# MOTIVATIONAL COMPONENTS OF THEORY Z MANAGEMENT: AN INTEGRATIVE REVIEW OF RESEARCH AND IMPLICATIONS FOR THE CHURCH

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### Abstract

Motivation is a pervasive theme in organizations. In this paper, major research studies in motivation are highlighted and the characteristics of three management theories are delineated, but the principles of Theory Z are of particular interest. Ouchi (1981), Pascale and Athos (1981), and Peters and Waterman (1982) studied both Japanese and American corporations which utilize Theory Z management. They found common characteristics among these corporations that could have implications for management in the church organization.

Four components of Theory Z management philosophy - leadership, trust, communication, and participative decision making - are examined. The research literature is studied to offer scientific support for the efficacy of utilizing these identified components within the church organization.

In any organization, people are involved; leaders emerge; decisions are made; and products or services result. In the church organization, the motivation and management of people is of paramount concern. The results of the research cited are clear and if integration of these principles were to occur, the church's hierarchical structure would be altered, creating a participative community in ministry.

## Introduction

Church organizations frequently squander the full potential of human resources available to them because they appear to lack understanding, direction or vision, and fail to utilize creatively research findings from the social sciences. A similar dilemma can be found in the business community. The inability of manufacturing organizations to channel properly the energies of the workforce has resulted in the failure of American industry to keep pace with Japanese competitors in manufacturing technological products e.g., automobile, camera, television, electronics, and computers.

At the close of World War II, Japanese industry was nearly destroyed. American industrial advisors assisted the Japanese in restructuring their business communities (Lambert, 1982). The Japanese proved to be apt pupils who learned their lessons well, as their industrial recovery has been remarkable. In-

deed, Japanese "productivity has increased at five times the rate of U.S. gains since World War II and is growing at a faster rate each year" (Feverberg, 1981, p.3).

How could the Japanese achieve this industrial coup? One plausible explanation lies in their management philosophy, which has come to be known as Theory Z in this country. Alternately, their industrial advances could be explained by specific cultural components of their society (e.g., the social ranking of people and professions as well as the centrality of religious belief in Taoism, Hinduism, and Buddhism [Herzberg, 1984]). An additional contributor to their industrial coup could be the large government subsidies that their major export industries have enjoyed. It is likely that all three factors coalesced to produce Japan's recognized leadership among industrialized nations.

American industry cannot imitate Japan's culture, nor is it likely to persuade Congress to enact industrial subsidies. Theory Z management philosophy, however, contains several components that have been adopted in many American corporations. I propose that the church organization has much to learn from the industrial community - both Japanese and American - and should possibly implement some portions of Theory Z principles into its managment philosophies.

The purpose of this paper is to examine theories concerning the motivation of workers. Motivational components of Theory Z management philosophy e.g., leadership, trust, communication, and participative decision making, are of particular interest. Through a brief review of the literature, recent research evidence supporting the efficacy of these components in Theory Z will be examined for their implications in management of the church organization.

Drucker (1985) suggests that

management is not restricted to business management, but is central to every institution of society. . .and there are very few, and mostly minor differences between managing a business, diocese, hospital, university, research lab, labor union, or government agency (p. 8—E).

Like Drucker, I believe that managing a church is similar to managing a business. Therefore, a synthesis of Theory Z management principles and social science research results will be provided with reference to the implications for management within a church setting.

Organizations of all types exist to survive and thrive. Evidence of growth in businesses can be determined by an expanded profit margin that results in dividends for the stockholders. The church, however, must maintain attendance and contribution records to quantify its growth, as its primary product is people. How the organization and its people interact can produce growth, maintenance, or decline. Thompson (1967) observes that

the relationship between an organization and its task environment is essentially one of exchange, and unless the organization is judged by those in contact with it as offering something desirable, it will not receive the inputs necessary for survival. (p. 28)

If business or a church is to survive and grow, then the workforce (employed or volunteer) must experience an exchange of monetary resources, values, and

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commitment.

All types of organizations must provide a climate of exchange for their constituents if growth is to occur. Peters and Waterman (1982) contend that part of the motivation for growth stems from the workers' sense of contributing to and helping others. (This may be a primary source of motivation or commitment for workers in the church.) They also report that "researchers studying motivation find that the prime factor is simply the self-perception among motivated subjects that they are in fact doing well" (p. 58). Peters and Waterman (1982) describe the management teams of some significant American corporations (e.g., IBM, Hewlitt Packard, Proctor & Gamble, Delta Airlines) that understand exchange principles and know how to produce perceptions of success among workers. Their findings, in addition to those of Ouchi (1981) and Pascale and Athos (1981) - even though focused on very different corporate structures - point to similar theoretical principles for effectiveness, success, and excellence (e.g., respect for people, their ideas and contributions to the work environment) and should receive the attention of the student of organizations.

The trite phrase "people are our most important product" remains prevalent in these successful workplaces. Peters and Waterman (1982) assert that in Japan, "treating people - not money, machines, or minds - as the natural resource may be the key to it all. Kenichi Ohmae, head of McKinsey's Tokyo office, says that in Japan, *organizations* and *people* (in the organizations) are synonymous" (p. 39). For the Japanese, workers *are* the corporation and their productivity causes the organization to succeed. This reality forms a concentric cycle for organizational growth. The value placed on workers may be the pivotal issue that separates excellent organizations from mediocre ones, and valuing workers then becomes a motivational issue that affects the well-being of both the organization and the individual.

The church faces the same motivational issues. The relationship among motivation, Theory Z management principles, and recent research findings will be explored in this paper and implications for integration of these principles in the church organization will be suggested.

## Motivation: The Art Of Management Science

The primary goal of any organization is continued existence. Regardless of the nature of the organization - school, business, government, or non-profit agency - longevity is sought, and growth (increased profits, giving, and/or attendance, etc.) is desired. Decisions are made by people affecting growth, longevity, and motivation.

While organizations seek longevity and growth, most every worker wants to perform on a "winning team," which for Peters and Waterman (1982) is synonymous with success in the marketplace. One might query, "does success breed motivation in the workplace or does high motivation enable success?" At least two prime research foci appear for the student of organizations: (1) motivation theories as expressed in theories of management, and

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(2) the research support for motivational components of Theory Z management e.g., leadership, trust, communication, and participative decision making.

Motivation of workers is a central issue in the management process (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982). Hoy and Miskel (1982) categorize theories of motivation into two realms - content and process approaches. Content approaches specify "only what motivates behavior. . .specific needs, motives, expectancies, and antecedents to behavior, or [as] they relate behavior to outcomes or consequences" (p. 139). Process approaches "attempt to define major variables that are necessary to explain choice, effort, and the persistence of certain behavior. They attempt to specify how the major variables interact to influence outcomes, such as work effort and job satisfaction" (p. 155). Both of these perceptions contribute to a climate for motivation in the workplace.

## Content Approaches to Motivation

Motivation is more complex and pervasive than is addressed in this paper, but it is a central theme in Theory Z management. Hoy and Miskel (1982) define motivation as "the complex forces, drives, needs, and tension states, or other mechanisms that start and maintain voluntary activity directed toward the achievement of personal goals" (p. 137). The manner in which an employee is motivated within the organization will affect job performance (Lippitt, 1948) and employee satisfaction (Mann, Indik, & Vroom, 1963), and will ultimately benefit or inhibit organizational objectives.

Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of human needs is also relevant to an understanding of motivation. It "assumes a hierarchy of human motives ranging from biological needs through security, love, and belongingness, to ego needs of self-esteem, self-development, and self actualization" (Katz & Kahn, 1978, p. 398), and suggests that lower level needs must be met before higher level needs can emerge. For example, as an individual matures and receives the salary increases to provide a reasonable standard of living, other needs, such as affirmation and new responsibilities may become important. Based on this premise, Herzberg (1959) began to study job attitudes, or satisfaction and dissatisfaction, and the resultant human behaviors. He interviewed over two hundred professional people in eleven industries in the Pittsburg area and developed what is known as the two-factor theory or the motivation-hygiene theory.

Hygiene factors are those things about the work environment that must be maintained at a reasonable level so the employee will not become dissatisfied with the workplace. The motivators are identifiable qualities that produce perceptions of professional growth to the employee. Figure 1 lists variables included in the two factors:

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| MOTIVATORS | HYGIENE FACTORS |
|---|---|
| (The Job Itself) | (Environment) |
| Achievement | Policies and |
| Recognition for | administration |
| accomplishment | Supervision |
| Increased responsibility | Interpersonal relations |
| Growth and development | Money, status, security |

Figure 1. Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory.
(Hersey & Blanchard, 1982, p. 58).

Herzberg's theory predicts that a climate conducive to motivation in the workplace will increase the productivity of the employee. With higher output, the worker becomes more productive and satisfied and thus, a more motivated worker. But Drucker (1954) disagrees. He believes that satisfaction is inadequate as a motivator. He states that "responsibility - not satisfaction - is the only thing that will serve to adequately spur an individual to self-motivation" (p. 303). Gellerman (1968) adds his view that "effective motivation depends on effective communication" (p. 36).

Herzberg's findings have been criticized for faulty research design. The use of the critical incidents interview and the fact that the subjects (accountants and engineers) did not represent a diverse geographical sampling raises questions about the generalizability of the findings. However, this was among the early attempts to study motivation in the workplace and could therefore be considered foundational to subsequent research within organizations. Drucker's and Gellerman's criticisms highlight important contributors to motivation not considered by Herzberg but included in Theory Z management: responsibility (leadership) and communication.

Content approaches to motivation assert that each worker has needs, attitudes, and work related issues that affect motivation. Theory Z management philosophy gives credence to these same issues. The church organization often assumes that a worker (volunteer or paid professional staff) has a commitment to the task that supersedes the implications of these research findings. Perhaps this is an erroneous assumption.

## Process Approaches to Motivation

Process theorists are concerned with variables that initiate or sustain motivation within the worker. One such variable is goal setting or decision making. Every individual makes choices. Often these are behavioral choices with purposive intent to effect an outcome. Sometimes choices are unconscious decisions, but to select one direction over another is nevertheless a choice. The establishment of goals, both individually and corporately, involves a decision making process.

Goals represent decisions and choices. Hoy and Miskel (1982) define a goal as "what an individual consciously is trying to do" (p. 161). Dornbusch and

Scott (1975) define a goal as "a conception of a desired end state of an entity" (p. 66). Goals can be personal or organizational, but organizational goals are derived by individuals, who may or may not be able to accomplish the goals that have been established. Drucker (1980) believes that "unless challenged, every organization tends to become slack, easy going, diffuse" (p. 41). So organizational goals are necessary to maintain a focus on a desired result; goals may force evaluation and then analysis of data to produce future goals. In Theory Z type organizations, goal setting and evaluation are accomplished through "a community of equals who cooperate with one another to reach common goals" (Ouchi, 1981, p. 70). Church organizations, however, seldom enter into this goal setting and evaluation process. Dayton and Engstrom (1979) ask and answer their own question: "Why is it that many Christian organizations never get around to expressing their own goals?...fear of failure...and the age-old theological tension between the sovereignty of God and the responsibility of man" (pp. 55-56). Lack of goal setting leaves the church in a management limbo.

Locke's (1968) goal theory focused on the "relationship between conscious goals and intentions and task performance" (p. 157), and is simply a technique for goal setting. He found that difficult and specific goals constituted a greater challenge and therefore required increased effort for achievement.

Organizational goals represent the decisions of a group of people. Perhaps the establishment and/or evaluation of goals can be the challenge that motivates individuals to greater achievement. But regardless of the outcome in concrete results, an interactive and interpersonal process is utilized to determine and achieve organizational goals. Gellerman (1968) reminds us that relationships between people and groups in an organization "need to be audited, because they can affect the performance and ultimately even the survival of the firm" (p. 255). Thus, the group dynamics or interpersonal relationships of a work group can, through the behavior of individual participants, achieve or inhibit the accomplishment of desired goals.

These interpersonal relationships are the basis for Heider's attribution theory. Heider (1958) and his associates suggest that motivation is a function of interpersonal relationships that affect the work climate.

To observe, identify, and describe actual principles of motivation is an elusive objective. Gellerman (1968) cautions that the word "motivation is a deceptively brief way of expressing a complex reaction to a complex of influences" (p. 34). But motivation is an ever-present reality in the workplace, and it encompasses all facets of societal, organizational, and personal life.

Studies of motivation must also consider historical change. Parsons (1960) observes that in industrial societies, "the essential point at the motivational level is the motivation to achievement in occupational roles devoted to productive function" (p. 140). But in this day, as the United States moves from an industrial era to an information society as Naisbitt (1982) and Toffler (1980) have suggested, the centralized, hierarchial organizational structures (as described by Parsons) will no longer be adequate. The information necessary to make decisions will be available to all workers; "the computer itself will

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be what actually smashes the hierarchical pyramid'' (Naisbitt, 1982, p. 281). Naisbitt (1982) says these realities will cause basic changes and development in management theories and practices. This phenomenon is currently evident as Walton (1985) describes

. . .a growing number of manufacturing companies has begun to remove levels of plant hierarchy, increase manager's spans of control, integrate quality and production activities at lower and lower organizational levels, combine production and maintenance operations, and open up new career opportunities for workers. . . In this new commitment-based approach to the work force, jobs are designed to be broader than before, to combine planning and implementation, and to include efforts to upgrade operations, not just maintain them. Individual responsibilities are expected to change as conditions change, and organizational units accountable for performance. With management hierarchies relatively flat and differences in status minimized, control and lateral coordination depend on shared goals, and expertise, rather than formal position determining influence. (p. 79)

If this is happening in business organizations, perhaps leaders in church organizations need to examine their beliefs about workers and attend to alternate management theories (Schaller, 1980).

In summary, the theories of motivation presented herein draw upon several componenets that influence the managment process: the needs of individual workers, the work environment (both tangible and intangible qualities), and the interpersonal relationships through which organizational goals are established and achieved. Each of these motivational attributes is manifest in varying degrees in theories of management.

## Theories of Managment

McGregor (1960) reminds us that how we manage people depends upon how we view nature and motivation. There are several theories of management and, for comparative purposes, the basic assumptions of each need to be understood. None of the theories selected for review here is considered to be better than the others. Particular situations could occur within the management structure that would make each appropriate in a given setting.

### Theory X

McGregor (1960) refers to Theory X as the traditional view of management. This theory makes the following assumptions:

1. People dislike work
2. People must be coerced, controlled, and threatened to achieve organizational objectives
3. Workers prefer direction by others in order to avoid personal responsibility.

Without question, there may be people in the workforce who fit this description. Theory X management requires extrinsic manipulation of the worker to

achieve organizational goals. But there have been "changes in the population at large - in educational level, attitudes and values, motivation, [and] degree of dependence. . ." (McGregor, 1960, p. 43), that have led to another form of management.

## Theory Y

Managers who began to acknowledge some of the personal aspects of workers found Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs to be particularly interesting. As a theory of motivation, Maslow suggested that the basic needs of people must be met before satisfaction through task completion can be achieved. Basic needs include: physiological needs; safety and security; and belongingness, love, and social activity. Other needs include: esteem (personal); self-actualization or self fulfillment (achievement of potential); aesthetic needs; and the need to know and understand. Maslow's work concentrated on meeting the needs of the individual. His theory offers considerable information that could be utilized in organizational relationships to make life more satisfying within the work environment.

The assumptions of Theory Y call for an integration between the needs of the individual and the goals of the organization. As these needs and goals are combined, the theory suggests that the worker will likely achieve greater satisfaction and more personal reward in accomplishment. McGregor (1960) outlines the assumptions of Theory Y:

1. Work is as natural as play or rest
2. People exercise self-direction and self-control to reach
   objectives once commitment occurs
3. The reward and result of commitment to objectives is achievement
4. People accept and seek responsibility
5. Workers possess the capacity and creativity to seek solutions
   to organizational problems
6. Modern industries utilize only a portion of the intellectual
   potential of workers.

Theory Y thus suggests a model of cooperation among workers and managers regardless of status within the corporate structure. Cooperation signifies working together but active participation in achieving results calls for another level of involvement, or Theory Z.

## Theory Z

Ouchi (1981) outlines the attributes of Theory Z. Organizations committed to this theory focus on:

1. Long term employment of workers
2. A balance between organizational controls -
   *explicit* (information and accounting systems, formal planning, management by objectives) and *implicit* (internal communication, always seeking what is best for the company)

3. A company philosophy that incorporates a statement of purpose or objectives for ways of doing business
4. Interdependence within organizational ife, relying on trust and achieving consensus among workers
5. Participative decision making, providing for broad communication among workers at all levels, values within the organization, cooperative intent of the firm, development of interpersonal skills to facilitate group decisions, development of trust, maintenance of a strong egalitarian atmosphere.
6. Self-direction of workers as opposed to hierarchical direction.
7. Egalitarian atmosphere that implies trust among workers.

Ouchi (1981) emphasizes Theory Z management's wholistic orientation that incorporates the involvement of workers in every facet of the organization.

I have selected four of the components of Theory Z identified by Ouchi (1981) that have a role in motivation and appear to be significant elements for church organizations. Leadership, trust, communication, and participative decision making have received attention in literature. Theory X, and to some extent, Theory Y, represent authoritarian approaches to managmenet that stimulate "discontent, frustration, and negative attitudes toward leadership" (Rush, 1983, p. 12). And yet church organizations are frequently managed within one of these theories (Schaller, 1980). To better understand the productive organizational climate fostered by Theory Z, further examination of the literature is necessary.

## Motivational Components of Theory Z and Recent Research

What does research say to us about motivational management variables in Theory Z as leadership, trust, communication, and participative decision making? Each variable and the literature related thereto will be delineated separately.

### Leadership

Lester (1981) states "that managers are necessary, leaders are essential" (p. 868) to conduct the business of any organization. Mintzberg (1973) describes managers as "those people formally in charge of organizations or subunits" (p. 3), while Sayles (1964) says that a manager is one who "has subordinates whom he/she [sic] can direct and over whom he/she [sic] has superior status." (p. 142) Those definitions place emphasis on vertical relationships within the organization. But leadership is often found in "interpersonal behavior, specifically that between the leaders and the led" (Mintzberg, 1973, p. 17).

Katz and Kahn (1978) describe leadership as the "influential increment" (p. 528) among people that is derived more from relational factors then from organizationally appointed positions. Both leaders and managers function within the organization (and one can be the other). "The one quality that more than anything else markes a manager is decisiveness, but. . .[leaders] are often not decisive; they're intuitive; they have a vision" (Deal & Kennedy, 1982, p. 37).

**Leadership studies.** Hersey and Blanchard (1982) combine the views of many management writers to define leadership as "the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given

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situation" (p. 83). Lester (1981) further delineates leadership "as the art of influencing and directing people in a manner that wins their obedience, confidence, respect and enthusiastic cooperation in achieving a common objective" (p. 868). These definitions offer a classic description of the traditional hierarchical organizational structure that exists in American organizations and churches, where influencing and directing are key terms. How are people influenced in the workplace? Often they are influenced through power exhibited by those in leadership positions.

**Power in leadership.** Etzioni (1961) observes three kinds of power within the organization: coercive, remunerative, and normative:

*Coercive* power rests on application, or threat of application, of physical sanctions such as infliction of pain, deformity, or death. . .*remunerative* power is based on control over material resources and rewards. . .*normative* power rests on allocation and manipulation of symbolic rewards and deprivation through employment of leaders, manipulation of mass media, allocation of esteem and prestige symbols. . .(pp. 5-6).

Organizations that wield coercive power often are institutions of reform such as prisons. In organizations characterized by remunerative power, rewards, both financial and personal, are used to maintain order within the organization. Normative power controls participants through "leadership, rituals, manipulations of social prestige symbols, and resocialization" (p. 40). Etzioni (1961), in fact, notes explicitly that "religious organizations must rely predominantly on normative powers to attain both acceptance of their directives and the means required for their operation" (p. 41). Church leadership, then, strives for control through direction rather than cooperation.

In studies of cooperation and consensus among elites (groups with power), Etzioni (1961) found that "the degree of cooperation between elites. . .is a determinant of the level of effectiveness a organization maintains" (p. 94). He defines six consensus spheres that function within an organization: general values; organizational goals; means, policy, or tactics; participation in the organization; performance obligations; and cognitive perspective. These areas of consensus provide opportunities for shared power.

Salanick and Pfeffer (1977) define power as "the ability of those who possess power to bring about the outcomes they desire" (p. 3). Power in organizations usually manifests itself in budgetary allocations, positions in organizational hierarchy, and strategic decisions (Pfeffer, 1981). Leaders often assert their power or influence within subunits or organizations to accomplish personal or group goals. If subunits achieve consensus, to which there is group commitment, then the subunit achieves additional power within the organization (Pfeffer, 1981). Salanick (1977) defines commitment to a group as "a state of being in which an individual becomes bound by his/her actions and through these actions to beliefs that sustain the activities and his/her own involvement" (p. 62).

Leaders in Japanese organizations emphasize shared power among workers and collective work groups (Lambert, 1982). Conversely, hierarchical organizations focus more on power which gives credence to individual achievement and direction of subordinates to accomplish goals.

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Stodgill (1974) identifies two types of leadership - participative and directive. Participative leaders encourage group or subunit members' involvement in discussions, problem solving, and decision making while directive leaders expect to play a personal and active role in decisions and believe that group members will accept their decisions. Participative leadership has been found to be more effective than directive leadership in altering group opinions (Mitchell, Smyser, & Weed, 1975). Aspegren (1963) finds participative leadership produced higher levels of group satisfaction and task motivation among subunits. Stogdill (1974) confirms that "research on organizational change is consistent in indicating that followers are more receptive when they participate in planning and implementation" (p. 415).

Theory Z organizations successfully integrate this body of research on leadership. The leadership is participative and values the information gathering, sharing, and problem solving of the workers. Participants in collective work groups develop a commitment to one another and the organizational task, with the end result being satisfaction, productivity, and trust.

### Trust

In Theory Z management philosophy, trust involves interpersonal relationships, interdependence of subsystems, ambiguity, constant exchange and communication, as well as an understanding of personal values among group members (DeMente, 1981). Knowing one is valued as a contributing participant of a collective work group breeds a climate for trust within the organization. Sproul (1983) reminds us that

every human being, from the lowest state of unskilled laborer to the highly
polished corporate executive, wants to know there is real value in his labor.
To know your labor counts is to be assured that you count. (p. 203)
Trust "is the conscious regulation of. . .vulnerability to another person" (Zand, 1981, p. 38). Trust often ensues when workers share visions, goals, and alternative solutions to a dilemma. The act of delegation exemplifies trust between individuals and when advice is sought and given, trust is reinforced (Zand, 1981).

But, in a competitive, results-oriented, and bottom-line corporate structure, trust - which implies cooperation - may be only infrequently present. And yet, Paul (1982) writes that "the variables of power, leadership, and trust form an intricate, elusive interweaving of influence that effects us all in organizations" (p. 538). As people explore the possibilities of participative management, these two compatible qualities (trust and cooperation) cannot be ignored. Gibb (1978), in a comprehensive study of trust, suggested that Trust Level Theory (TORI) forms the core of personal and organizational growth. TORI is an acronym for *"trusting* our being and processes, *opening* our lives, *realizing* or actualizing our instrinsic nature and energy, and *interdepending* or interbeing" (Gibb, 1978, p. 20). Gibb (1971) finds that

trust produces trust. People who are trusted tend to trust themselves and
to trust those in positions of responsibility. Moreover, the feeling that
one is trusted encourages exploration, diversity, and innovation, for the
person spends little time and energy trying to prove himself. (p. 86)
Trust, as described by Gibb, is seldom found in hierarchical organizations.

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In many hierarchical organizations, however, competition (among workers and other organizations) is a key concept (Katz & Kahn, 1978). People who are competitive (Kelly & Stahelski, 1970) and authoritarian (Deutsch, 1960) do not often find themselves cooperating (trusting others) in a group setting. Competitive and authoritarian workers, therefore, likely do not build a climate of trust within the organization. In Theory Z type organizations, trust among co-workers can be an element that assists in decision making and participation in the organizational process. Without some degree of trust among group members, the achievement of consensus would be unlikely. Without trust, respect, or involvement, participative leaders would have no followers. Managers view trust as a contribution to participation in decision making that increases the likelihood of two-way communication in the work environment (Dickson, 1982).

## Communication

Communication is a complex phenomenon of interaction. Words, the selection of words, tone of voice, and body language, all forge the communication composite. The old phrase "communication forms a two-way street" becomes an accurate observation as it indicates an initiator and a recipient when communication occurs.

Sayles (1964) writes that "organization charts imply that contacts are limited primarily to the lines connecting boxes, but the relationships necessary to get the job done are much more complex" (p. 34). Berlo (1971) illustrates from his research that communication within an organization has both vertical and horizontal dimensions, and when communication occurs on both dimensions, the people establish a climate for mediation of opinions and ideas. Burns (1954) found that managers are in contact with workers 80% of the time, so communications skills are needed in the workplace.

Guetzkow and Simon (1955) developed a network of communication called all channel communication pattern. In this formation (see Figure 2), any person has access to all others in the group.
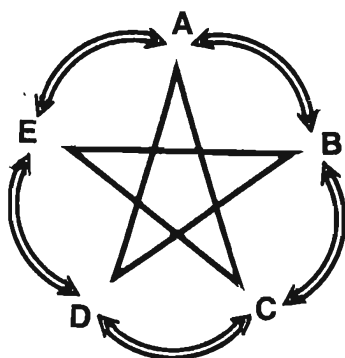


Figure 2. All channel communication network.
From H. Guetzkow, & H.A. Simon, The impact of central communication nets upon organization and performance in task-oriented groups, *Management Science*, 1955, 1, 233-250.

This network provides information flow that could incorporate all three directions of communication - downward, horizontal, and upward (Katz & Kahn, 1978, p. 440). McClenahen (1979) reminds us that "truly effective communication requires constant exchanges" (p. 75). That is exactly what can occur when all channel communication patterns become the operational mode in an organization.

Although I found no description of communication patterns of Theory Z organizations in literature, they might resemble the all channel (Guetzkow & Simon, 1955). The fact that recognized leadership in these patterns is not centralized could be related to the job satisfaction, high morales and productivity found in Theory Z managed organizations.

### Participative Decision Making

The composite in Theory Z management philosophy of leadership, trust, and communication comes to fruition in participative decision making. Decision making is frequently a political process which can involve a single individual or a group of individuals in a collective manner. Participative decision making cannot be viewed as some magic technique that rights all corporate wrongs, but its successful utilization among excellent corporations may serve as a model for organizations of all types.

Pascale and Athos (1981) find that the Japanese prefer to invest time and energy in building a support for their decisions, because they "recognize that many elements of an organization will be more committed to a decision if they take part in it" (p. 174). The involvement of a number of people does elongate the lead-time necessary in the decision making process.

Sayles (1964) says that decision making "is a slow process" (p. 217). Making decisions in a participative manner signals group involvement. Collins and Guetzkow (1964) describe three factors that assist productivity of group decision making: resources, social motivation, and social influence. By combining group resources of information and judgements, random error diminishes. If an individual is socially motivated, then these motivators (prestige, peer pressure, etc.) will not function unless other people are present to observe the phenomenon. An individual's social influence within a group increases if his or her contribution is supported by evidence, logically presented and consistent with past experience.

Participative decision making can be developed in an organization whose leadership values input and involvement of its workers, and develops a degree of trust through communication. A frequent outcome of participative decision making is consensus among the group. This does not mean that consensus results without some conflict. Hoffman, Harburg, and Maier (1962) suggest, however, that conflict among group members creates a greater number of alternative solutions to the problem. Effectiveness of the group in decision making can be enhanced or inhibited by relationships among the group (Altman & McGinnis, 1960; Ghiselli & Lodahl, 1958; Haythorn, Couch, Haefner, Langbaum & Carter, 1956; Schutz, 1955).

The research on decision making supports the group process in achieving consensus. Theory Z type organizations utilize group involvement to share in-

formation, resources, planning, and problem solving that results in consensus. Collins and Guetzkow (1964) found that productivity is enhanced by group decision making and certainly the economic growth of Japanese industry is evidence of the usefulness of participative decision making.

In summary, the motivational components of leadership, trust, communication, and participative decision making are well represented in the research findings. Leaders assert their influence in guiding the organization. Whether leaders are directive or participative (Stogdill, 1974) likely contributes to building a climate for trust and communication networks. Leaders employ participative decision making when they desire input and involvement of their people. These motivational components are found in organizations and are implicit in the church.

## Implications for the Church Organization

The focus of this paper has been the motivation of workers within the organization to accomplish organizational tasks. Its purpose was to explore the research literature on motivation and theories of management affecting the worker and to determine implications for the church organization. Components of Theory Z management philosophy e.g., leadership, trust, communication, and participative decision making, were of particular interest because of their role in the motivation of the worker. Although this paper has focused on Theory Z type organizations, this philosophy should not be viewed as a system to be idolized or idealized. Rather, "the Japanese have achieved their current level of manufacturing excellence mostly by doing simple things but doing them very well and simply improving them" (Hayes, 1981, p. 57). For the church organization, that simple thing in a phrase could become the motto "pursue excellence in ministry - attend to people."

How does the church attend to people - its primary product? People associate themselves with a church for a variety of reasons, but a primary purpose for many is to have their spiritual needs met. There are indications that people do have needs (Maslow, 1943) that a church can meet, but the church organization must realize that spiritual needs cannot be met in a vacuum. Attention must be given to all developmental areas (physical, social, emotional, intellectual, spiritual) if the person is to become self-motivated and/or self-actualized. The quality of the environment (both tangible and intangible [Herzberg, 1959]) also occupies a role in this process.

Church leaders might utilize a Theory X (McGregor, 1960) approach to management and exert its normative power (Etzioni, 1961) for acceptance of its direction. In such cases, controlling people and meeting spiritual needs only become the legitimate rationale for ministry, but this may also yield a stunted or limited view of the mission of the church. If, however, one holds the belief that the mission of the church is broader than just meeting the spiritual needs of people and that people can be more than followers, then leaders in the church should consider another approach to managing people.

A Theory Y (McGregor, 1960) approach in attending to or managing people fosters an integration of the needs of people and the goals of the organization. The assumptions outlined for Theory Y management merge the commitment

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of workers with the goals of leaders to form a climate where cooperation and trust can grow. If leaders believe that workers have intellectual capacity to create solutions to organizational problems and if they give them the freedom (trust) to do so, it is likely that self-direction in problem solving will give rise to commitment to the task with the end result being the accomplishment of a goal through a cooperative effort. Gibb (1981) suggests that trust encourages workers to explore and innovate, both of which are qualities essential for workers seeking avenues of new ministry opportunities within the church.

If leaders in church organizations have a passion for the pursuit of excellence in ministry, however, they cannot be content to merely attend to or manage people. Instead, they will participate with them in the process of ministry; they will not merely hand down edicts for implementation. Leaders in Theory Z type organizations expend countless hours in interaction to determine direction for the organization - *together.* They are participative (Stogdill, 1974) and encourage one another in problem solving and decision making. Throughout this managerial process, workers are respected, valued and trusted. Participation in the decision making process requires a communication flow that will simultaneously solve the problem and achieve high morale (Bavelas, 1962; Guetzkow & Simon, 1955; Leavitt, 1969). The research literature describes communication patterns that result in problem solving *and* high morale, but cautions that more time is required in the accomplishment of the task. The church organization should examine its priorities in communication and select appropriate patterns for communication.

Decisions made participatively require time, group involvement (communication), trust (cooperation), and an egalitarian atmosphere among workers to achieve consensus. Consensus may not be achieved without conflict, but the ensuing discussion will often produce alternate solutions for the problem (Hoffman, Harburg & Maier, 1962).

In summary, the church organization has at least three options in attending to or managing its people - control (Theory X), cooperation (Theory Y), or participation (Theory Z). The managerial choice should be a conscious decision based upon views of motivation and human nature (McGregor, 1960).

The church organization is generally hierarchical with the power for decision making resting at the apex (Gangel, 1970). The research literature examined in this paper supports the efficacy of participative management (Theory Z) and the development of trust and communication as a result of these relationships. The leadership in the church should consider the personal and organizational objectives that could be accomplished by adopting a participative approach to management. The resultant organizational structure would more equitably disperse responsibilities in the church and would consequently contribute to shared power in the decision making. This would increase a commitment-based approach to the motivation of workers and result in accomplishment of the mission of the church. Adoption of this concept, however, would likely create significant change in the structure of most church organizations.

One can only speculate what might emerge if churches adopted a participative management philosophy. Perhaps, as Walton (1985) suggests, the organizational

pyramid might be flattened with the result being more workers and fewer spectators in the church decision making processes. If the church is to accomplish its mission - evangelizing, ministering, meeting people's needs - people must be managed and motivated to pursue the task.

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