantage with this model was that it was designed with specific organisational structures in mind. So the use of the model is limited to bigger organisations and structures (Rothwell, Sullivan & Mclean, 1995).

2.2.2.4 Systems Theory of French and Bell

The system model of French and Bell (1984), considers the organisation as whole consisting out of interactive subsystems and processes. The organisation can be divided into the following: Task Subsystem, structural subsystem, technology subsystem, goal subsystem, and the external subsystem (Laufer, 1988).

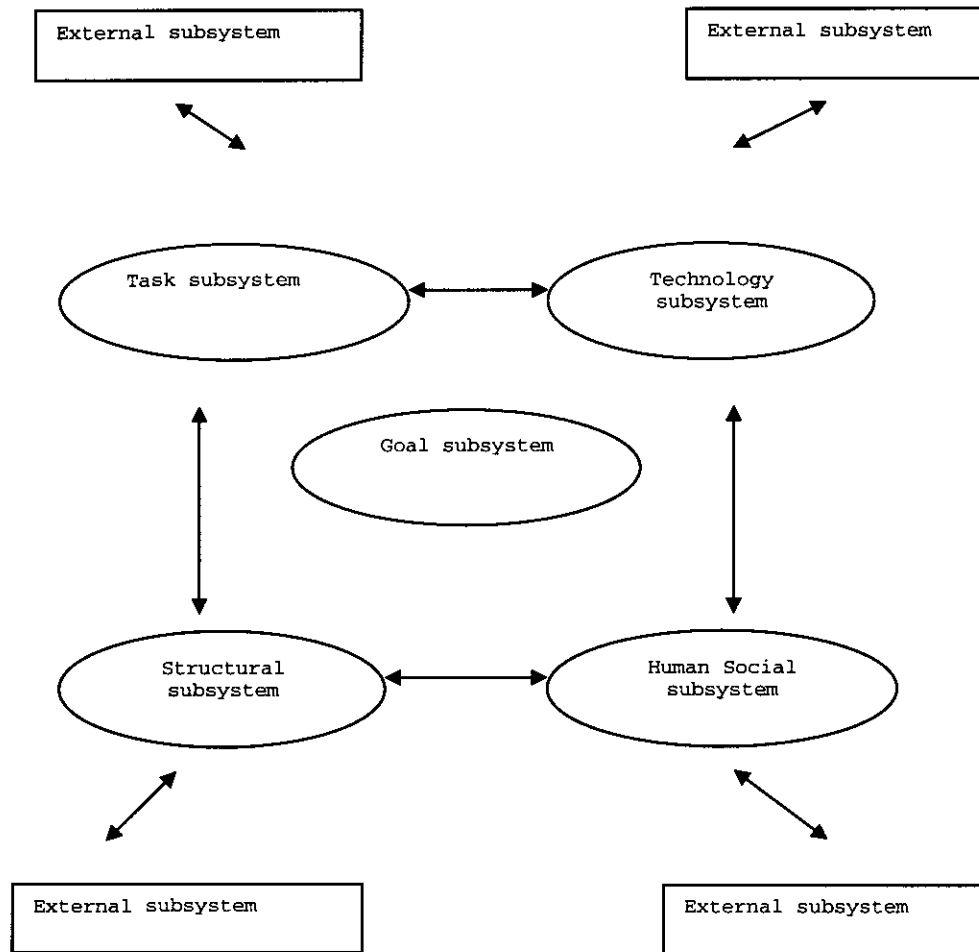


Figure 2.5: The system model of French and Bell (1984).

Each subsystem can be described as follows:

a) Goal subsystem

This subsystem consists out of related levels of goals. These levels of goals eventually form the strategy. At first it is important to identify one or two major goals that are described in the mission (French & Bell, 1984). The mission and strategy is the reason for the organisation existence. The reason for existence is also closely related

to the external environment (Pasmore & Woodman, 1997). Secondly it is important to identify the secondary goals. The secondary goals are formulated for every department of the organisation. At the third level goals are formulated for small groups and even individuals (French & Bell, 1984).

b) Technology subsystem

The technology subsystem refers to the available instruments in the organisation. The instruments are the technology, technical knowledge, and the equipment that employees use to produce the desired outcome (Pasmore & Woodman, 1997).

c) Task subsystem

The subsystem of task consists out of sharing of the work processes into task and subtasks. This subsystem is closely related to the technology subsystem (Rothwell, Sullivan & Mclean, 1995). The reason is that quantity and quality of the desired outcome is determined by the available technology in the organisation (Pasmore & Woodman, 1997).

d) Structural subsystem

Task expectations as well as the technology have a major impact on the structure of the organisation (French & Bell, 1984). The grouping of the tasks will determine the command structures in the organisation. Included in this dimension are the rules, command structure and procedures that normally is essential in communication,

planning, coordination, control and decision making (Rothwell, Sullivan & Mclean, 1995).

e) Human social subsystem

The human social subsystem is the way in which individuals and groups interact in the organisation. It is related to the interpersonal and group relationships, motivation and the culture within the organisation. This dimension consists of skills of the employees, leadership philosophy, the formal human subsystem and the informal human subsystem (French & Bell, 1984). The formal subsystem refers to employment, remuneration, performance evaluations and procedures. The informal human subsystem consists of competitiveness, group's norms, feelings and status.

f) External subsystem

The external subsystem consists of the environment in which the organisation functions (French & Bell, 1984). For any organisation to stay alive it is very important that information can be gathered out of the environment. This subsystem is an interaction between the environment and the organisation (Pasmore & Woodman, 1997).

2.2.3. Methods for gathering diagnostic data

Choosing techniques for gathering and analysing data consultants need to consider their implications for the consulting process and their appropriateness to the interpretative questions being asked, as well as their practicality and their suitability for a more purely methodological

stand point (Pasmore & Woodman, 1997). Consultants can use some techniques, such as interviewing and conducting of workshops, to build an understanding of the purposes of the consulting project and sympathy with it (French, Bell & Zawacki, 1994). The impact of particular methods on the consulting process will depend, of course, on the way ways in which members of the client organisation react to them. In some cases, for example, methods like unstructured observations or the conducting of group interviews that do not yield quantified results may be regarded as unscientific (Buchanan & Boddy, 1992). In others, the use of questionnaires or other techniques that lend themselves to quantification may be regarded as too impersonal and overly academic (Rothwell, Sullivan & Mclean, 1995).

Key interpretive issues for consideration include the appropriateness of the method to the topic under study and to the level of analysis. Questionnaire data, for example, lend themselves most readily to examining individual level attitudes and behaviour, whereas observations and interviews can more readily be used to obtain data on interpersonal, group and organisational factors (Goldstein & Burke, 1991).

More strictly methodological considerations concern the degree to which the gathering and analysis procedures are structured and rigorous. Structured techniques, like fixed choice questionnaires and observations using a standard coding scheme, follow detailed rules and procedures that facilitate the summarizing of results according to precisely defined categories (Pasmore & Woodman, 1997). Structured data gathering and measurement procedures usually produce higher levels of reliability between investigators, but it is very hard to

structure techniques for assessing many complex phenomena, such as the degree to which managers accurately interpret external developments. Rigorous methods follow accepted standards of scientific inquiry (Rothwell, Sullivan & Mclean, 1995).

They have a high probability of producing results that are valid and could be replicated by other trained investigators. Non-rigorous approaches may yield valid results, but these cannot be evaluated or replicated by other investigators. Consultants may none the less use non-rigorous methods because of constraints on resources and access to data or because they feel that the non-rigorous methods contribute to the consulting relationships (French, Bell & Zawacki, 1994).

No single method for gathering and analysing data can suit every diagnostic problem and situation, just as there cannot be a universal model for building diagnostic interpretations or one ideal procedure for managing the consulting process. By using several methods to gather and analyse their data, practitioners can compensate for many of the drawbacks associated with single methods (Rothwell, Sullivan & Mclean, 1995).

The following are methods that can be used in organisation diagnoses to gather data:

- Questionnaires
- Interviews
- Observations
- Secondary Analysis
- Workshop and Group discussions

2.2.3.1. Questionnaires

Questionnaires can be defined as self-administered schedules of questions with fixed-choice responses (Kanter, 1983). There are two types of questionnaires:

- A Standard type. The Preziosi and Weisbord questionnaire are examples of this type of questionnaire. Both these standard questionnaires are based on the Weisbord model of organisational diagnose. Weisbord's instrument has 30 items measuring the six dimensions contained in his model. Preziosi's (1980) questionnaire uses the same items appearing in Weisbord's model, together with five more items used to measure an additional factor, attitude to change. Preziosi's diagnostic questionnaire (1980) has 35 items with each item in this questionnaire being rated on a Likert scale ranging from agree strongly (7) to disagree strongly (1).
- Another type of questionnaire is based on qualitative research. This type of questionnaire is custom made for the organisation. Which mean that a questionnaire is compiled after interviews have been conducted with participants in the research (Pasmore & Woodman, 1997). The interviews can be conducted with focus groups or individuals. After interviews has been conducted the main responses will be categorised into three main areas of concern the strong points, weaknesses and other important areas that is necessary to conduct the research.

The advantages of questionnaires are the following:

- It is easy to quantify (French, Bell & Zawacki, 1994).
- It is easy to summarize the results (French, Bell & Zawacki, 1994).
- Questionnaires are the quickest way to conduct research (Greenhalgh, 2000).
- Questionnaires are the least costly way to gather new data rigorously (French, Bell & Zawacki, 1994).
- It is suitable for large samples (Greenhalgh, 2000).
- It is also an excellent instrument for repeated measures over time (Rothwell, Sullivan & Mclean, 1995).
- Questionnaire makes the comparisons between units easier. A standardized questionnaire can reflect diagnostic models (Rothwell, Sullivan & Mclean, 1995).
- It is also well suited for studying attitudes (Rothwell, Sullivan & Mclean, 1995).

The disadvantages of questionnaires are the following:

- It is hard to obtain data on structure (Pasmore & Woodman, 1997).

- Questionnaires are unsuitable to gather data on situations shaping behaviour (Pasmore & Woodman, 1997).
- It is also unsuitable for sensitive issues (Rothwell, Sullivan & Mclean, 1995).
- It is impersonal. Researchers also risk non-responses with questionnaires (Greenhalgh, 2000).
- In some cases questionnaires have items that is invalid or that can be described as biased (Rothwell, Sullivan & Mclean, 1995).
- Questionnaires require skills in constructing instruments and quantitative analysis (Rothwell, Sullivan & Mclean, 1995).
- The risk exists that researchers can become over reliant on standard instruments (Kanter, 1983).

2.2.3.2. Interviews

Interviews can be defined as statements that the interviewer uses to obtain data or responses from the participants in the research (Pasmore & Woodman, 1997). The questions can be conducted from a fixed schedule, an interview guide or on the spot judgment. The fixed schedule interview is normally conducted from a pre-arranged schedule of questions that the interviewer follows stridently. The interview guide is a pre-arranged schedule of questions, but it gives the interviewer more lea way to change his or her approach to the respondent. On the spot interviews are conducted in such a way that

the interviewer follows his or her own discretion (French, Bell & Zawacki, 1994).

The advantages of an interview are the following:

- Interviews can be used to cover a wide range of topics and features (French, Bell & Zawacki, 1994).
- Interviews can be modified to fit needs before or during interviews. The researcher can convey empathy (Rothwell, Sullivan & Mclean, 1995).
- It is an excellent instrument to build trust (Rothwell, Sullivan & Mclean, 1995).
- The researcher can also obtain rich data. Interviews also give the researcher the opportunity to provide understanding of the respondent's own viewpoint and interpretations (Rothwell, Sullivan & Mclean, 1995).

The disadvantages of interviews are the following:

- It is rather expensive (Handy, 1985).
- Interviewing require skills that can take years to learn (Rothwell, Sullivan & Mclean, 1995).
- The interviewer can experience sampling problems in large populations or organisations (Handy, 1985).

- There is a big possibility of respondent and interviewer bias (Rothwell, Sullivan & Mclean, 1995).
- The non-comparability of responses in unstructured or semi-structured interviews is a big disadvantage (Rothwell, Sullivan & Mclean, 1995).
- Interviews are notoriously difficult to analyse and interpret results (Kanter, 1983).

2.2.3.3. Observations

Observations can be defined as the scientific observation of employees in the work milieu (Pasmore & Woodman, 1997).

The advantages of observation are the following:

- Data gathered by observation are independent of people's generalisations (Rothwell, Sullivan & Mclean, 1995).
- Observation is independent of people's feelings and opinions (Greenhalgh, 2000).
- Observation is an excellent instrument to gather data on effects of situations (Rothwell, Sullivan & Mclean, 1995).
- It is flexible (Rothwell, Sullivan & Mclean, 1995).

- Observations can generate rich data on a range of hard to measure topics (Rothwell, Sullivan & Mclean, 1995).
- It is also an excellent instrument to generate insights and new hypotheses (Rothwell, Sullivan & Mclean, 1995).

The disadvantages of observations are the following:

- In many cases constraints on access such as distance, secrecy, participant's objections and timing can create problems for the researcher (Pasmore & Woodman, 1997).
- It is difficult to determine the sampling in large populations or large organisations (Pasmore & Woodman, 1997).
- It is an extremely costly way of conducting research. Observation requires trained observers (Rothwell, Sullivan & Mclean, 1995).
- Observer's bias or reliability can create problems for the research (Greenhalgh, 2000).
- Observation's biggest problem is that participant's behaviour can change due to the fact that they realise that they are being observed (Greenhalgh, 2000).
- Observation can create problems of interpretation, analysis and reporting (Kanter, 1983).

- Observation may seem unscientific (Kanter, 1983).

2.2.3.4. Secondary Analysis

Secondary analysis can be defined as the use of organisational documents, reports, files and unobtrusive measurements.

The advantages of secondary analysis are the following:

- Secondary analysis is unobtrusive (Pasmore & Woodman, 1997).
- Participants do not feel or react to measurement (Rothwell, Sullivan & Mclean, 1995).
- Secondary analysis is often quantifiable. Repeated measures of secondary analysis can show change (Rothwell, Sullivan & Mclean, 1995).
- Members of organisations can help to gather information that the researcher needs (Rothwell, Sullivan & Mclean, 1995).
- Members of an organisation can also help with the analysis of the data (Pasmore & Woodman, 1997).
- Secondary analysis validity and believability are normally high (Rothwell, Sullivan & Mclean, 1995).
- Secondary analysis is often cheaper and faster than collecting new data (Pasmore & Woodman, 1997).

- The biggest advantage of secondary analysis is that it can provide data on total organisation and environment (Rothwell, Sullivan & Mclean, 1995).

The disadvantages of secondary analysis are the following:

- It is sometime quite difficult for the researcher to gain access to secondary analysis (Kanter, 1983).
- Analysis problems can raise costs and time requirements (Kanter, 1983).
- Validity and believability may be low and interpretation difficult when data are not used for original purpose (French, Bell & Zawacki, 1994).
- The researcher needs to interpret the data in the right context (Kanter, 1983).
- The biggest disadvantage of secondary analysis is that limited coverage of many topics may occur (Kanter, 1983).

2.2.3.5. Workshops and Group Discussions

Workshops and group discussions can be defined as a facilitated session between the consultant and the participants of the research.

The advantages of workshops and group discussions are the following:

- Useful data on complex issues can be generated (Rothwell, Sullivan & Mclean, 1995).
- It is a subtle process (French, Bell & Zawacki, 1994).
- The interaction that occurs in workshops and group discussions can stimulate thinking (French, Bell & Zawacki, 1994).
- Data is available for immediate feedback and analysis. Workshops and group discussions create high involvement of the members of an organisation (Greenhalgh, 2000).
- Employees can learn the art of self diagnose (Rothwell, Sullivan & Mclean, 1995).
- Researchers leading workshops and group discussions can convey empathy and built trust (Rothwell, Sullivan & Mclean, 1995).
- Often workshops and group discussions can be fed directly into action planning (Rothwell, Sullivan & Mclean, 1995).

The disadvantages of workshops and group discussions are the following:

- Workshops and group discussions can lead to bias due to the group processes (Goldstein & Burke, 1991).

- The researcher needs to be very careful not to influence the group's direction (Goldstein & Burke, 1991).
- The researcher needs group skills (Goldstein & Burke, 1991).
- The biggest disadvantage is that rich data can only be generated within groups with high levels of trust and co-operation (Goldstein & Burke, 1991).
- Workshops and group discussions may produce superficial, biased results (Rothwell, Sullivan & Mclean, 1995).

2.3 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter discussed organisation diagnoses as a step in the organisational development process. A working definition of Organisation Diagnoses has been given and the different methods and models of Organisation Diagnoses have been discussed.

This has led to the first objective being accomplished, namely to conceptualise Organisation Diagnoses from the literature. Thus, the first research question is answered.

Chapter 3 focuses on the empirical study.

CHAPTER 3

EMPIRICAL STUDY

In this chapter the method used for the empirical study is discussed. The focus is on the choice and compilation of the study population, the measuring battery, administration and scoring of the measuring instrument, as well as the relevant statistical analysis. Research hypotheses are also stated in terms of the present study.

3.1 STUDY POPULATION

Subsequently the study population is discussed with the focus on its composition and characteristics.

The study population ($N=88$) was chosen from a depot of a distributing organisation. The total population of representatives of the depot was chosen to partake in the research.

The characteristics of the population are shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Characteristics of the population

Characteristics of the population	Category	n	%
Gender	Male	75	86
	Female	13	14
Age	18-20 years	1	1.136
	21-30 years	32	36.363

31-40 years	41	46.59
41-50 years	8	9.09
51-60 years	6	6.818

It seems, according to Table 1 that 86% of the chosen population was male and that 46,59% of the population were on average between the age 31 and 40 years.

The chosen population forms part of the following departments: administration, warehousing and sales.

The distribution of manpower is shown in Table 2.

Table 2

Manpower distribution

Department	n	%
Administration	13	14.77
Sales	10	11.36
Warehousing	65	73.86

A self-derived questionnaire was used to gather information on the perceptions of the employees of a distributing organisation. The questionnaire was distributed to the total population of representatives of the depot. (See ANNEXURE A)

3.2 MEASURING BATTERY

In this section the rationale and development, description, administration and scoring, interpretation and the reliability and validation of the measuring instrument is discussed.

A questionnaire was self-derived to satisfy the specific objective of the research. The process was as follows.

3.2.1 Method for data gathering

In this research interviews and questionnaires were used as methods for data gathering. A representative sample (N=30) of the total population of employees working at a depot of a distributing organisation, from different job levels and departments were interviewed. The interviews were conducted in private, and the results were masked in order to ensure confidentiality and anonymity.

Participants were asked to identify different problems in their work environment through answering the following questions:

- What do you consider the strong points of the organisation?
- What do you consider the weaknesses of the organisation?
- Do you think the organisation can cope with current changes?

The interviews were recorded with the consent of the participants. The main themes were identified and these themes were included in the questionnaire as dimensions.

3.2.2 The Organisation Diagnoses Questionnaire

3.2.2.1 Validity and reliability

When compiling a questionnaire, certain statistical factors need to be considered in order to ensure the validity and reliability of the questionnaire.

a) Validity

Validity can be defined as what the test measures and how well it does so (Anastasi & Urbina, 1997), (Maloney & Ward, 1976).

During the questionnaire compilation, attention was given to two kinds of validity, face validity and content validity.

- **Face validity**

Face validity pertains to whether the test “looks valid” to the examinees that takes it, the administrative personnel who decide on its use, and other technically untrained observers (Anastasi & Urbina, 1997).

During this research face validity was ensure through the language used in the questionnaire. The questionnaire that was compiled used the same language as the respondents. The language was also set at a low level so that employees with little or no education could complete it.

- **Content validity**

Content validity refers to the systematic examination of the test content to determine whether it covers a representative sample of the behaviour domain to be measured (Anastasi & Urbina, 1997).

Content validity was ensure through the use of Weisbord's Organisational Diagnoses model (1976) as a basis for the compilation of the questionnaire and by compiling items that is based on the components of the mentioned model.

b) Reliability

Reliability can be defined as the consistency of scores obtained by the same persons when they are re-examined with the same test on different occasions, or with different sets of equivalent items, or under other variable examining condition (Anastasi & Urbina, 1997).

Reliability were determined through Squared Multiple Correlations (SMC).

3.2.2.2 Description of the questionnaire

The questionnaire consists out of 25 items. Choices are given on a five-point scale. One and five represent the extremes on the scale, while three indicate that both statements of reference is. The different dimensions and the items measured in the questionnaire are indicated in Table 3. An example of the questionnaire is included as Annexure A.

Table 3

Different dimensions measured by the questionnaire

Dimension	Items
Conflict	10, 15, 19, 21, and 23
Remuneration	11, 12, 20, 24
Division of labour	2
Access to information	13
Supervisor support	3, 4, and 6
Mission and strategy	1, 14, and 18
Motivation: Promotion	16 and 22
Multi-skills	5
Change management	7 and 17
Control	8, 9, and 25

3.2.2.3 Administration of the questionnaire

The self-derived questionnaire was distributed among the employees of a distributing organisation. The information gathered from the questionnaire will be used to determine the main strong points, weaknesses and general feelings of the employees of the depot of a distributing organisation. After the data has been collected on perception of the employees, the data will be used to form an action plan to combat any bad perceptions and to encourage good perceptions of the employees.

3.3 RESEARCH PROCEDURE

A quantitative design was used to reach the research objectives. The specific design is the cross-sectional design, whereby information is

collected from a sample or population at one time (Shaughnessy & Zechmeister, 1997). This design can be used also to assess interrelationships among variables within a population. According to Shaughnessy and Zechmeister (1997) this design is ideally suited to the descriptive and predictive functions associated with correlational research. Correlational research is the method of choice when the goal of the research is prediction. However, there are serious limitations to using the results of this type of research to infer casual relationships (Rothmann, 2001).

The following research procedure was followed:

3.3.1 Negotiations with management

Before commencing this research the researcher scheduled a meeting with the manager of a depot of a distributing organisation for approval to conduct the research. The research proposal was discussed and commitment was obtained for the study. The original purpose of the research was to focus on a national survey within a distributing organisation but due to unforeseen problems, the researcher could only focus on the population of a depot of the distributing organisation. The contract signed is included in Annexure B.

3.3.2 Compilation of the Questionnaire

Via information gathered from interviews and Weisbord's organisational diagnoses model, a questionnaire was compiled.

3.3.3 Administration of the Questionnaire

Two letters (from the author and the organisation) indicating the purpose of the study (for research purposes only), the confidentiality of the data and the basis of participation (voluntary) were sent to the participants before the test battery was administered. The respondents were assured that all results would be kept highly confidential and that the data would be compiled scrupulously.

Certain respondents were asked to complete the questionnaire on computer as they had little or no education. The researcher assisted these employees by explaining the questions without prescribing suitable answers or influencing the mindsets of the respondents.

A biographical questionnaire was not indicated in the measuring battery, as this information was broadly available from the organisation. No time limits were set for answering the questionnaire. After the questionnaire had been completed and received the data were statistical analysed.

3.4 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The statistical analysis was carried out with the help of the SAS-programme (SAS Institute, 2000). The SAS 2000 will also be used to determine if any factor has prominence over the other factors. The analysis will also show if the employees of a depot of a distributing organisation have a positive or negative perception towards certain dimensions as measured by the self-derived questionnaire.

Descriptive statistics were used to analyse the data. Means, standard deviations, skewness, minimum- and maximum values, and kurtosis were used to describe and compare results. The three main measures of central tendency were the mean, median, and mode. These are epitomes of the sets of measures from which they are calculated. They tell what sets of measures are like on average, but are also compared to test relations. Moreover, individual scores can be usefully compared to them to assess the status of the individual (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000).

In this study, the mean is used as measure of central tendency. The standard deviation approximates the average distance that the individual scores from the mean. The higher the standard deviation, the greater the distances are, on average, from the mean (Steyn, Smit, Du Toit & Strasheim, 1995). Two components of normality are skewness and kurtosis. Skewness has to do with the symmetry of the distribution; a skewed variable is a variable whose mean is not in the centre of the distribution. Kurtosis has to do with the peakedness of a distribution; a distribution is either too peaked (with short, thick tails) or too flat (with long, thin tails) (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

The product-moment coefficient of correlation (r) is used to determine the relationship between the variables. The product-moment coefficient of correlation is used to calculate indices of relation between sets of ordered pairs in order to obtain more precise estimates of the direction and degree of relations. The product-moment coefficient of correlation is based on the concomitant variation of the members of sets of ordered pairs. If they covary – i.e. vary together, high values with high values, low values with low values, or high values with low values, and so on – it is said that there is a positive or negative

relation, as the case may be. If they do not covary, it is said there is “no” relation (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). Thus, if a relationship exists between the variables, it can be termed a positive relationship. A negative relationship occurs when a decrease in the measurement of one variable leads to an increase in the other variable (Ferguson, 1981).

According to Steyn (1999), there is an increasing need for researchers to interpret results according to effect sizes and practical significance rather than statistical significance. Statistically significant tests and p-values are used to determine if results are significant. Small p-values (smaller than 0,05) are frequently used as sufficient evidence that results are of significant importance. However, this is not always a reliable method. Often statistically significant results are of little practical importance Steyn (1999). According to Cohen (1988) the following are the cut-off points for practical significance of the correlation coefficients between variables:

- $r = 0,10$ – small effect
- $r = 0,30$ – medium effect
- $r = 0,50$ – large effect

3.5 FORMULATION OF HYPOTHESES

In conjunction with the specific research objectives, the following research hypotheses are formulated:

- H1: The derived Organisation Diagnoses questionnaire is reliable and valid.
- H2: The employees of a depot of a distributing organisation will tend to have a positive perception of the organisation.
- H3: The employees of a depot of a distributing organisation will tend to have a negative perception of the organisation that they work for.

3.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter dealt with the method used for the empirical study. The choice and compilation of the study population, measuring battery, administration and scoring of the measuring instrument were discussed, as well as relevant statistical analysis. Research hypotheses were stated in terms of the present study.

Chapter 4 deals with the reporting and discussion of results of the empirical study.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this chapter the results of the empirical study are reported and discussed. The Descriptive statistics (e.g. means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis) used to analyse the data, will be reported. Correlations will be reported via the Pearson correlation coefficients (r). The frequency of response on the various items will also be reported.

4.1.1 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Descriptive statistics (e.g. mean, standard deviation (SD), minimum, maximum, skewness and kurtosis) were used to analyse the data for the study population (N=88). The results are indicated in Table 4.

Table 4 shows that the mean scores for the items in the questionnaire vary between 3,954 for Change: Organisation and 1,977 for Promotion. On the factors, the mean varied between 18,409 for Policies and Procedures and 9,920 for Change management.

Regarding the Skewness and kurtosis of the questionnaire, Table 4 shows that there is a slight to moderate deviation from 0 for most of the items, which is an indication of a normally distributed population. For the following items a slight to moderate deviation from 0 are reported: Goal Compatibility, Remuneration and Promotion. The

following factor also shows a moderate skewness: Policies and Procedures.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics, Mean, Standard Deviation (SD), Sample (N), Minimum, Maximum, Skewness, and the Kurtosis of the Measuring Instrument

Item	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum	Skewness	Kurtosis
Personal Advancement	2,7159091	0,934017	1,00	5,00	0,082323	0,06777
Supervision	3,1931818	1,112705	1,00	5,00	-0,08589	-0,80438
Change: Organisation	3,9545455	0,786511	3,00	5,00	0,080913	-1,37034
Goal compatibility	3,3295455	0,826592	1,00	5,00	0,439057	0,41376
Remuneration	3,8295455	1,095671	1,00	5,00	-0,72567	-0,15496
Purpose clarity	3,2954545	1,030110	1,00	5,00	0,149595	-0,89103
Interpersonal Relationships	2,0909091	0,930163	1,00	4,00	0,342054	-0,87302
Promotion	1,9772727	1,039200	1,00	5,00	0,737875	-0,40193
Change: Openness	3,5000000	0,934646	2,00	5,00	0,129648	-0,83891
Goal understanding	3,1022727	0,947346	1,00	5,00	-0,20820	-0,04456
Cooperation: Work Units	3,2954545	0,960831	1,00	5,00	-0,39063	-0,04189
Change: Work Variety	3,3181818	1,160117	1,00	5,00	0,025586	-1,05545
Planning and Control	3,0227273	0,870688	1,00	5,00	0,062402	-0,41754
Policies and Procedures	18,4090909	3,310159	12,00	27,00	0,632359	0,21931
Change management	9,9204545	2,166737	5,00	15,00	0,125467	0,19699
Management	12,2954545	2,587143	7,00	18,00	0,064922	-0,65777

4.1.2 THE FREQUENCY OF RESPONSES ON THE ITEMS

In light of the above-mentioned the frequency of responses given by the respondents on the various items is shown in Table 5.

Table 5

The Frequency of Responses on the Items of the Questionnaire

Item	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	AVERAGE	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
Personal Advancement	10,23	27,27	46,59	12,50	3,41
Supervision	5,68	23,86	28,41	29,55	12,50
Change: Organisation	0,00	0,00	32,95	38,64	28,41
Goal compatibility	1,14	7,95	59,09	20,45	11,36
Remuneration	3,41	9,09	21,59	32,95	32,95
Purpose clarity	1,14	23,86	34,09	26,14	14,77
Interpersonal Relationships	31,82	34,09	27,27	6,82	0,00
Promotion	43,18	26,14	21,59	7,95	1,14
Change: Openness	0,00	13,64	39,77	29,55	17,05
Goal understanding	5,68	17,05	44,32	27,27	5,68
Cooperation: Work Units	4,55	13,64	37,50	36,36	7,95
Change: Work Variety	3,41	25,00	28,41	22,73	20,45
Planning and Control	2,27	26,14	42,05	26,14	3,41

The responses tend to be more positive (in terms of Agree or Strongly Agree) for the following items:

- Supervision
- Change: Organisation
- Remuneration

The responses tend to be more negative (in terms of Disagree or Strongly Disagree) for the following items:

- Interpersonal Relationships
- Promotion

The frequency of responses on the remaining of the items tend to be neither positive nor negative.

4.1.3 PRINCIPAL FACTORS EXTRACTION

The results of the factor analysis for the Questionnaire are shown in Table 6. Loading of variables on factors, communalities and percent of variance and covariance are shown in Table 6. Variables are ordered and grouped by size of loading to facilitate interpretation. Zeros replace loadings under 0,32. Labels are suggested for each factor in a footnote.

Inspection of Table 6 shows that three factors were extracted. As indicated by the SMCs, all factors were internally consistent and well defined by the variables. This indicates that the questionnaire is reliable.

The reverse was not true, however; variables were not well defined by this factor solution. Communality values, as seen in Table 6, tended to be moderate to low. With a cut of 0,32 for inclusion of a variable in interpretation of a factor, 13 of 25 variables did load on the three factors. Failure of numerous variables to load on a factor reflects heterogeneity of the items on the questionnaire. However, none of the variables in the solution was complex.

When oblique rotation was requested, Factors interpreted as Policies and Procedures, Change management and Management practices correlated 0,30.

Table 6

Factor Loadings, Communalities (h^2), Percentage Variance and Covariance for Principal Factor Extraction and Varimax Rotation on the Items

Item	F_1^a	F_2	F_3	h^2
Goal compatibility	0,64	0,00	0,00	0,47
Personal advancement	0,58	0,00	0,00	0,45
Interpersonal relationships	0,57	0,00	0,00	0,38
Purpose clarity	0,49	0,00	0,00	0,25
Change: organisation	0,41	0,00	0,00	0,33
Planning and control	0,33	0,00	0,00	0,11
Change: work variety	0,00	0,55	0,00	0,36
Change: Openness	0,00	0,53	0,00	0,46
Goal understanding	0,00	0,53	0,00	0,30
Promotion	0,00	0,00	0,58	0,39
Supervision	0,00	0,00	0,40	0,16
Remuneration	0,00	0,00	0,33	0,15
Cooperation: Work units	0,00	0,00	0,46	0,45
Squared Multiple Correlations (SMC)	0,75	0,70	0,68	
Percentage variance	18,45	6,69	6,42	
Percentage covariance	39,22	31,00	30,00	

^a Factor labels:

F_1 Policies and Procedures

F_2 Change management

F_3 Management practices

4.1.4 THE CORRELATION BETWEEN THE IDENTIFIED FACTORS AND THE ITEMS IN THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The Pearson-product moment correlation (r) is used to indicate the correlation between the identified factors and the items in the questionnaire. These correlations are indicated in Table 7.

The results in Table 7 indicate that practically significant correlations of a large effect ($r > 0,50$) were found between Policies and Procedures and Personal Advancement, Change: Organisation, Goal Compatibility, Purpose Clarity, Interpersonal Relationships and Planning and Control.

Practically significant correlations of a large effect ($r > 0,50$) were found between Change Management and Change: Openness, Goal Understanding and Change: Work Variety.

Practically significant correlations of a large effect ($r > 0,50$) were found between Management and Supervision, Remuneration, Promotion and Cooperation: Work units.

The above indicate that by changing or adjusting the organisation's current policies and procedures, the way change is managed in the organisation and the overall management and supervision in the organisation, the items correlating with these three factors will also be changed.

Practically significant correlations of a medium effect ($r > 0,30$) were found between Change Management and Cooperation: Work units

The above indicate that by changing or adjusting the organisation's change management policies that cooperation between work unit will also be changed.

4.2 DISCUSSION

The results of the empirical study shows that employees of a depot of a distributing organisation tend to have positive perceptions about supervision and remuneration and change in the organisation. The research also shows that employees of a depot of a distributing organisation tend to have negative perceptions about interpersonal relationships and promotion.

An interesting aspect of the research was the large amount of items that was considered as neutral (average). This can be an indication of a lack of motivation. The lack of motivation can be caused by the implementation of a new operational system, the threat of rationalisation and the organisation's lack of support for those in question, the over extended use of outsourcing, and the lack of mobility in the organisation.

Regarding the Skewness and kurtosis of the questionnaire, the research proved that there was a slight to moderate deviation for most of the items, which is an indication of a normally distributed population. The inter validity was also consistent with accepted norms. This means that the questionnaire was proven to be a valid instrument.

4.3 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, the results of the empirical study were reported and discussed. Firstly, the descriptive statistics (e.g. mean, standard

deviation (SD), minimum, maximum, skewness and kurtosis) were used to analyse the data for the study population. Secondly, the frequency of responses on the items were reported and discussed. Thirdly, the factor loadings, communalities (h^2), percentage variance, and covariance for principal factor extraction and varimax rotation on the Items were reported. Furthermore, product moment-correlations between the identified factors and the items in the questionnaire were analysed. Lastly, the results of the empirical study were discussed.

Hereby the second, third, fourth research questions have been answered and the corresponding research objectives have been reached.

Chapter 5 focuses on the conclusions, limitations and recommendations of the research.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In this chapter conclusions will be drawn on the literature review as well as the empirical study, limitations of the study will be highlighted and recommendations for further studies will be provided.

5.1 CONCLUSIONS

In this section, conclusions will be drawn in terms of specific theoretical objectives and the results of the empirical study.

5.1.1 Conclusions in terms of specific theoretical objectives

The following conceptual descriptions are applicable to this research:

Organisational development (OD) is described a model designed for planned, systematic, and ongoing problem-and action-oriented processes that focus on both technical and human improvement within the organisation. This long-term approach needs management support and is based on sound management theory and practice. One seminal feature of Organisational Development is its use of action research, or actual field research, with a continuous cycle of diagnostics: data gathering, analysis, planning, implementation, and feedback. The focus is on the effectiveness of the whole organisation.

Organisational Diagnose is described as a continuous cycle of diagnostics: data gathering, analysis, planning, implementation, and feedback within an organisation. This process generates information that is essential for organisational development.

The psychodynamic perspective is described as the perspective that was developed from the work of diverse social scientists who took on various consulting roles in organisations. While this approach to consultancy is related to the processual issues raised by process consultancy, it takes a particular direction with its focus on psychodynamics. Thus, the consultant and client system are partners in the process of organisational analysis and design, and there is progressively wider involvement of the client system in designing and managing the successive phases of the change itself.

5.1.2 Conclusions in terms of specific empirical objectives

The research showed that the following research hypotheses could be accepted:

- H1: The derived Organisation Diagnoses questionnaire is reliable and valid.
- H2: The employees of a depot of a distributing organisation will tend to have a positive perception of the organisation.

The results of the empirical study shows that regarding the Skewness and kurtosis of the questionnaire, the research proved that there was a slight to moderate deviation for most of the items, which is an indication of a normally distributed population. The inter validity was

also consistent with accepted norms. This means that the questionnaire was proven to be a valid instrument

The results of the empirical study shows that employees of a depot of a distributing organisation tend to have positive perceptions about supervision and remuneration and change in the organisation. The overall scores also indicated that the employees of a depot of a distributing organisation did have a overall positive perception.

A large amount of items that was considered as neutral (average). This can be an indication of a lack of motivation. The lack of motivation can be caused by the implementation of a new operational system, the threat of rationalisation and the organisation's lack of support for those in question, the over extended use of outsourcing, and the lack of mobility in the organisation.

Practically significant correlations were found. Practical significant correlations of a large effect ($r > 0,50$) were found between Policies and Procedures and Personal Advancement, Change: Organisation, Goal Compatibility, Purpose Clarity, Interpersonal Relationships and Planning and Control.

Practical significant correlations of a large effect ($r > 0,50$) were found between Change Management and Change: Openness, Goal Understanding and Change: Work Variety.

Practical significant correlations of a large effect ($r > 0,50$) were found between Management and Supervision, Remuneration, Promotion and Cooperation: Work units.

5.2 LIMITATIONS

The sample was one limitation of the study. The study was conducted with one depot of a distributing organisation. The reason for this was that top management distrusted the research and would not give permission to extend the research to the entire organisation. This meant that the original sample size of 400 had to be cut to 88. Therefore it should be reiterated that this research should be extended to the entire organisation for a more reliable and valid perception of organisation. This limitation contributed that the results of the research could not be extended to the rest of the organisation.

Secondly, the self-derived questionnaire did prove difficult to analyse. It is therefore recommended that a standardised questionnaire should be used in future.

Lastly, a large amount of items was considered neutral (average) which influenced the results of the research.

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

This study did generate several application-oriented suggestions.

Firstly, it seems that the current Human Resource (HR) policy does not work in terms of interpersonal relationships and promotion. It is essential that the HR policy should be revised and re-implemented.

Secondly, a team building effort within the depot of a distributing organisation is essential. This will help to improve the interpersonal relationships at the depot.

Lastly, due to the fact that so many items were neutral (average), future research is essential through out the organisation to determine the true perceptions of the employees on organisational culture.

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ANNEXURE A

Please mark the appropriate block by clicking on it with your mouse. Where the numbers represents the following: 1.Strongly disagree; 2.Disagree; 3.Average; 4.Agree; 5.Strongly Agree.					
SUBJECT	1	2	3	4	5
1. The goals of this organization are clearly stated.					
2. The division of labour in my work group is fair.					
3. My immediate supervisor is supportive of my efforts.					
4. My relationship with my supervisor is a harmonious one.					
5. My job offers me the opportunity to grow as a person.					
6. My immediate supervisor has ideas that are helpful, to my work group and me.					
7. This organization is not resistant to change.					
8. I am personally in agreement with the stated goals of my work unit.					
9. The leadership norms of this organization help it progress.					
10. I can always talk with someone at work if I have a work-related problem.					
11. The pay scale and benefits of this organization is fair towards the employee.					
12. The pay scale and benefits of this organization treat each employee equally.					
13. I have the information that I need to do a good job.					
14. I understand the purpose of this organization.					
15. My relationships with members of my work groups are friendly as well as professional.					
16. The opportunity for promotion exists in this organization.					
17. This organization favours change.					

Please mark the appropriate block by clicking on it with your mouse. Where the numbers represents the following: 1.Strongly disagree; 2.Disagree; 3.Average; 4.Agree; 5.Strongly Agree.					
SUBJECT	1	2	3	4	5
20. The salary that I receive is commensurate with the job that I perform.					
21. Other work units are helpful to my work unit whenever assistance is requested.					
22. Occasionally, I like to change things about my job.					
23. There is no evidence of unresolved conflict in this organization.					
24. All tasks to be accomplished are associated with incentives.					
25. This organization's planning and control efforts are helpful to its growth and development.					

ANNEXURE B

Lourence B. Alblas
114 Tulbach Flats
Stilfontein
2551

CLAUSE 1

BOUNDRIES OF THE RESEARCH

This contract focuses on a depot of a distributing organisation. The purpose of this contract is to protect a distributing organisation against any illegal distribution of any information containing to a distributing organisation. As well as the protection of any employees, who has been involved in this research. The contract will bind me; Lourence Badenhorst Alblas, ID number 7308255080087; and the management of a distributing organisation to the above mentioned.

CLAUSE 2

PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH

The research will focus on the people processes of distributing organisation. This information will be used to distribute a questionnaire throughout the organisation. The purpose of the questionnaire is to establish a research paper on the perceptions of the employees containing to the weaknesses, strong points and changes within the organization of a distributing organisation.

CLAUSE 3
INFORMATION REQUIRED

Interviews will take place with 30 employees at the depot of a distributing organisation. These interviews will identify certain issues that will be used to compile a questionnaire, which will be distributed through out the entire depot of a distributing organisation. The final draft document will be compiled out of the information gathered from the questionnaire.

CLAUSE 4
MY ROLL IN THE RESEARCH

In cooperation with the client, any problems will be identified. The research will be done on a 50/50 basis. If any intervention will flow from this research I expect the management to compile the interventions.

CLAUSE 5
THE PRODUCT

The research will be contacted to all ethical standards, as laid down by the Potchefstroom University For Christian Higher Education as well as the Medical counsel.

CLAUSE 6
BASIC CONDITIONS EXPECTED

Under no circumstances will any employee's contribution, be disclosed to management or any other person. This is non-debateable.

The information gathered in this research will only be disclosed to the Potchefstroom University For Christian Higher Education.

CLAUSE 7
TIME SCHEDULE

The entire project will be concluded before 1 November 2002.

CLAUSE 8
FEEDBACK

The feedback will be given to the relevant management at a depot distributing organisation.

SIGNED BY:

L.B. ALBLAS

MANAGER

