

Effects of Organizational Design on Employee Performance in the Manufacturing Industry

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Abstract: *The study sought to ascertain the effects of organizational design on employee performance in the manufacturing industry; to determine the nature of relationship between organizational structure and job design on employee performance in manufacturing industry and to assess the effect of organizational design on employee performance on training in the Nigerian Manufacturing Industry. The cross-sectional survey research method was adopted and four organizations in Enugu were selected for the study. They include Electricity Distribution Company (EEDC), Innoson Nigeria Ltd Enugu, PZ Industries Plc and Nigerian Breweries Plc in Enugu metropolis Data for the study were sourced primarily using a structured questionnaire and interview. Data collected were presented and analyzed in tables and the corresponding values expressed in percentages. Z-test and Chi-square statistical techniques were used to test the hypotheses. Findings from the study showed that Adherence to organizational design on employee performance has significant influences in Nigerian manufacturing industry. There is significant relationship between organizational structure and job design on employee performance in manufacturing industry. The adoption of the organizational design on employee performance on training significantly enhances corporate success and economic growth. Based on these findings, the study recommended that organizations need employees who are committed in their work so that they can contribute to the survival of the organization in the marketplace competition.*

Key Words: *employee performance, organizational design, manufacturing industry*

1. Introduction

1.1. Background to the Study

Today's organizations are operating in an environment where knowledge is power. As organizations vie for a competitive advantage, organizational design has become a key element worthy of significant consideration (Cantner, Joel, & Schmidt, 2009; Chong, Chong, & Gan, 2011; Guidice, Heames, & Wang, 2009). While the importance of knowledge management on organizational success is becoming more widely accepted, there has yet been no empirical research that specifically addresses the influence of organizational design on employ performance, structure type, or management level, on knowledge management practices in organizations. The potential to increase competitive advantage based on an understanding of this influential relationship is substantial. Conversely, a failure to recognize this relationship has the

potential to significantly limit organizational performance and ultimate success.

Organizational design is a common phenomenon which has been extensively addressed by many researchers worldwide due to its importance to the organization (e.g. Angle & Perry, 1981; Kim, 2001; Lio & Nyhan, 1994; Lo, Ramayah, & Min, 2009). Organizational commitment has been linked to the performance of organizational constituents, their loyalty, organizational citizenship behaviour, counterproductive behaviour, employees' aggression, job satisfaction, and other individual and group constructs. Committed employees are expected to perform at a greater level than their uncommitted counterparts (Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, & Jackson, 1989). They are willing to work extra hours when the job requires them to do so. They are also willing to promote the organization as a favorable place to work at. Due to its diverse accrued benefits to the organization, some researchers have devoted their effort to investigate the antecedents of organizational design (e.g. Bateman & Strasser, 1984; Lok & Crawford, 2004; Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993). These factors can be categorized into four groups; organizational factors, including leadership, culture, structure and processes; individual factors, including personality traits, emotional quotient, intellectual quotient, and spiritual quotient; job factors, including job characteristics, and remuneration systems; and environment factors, including social relationships and physical environment.

Leaders have adopted various styles when they lead others in the organization (Brown, 2003; Cheong, 2008; Chiang & Wang, 2012; Clark, Hartline, & Jones, 2009; Cox, 2001). Some are using democratic, people or relationship centered approach and others prefer autocratic, production centered method in order to achieve a similar goal, which is organizational effectiveness. The choice of a style is contingent on diverse factors such as personality traits of leaders, followers' acceptance of the leaders, their readiness, task complexity and the norms and values embraced by the organizational members. Therefore, leaders must possess special ability to diagnose the organizational environment, accurately identify the contingent factors and subsequently make a sound decision in leading the organization towards success. Here, emotional intelligence ability offers great help to guide a leader in choosing the Business and Management Studies Vol. 2, No. 1; 2016 24 right leadership styles. Emotional intelligence is a set of abilities to accurately assess the emotions of self and others, regulate the emotions to achieve the desired state and use the emotions towards achieving the expected performance (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Emotional intelligence has been defined differently by different authors but the objective of having this intelligence is similar; to achieve the desired emotional state so that the employees are able to attain their expected performance.

Organizations with high emotional intelligence are able to correctly scan the organizational environment, weigh the possible consequences of their actions and select the most appropriate leadership styles acceptable by the followers. This work is meant to highlight the critical effect of Organizational Design on Employee Performance with employees' organizational commitment, which comprises normative, affective and continuance commitment. Existing work in this area is discussed and relevant propositions are formulated to facilitate the future effort towards the enrichment of the related knowledge.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Many organizations in Nigerian manufacturing industries and around the world are faced with the problem of determining if employees are satisfied with their jobs. There is need to determine if the way organization is designed has an impact on an employee's satisfaction level.

Organization design consists of measures that are put in place in order to get employees to pursue the goals set by the organization's principals. The practices include allocation of decision-making to different employees (and thus the creation of a hierarchy), provision of diverse forms of pay and incentives, monitoring of employees by their supervisors or peers, hiring and firing procedures and rules, and much more. Contrary to the assertions most of the times organization fails to find out the nature of relationship between organizational structure and job design on employee performance in manufacturing industry. Thus the study focuses on the effects of organizational Design on Employee performance in Nigerian Manufacturing industry.

1.3. Objectives of the Study

The broad objective of this study is on the effect of organizational Design on Employee Performance in the Nigerian Manufacturing Industry. However, the specific objectives are:

1. To ascertain the extent to which organizational design on employee influences performance in Nigerian manufacturing industry.
2. To determine the nature of relationship between organizational structure and job design on employee performance in manufacturing industry
3. To access the effect of organizational design on employee performance on training in the Nigerian Manufacturing Industry.

1.4. Research Question

The following research questions guided this work.

1. To what extent does organizational design on employee influences performance in Nigerian manufacturing industry?
2. What is the nature of relationship between organizational structure and job design on employee performance in manufacturing industry
3. What are the effects of organizational design on employee performance on training in the Nigerian Manufacturing Industry?

1.5. Research Hypotheses

The study proposes the following hypotheses:

1. Adherence to organizational design on employee performance has significant influences in Nigerian manufacturing industry?
2. There is significant relationship between organizational structure and job design on employee performance in manufacturing industry
3. The adoption of the organizational design on employee performance on training significantly enhances corporate success and economic growth.

1.6. Significance of the Study

Organizational design on employee performance is a relatively new area of study especially in developing countries like Nigeria. The subject is currently attracting interest among a wide spectrum of people; governments, industry operators, directors, investors, stockholders, academia, international organization. Since empirical research on governance parameters and corporate performance in the context of Nigeria is lacking, the end result of this study will prove to be beneficial and lend more support to the improvement of corporate governance in Nigeria. Specifically, the study will be of significance to the following: Corporate Bodies, Policy Makers and Regulators, Shareholders, Researcher and other Scholars The work will also be of significant to the researcher as it will broaden the researcher's knowledge on organizational design mechanism, the interactions and dynamics that shape corporate governance in Nigeria and how

these impact on the performance on the Nigerian manufacturing sector. Other scholars may also find the work illuminating and may act as springboard for them to conduct further works on this area

2. Review of Related Literature

2.1. Conceptual Review

The conceptual framework of the study is based on contingency or situational theory (Burns and Stalker, 1961; Lawrence and Lorsch, 1967) and the strategic choice approach (Child, 1972, 1997), in conjunction with organizational design models studied by Chandler (1966), Mintzberg (1984), Handy (1989, 1992) and Ghoshal (1990), among others. The taxonomy used was that proposed by Bueno-Campos (1995).

Organizational Design on employee performance is of two key concepts at the core of this study. Henry Mintzberg's seminar work on organizational configurations (1983) provided an early basis for understanding organizational structures. Today, basic constructs of knowledge management are understood as a combination of established theories and research from additional authors as Chuong (2011; 2006), Hari (2005), and Costanzo (2008), and many others.

2.1.1. Organizational Performance

The common definition of performance does not really exist (Morris & Steers, 1993) because different authors provide different definitions for the construct. Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982) defined commitment as the relative strength of an individual's identification with an organization and involvement in the organization. In some cases a distinction is made between organizational commitment and task commitment (Peeters & Meijer, 1995). Gallie and White (1993) asserted that the term "organizational commitment" refers to the acceptance of organizational values and the willingness to stay. Task commitment, on the other hand, reflects the effort one puts into his or her work. Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian (1974) and Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979) defined organizational commitment as a strong belief in the organization and willingness to exert significant effort towards the organization. Commitment to organization is linked to very important work-related factors such as employee absenteeism, employee turnover and employee job performance (Mowday, Porter, & Dubin, 1974; Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979; Romzek, 1990; Ward & Davis, 1995).

Organizational Performance is categorized into three components; affective, continuance and normative commitments. (Allen & Meyer, 1990; 1996). Affective commitment concerns the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in the organization. Affective commitment involves three aspects: (1) the formation of an emotional connection to an organization, (2) identification with an organization (3) and the desire to maintain and become loyal with organizational membership. Affective commitment exists when an employee identifies with an organization and its goals (Mowday, et al., 1979). Allen and Meyer (1997) said that employees retain to be members of the organization and try to increase their productivity. Continuance commitment, on the other hand, refers to employees' assessment of whether the costs of leaving the organization are greater than the costs of staying. Employees who perceive that the costs of leaving the organization are greater than the costs of staying will remain with the organization.

In contrast to the other two components of organizational performance continuance commitment does not relate to emotion. It mostly relates to the investments the employees make in an organization such as job effort, time and development with work friendships, skills and

political deals (Jaros, Jermier, Koehler, & Sincich, 1993). Allen and Meyer (1990) enumerated the concept of continuance commitment as a form of psychological attachment to an employing organization that reflects the degree to which an individual experiences a sense of being locked in place because of high cost of leaving.

Normative commitment refers to employees' feelings of responsibility to the organization. Employees with high levels of normative commitment stay with the organization because they feel that they have to. In arguing for their framework, Meyer and Allen (1991) contended that affective, continuance, and normative commitment were components rather than types because employees could have varying degrees of all three. They exemplified the three types of commitment by saying that one employee might feel both a strong attachment to an organization and a sense of responsibility to remain. A second employee might enjoy working for the organization but also recognize that leaving would be very difficult from an economic perspective. Finally, a third employee might experience a considerable degree of desire, need, and responsibility to remain with the current employer (Allen & Meyer, 1997). According to Randall and O'driscoll (1997), normative commitment is an employees' moral commitment that is present when an organization provides moral value and financial support for its employees' development and requirement.

2.1.2. Organizational Structure

Literature identifies five established organizational structure types, which have been adapted to fit this study. Mintzberg's original structure types are the Simple Structure, Machine Bureaucracy, Professional Bureaucracy, Divisional Form, and Adhocracy (Mintzberg, 1983). In this study, the organizational types have been identified more simply as adhocracy, strategic business unit (SBU), divisional, functional, and matrix. The adaptation of Mintzberg's classifications is a result of changing times. Since the time when Mintzberg defined these classifications in 1983, industry has adjusted to shifting environments. The framework of the original classifications is very much still relevant, though the names of the classification have been adapted to better represent today's times.

2.1.3. Adhocracy

The adhocratic organizational structure is one that adapts readily and promptly to meet organizational needs. This kind of organization is typically young and small, and may not yet possess sophisticated technological resources (Mintzberg, 1983). This type of organization can be thought of as "organic", meaning the organization does not operate under rigid formalities, but rather on the relationships and flexibility of those individuals within the organization (Burns & Stalker, 1994).

While the organization may be young and relatively simple, it can still be dynamic, especially in its top management. Whether comprising one individual or a small group, top management may be vibrant, strong-willed, and possibly even aggressive. Informal structural configurations enable an adhocracy to be flexible and make decisions quickly, which is attractive in dynamic and turbulent environments. Such organizations exhibit a strong sense of adaptability and sense of mission as well (Mintzberg, 1983). The repetitiveness of work increases the potential for human error. Additionally, this model presents a constant conflict between engineering efficiency and employee job satisfaction. The organization is essentially obsessed with control, and it can only be successful in a stable environment where change is infrequent and predictable. In addition to operating most successfully in simple, stable environments, Organizational structures are geared

toward mass-production-type of organizations. Often these organizations are old and large. It is also most common to see this type of organizational structure in highly regulating organizations that operate with low dependency on technology or technical systems.

2.1.4. Divisional Structure

Divisional structure types emphasize divisionalization over decentralization. Control within the organization is essentially determined within the separate divisions of the organization. Duplication of operational functions is a strategic decision that is made so as to minimize the interdependence between divisions. An obvious benefit of the divisional organizational structure type is risk diversification, also known as “strategic invulnerability” in the works of Igor Ansoff (Ansoff, 1984). Clearly, with an operating structure that promotes independence for each of the divisions, risk at the global level is significantly reduced. Strategically, this shields the organization as a whole from the unique risks that individual divisions may face, making the firm essentially strategically invulnerable. Additionally, divisional structures enable the efficient allocation of capital, increases strategic responsiveness, and provide for promotional opportunities for employment growth and satisfaction (Mintzberg, 1983). A primary challenge present with this kind of organizational structure is the potential of fragmentation of knowledge management practices. Knowledge sharing is contained within divisions, information is filtered based on divisional needs, and the transfer of knowledge throughout the organization is disjointed at best. Most often this organizational structure type is adopted by organizations within the private sector, including many organizations listed in the Fortune 500 (Mintzberg, 1983). The structure is optimal for market diversity and/or organizations that operate in multiple locations or on multiple campuses. Most organizations of this type have been around for a while and are large in size.

2.1.5. Functional Structure

Within a functional structure, the emphasis is on the professional skills of the employees. The extensive autonomy granted in a functional structure is both a benefit and a challenge. Autonomy can enable individuals to think freely and take risks, but it can also lead to the misuse of discretion. Individuals can succumb to professional blinders that propel them along a particular path with no regard to checks and balances (Mintzberg, 1983). Additionally, the functional structure can engender a political environment that may spur internal conflicts among individuals. Further challenges include the tendency to pigeonhole individuals based on their skill set and specialization. This can also lead to inflexibility, concerning both the individual and the organization. The democratic nature of the functional structure makes the structure type attractive to complex, yet stable environments, where expert power is valued over legitimate power as opposed to the value of structure. Representative organizations may include universities, hospitals, school systems, and public accounting firms, among others (Mintzberg, 1983). www.ccsenet.org/ijbm International Journal of Business and Management Vol. 9, No. 6; 2014

2.1.6. Matrix Structure

The matrix can be considered a blend of functional and divisional structure characteristics. Similar to the “organic” nature of the adhocracy addressed earlier, the matrix structure enables an organization to be responsive in dynamic and complex environments. Additionally, the emphasis placed on learning and risk-taking allows for the potential of sophisticated innovation. The true benefit of a matrix structure is in its ability to create and manage knowledge effectively.

The matrix structure possesses its own unique set of challenges. For example, the element of freedom identified as a benefit earlier also presents the potential for ambiguity, inefficiencies, and misinterpretations (Mintzberg, 1983). Also challenging is the lack of standardization among the skills of the professionals with regard to coordination efforts. Both the functional structure and the matrix structure place high value on professional skills, but whereas the functional structure emphasizes standardization of skills, the matrix structure does not. The lack of standardization can cause added organizational challenges. As explained by Ashkenas, “The matrix is ingenious in theory but confusing in practice” (Ashkenas, Ulrich, Jick, & Kerr, 2002, p. 120). He also introduces the term “organizational schizophrenia” when discussing the challenges posed by the loose operational structure or standardization within a matrix organization.

Organizations best suited for a matrix structure are those which require a combination of professional and operational skill sets and inter-organizational coordination efforts that will enable the organization to optimally deliver products or services to meet client needs. These organizations will likely devise and use liaison mechanisms that assist and enhance the cross-functional efforts of the various resources through the organization. Organizations that operate within a matrix structure may include those within dynamic and fast-paced industries, such as the field of technology.

2.1.7. Management Level

Though managerial hierarchies take different forms according to the different organizational structure types, as noted above, levels of management exist in all organizations. There consistently exists, at minimum, levels such as non-managerial, mid-management, and executive or C-level. C-level employees focus much of their time and attention on strategic tasks. It is a primary responsibility of executive level employees to ensure that the organization’s mission is being achieved and that stakeholder needs are being addressed (Mintzberg, 1983). This level is often focused on the high-level perspective of strategic initiatives, and is less concerned with the details of the operations. Information flows both to and from executives, and decision-making is often conducted at this level. Additionally, social intelligence and relationship management play a crucial role in the upper levels of management (Akgün, Byrne, & Keskin, 2007; Yeo, 2007).

2.1.8. Mid-Management

At the mid-management level, the middle line is a conduit for communication, information-filtering, and decision-making between the operating core and the strategic apex. Mid-management employees execute a critical function by acting as a bridge for the other levels (Rusaw, 2000). What information is passed up and/or down is at the discretion of individuals who fill a mid-management position. These individuals balance strategic focus with daily operations (Van Marrewijk, 2010), and it behooves them to master the art of message delivery. Tailoring messages specifically to the intended audience is a skill that significantly influences the impact of the message (Johansson & Heide, 2008).

Non-Managerial

The third level of management addressed in this study is the non-managerial level. This level is comprised of the largest number of employees. These individuals are primarily focused on executing the daily operations of the organization according to implementation strategies determined by upper levels of management (Jacobides, 2007; Mintzberg, 1983). They are provided with direction “from above”, and may or may not be consulted with for feedback and first-hand knowledge that will then be escalated back up through the ranks of the organization.

Responsibilities differ among management levels, and accordingly, perceptions differ as well. Individuals are tasked with different areas of focus, and naturally, will develop individual perceptions. However, literature identifies that both superiors and subordinates feel they initiate more interactions with the other than they receive, and that the adequacy and quality of interactions they initiate are higher than what they receive (Hatfield & Huseman, 1982). While differences in perception are natural and expected, the perpetual absence of congruence may be evidence of communication problems that can negatively impact organizational outcomes (Hatfield & Huseman, 1982).

Knowledge Management

Regardless of the size, type, or structure of an organization, knowledge is a known critical asset that is a requirement for survival (S. C. Chong et al., 2011). When the structure of an organization is best suited for its organizational needs, then the organization will operate most effectively (Doty, Glick, & Huber, 1993). Part of this effectiveness is derived from knowledge management practices that emerge from the organizational structure. The knowledge management practices identified in this study are knowledge transfer, information filtering, knowledge-sharing training, and knowledge culture.

Knowledge Transfer

Knowledge transfer can be defined as the movement of knowledge between its origin and destination (Bosua & Scheepers, 2007). Some further define the concept as a diffusion of knowledge within a social system (Rosenblatt, 2011). As this study aims to integrate practical applications, Bose's managerial interpretation of knowledge transfer is of particular interest. According to Bose, the purpose of knowledge transfer is to get the right information to the right people at the right time so they can make organizational decisions based on this information (Bose, 2009). Ultimately, the objective of knowledge transfer is to "promote and facilitate knowledge sharing, collaboration, and networking for better decision-making and effective problem solving" (S. C. Chong et al., 2011, p. 503).

While the ownership of knowledge exists at both the individual level and the group/organizational level, it is the integration of this knowledge at the collective levels that creates efficiencies and advantages for an organization (Herschel & Jones, 2005). Managers often serve to help facilitate this integration process. In fact, managers often become "knowledge brokers" within an organization whereby they act as a kind of "bridge" that allows for knowledge transfer and integration (Costanzo & Tzoumpa, 2008).

Information Filtering

Information filtering addresses the question of which information to provide to whom, when, and in which form (Christensen, 2002). It is an important strategic issue within organizations and the concept is generally understood to involve technology (Costanzo & Tzoumpa, 2008). Technology certainly has its place in information filtering (S. C. Chong et al., 2011), yet readers are cautioned against succumbing to the illusion that technology is an end-all solution for complex problems (Smoliar, 2003). When human beings are involved, a technology solution alone is insufficient for complex problem solving. For the purposes of this study, information filtering will refer to the human rather than to the technological process.

Lines of communication may be formal or informal. The formal lines of communication generally address the upward, downward, and horizontal movement of messages (Brownell,

1991). Informal lines of communication may involve some of these considerations, but may also include any fathomable angle of message movement as well. Generally, in a traditional hierarchy, information filters up the organization to those in power (Ashkenas et al., 2002). Within other settings, the horizontal and vertical lines of communication intersect at the middle management level, thereby placing on middle managers the responsibility to further direct information in whichever direction is necessary (Costanzo & Tzoumpa, 2008). Once again, the manager acts as a “bridge” for the movement of information.

Effective information filtering is not a simple matter of aligning the right resources. There are many social challenges to information filtering, including one-sided communication flows, suppression of information, information overload, and inaccurate message interpretation (Kitchen & Daly, 2002). Also challenging is the codification of tacit knowledge, getting the information into a distributable format (Ting, Wang, Tse, & Ip, 2011). Widespread information distribution is an essential component of knowledge management.

Knowledge-Sharing Training

Information is only beneficial to an organization if the members of the organization know how to access and use that information. Knowing how to seek and retrieve information is an essential aspect of behavior during times of problem-solving and decision-making (Wu, 2011).

Efficiency of knowledge sharing increases efficiency in work productivity. Yet a significant challenge within organizations is that up to 80 percent of business information is not quantitative or structured in a way that can be captured in a database (Herschel & Jones, 2005). As such, it may be no surprise that an individual can spend in excess of 40 percent of his/her time in a typical work day processing work-related information (Zhuang, Qiu, www.ccsenet.org/ijbm International Journal of Business and Management Vol. 9, No. 6; 2014 & Peng, 2011). Processing mediums may include emails, instant messages, phone calls, and conference calls. The knowledge-sharing training initiatives in place within an organization can help to streamline the knowledge management process (Bosua & Scheepers, 2007; Kumar & Ganesh, 2011; Levy, 2011).

Knowledge Culture

Culture significantly impacts how individuals within the organization communicate. How people receive, store, and interpret information is influenced by the interpretive schema, routines, procedures, and norms of the organization (Akgün et al., 2007). It can be argued that communication is a social process of interaction and/or interpretation in an effort to make sense and meaning of organizational actions and events (Mazzei, 2010). Smoliar (2003) refers to this socialization concept as “the sociology of knowledge” whereby knowledge is the product of these interactions and interpretations. An effective and successful knowledge culture absolutely requires the visible support of top leadership (Bose, 2009; Cantner et al., 2009; Cheung, Li, Shek, Lee, & Tsang, 2007; S. C. Chong et al., 2011; Herschel & Jones, 2005). This is a condition of success. The organization must nurture an environment that promotes open knowledge sharing, collaboration, and learning. Top management must lead the effort, not just through verbal support, but by becoming change agents within the organization (Herschel & Jones, 2005).

2.1.9. Job design

In a very simple sense, job design means the ways that decision-makers choose to organize work responsibilities, duties, activities, and tasks. Job Redesign thus involves changing work

responsibilities, duties, activities, and tasks. Job design is the process of Work arrangement (or rearrangement) aimed at reducing or overcoming job dissatisfaction and employee alienation arising from repetitive and mechanistic tasks. Through job design, organizations try to raise productivity levels by offering non-monetary rewards such as greater satisfaction from a sense of personal achievement in meeting the increased challenge and responsibility of one's work. Job enlargement, job enrichment, job rotation, and job simplification are the various techniques used in a job design exercise (businessdictionary.com).

Although job analysis, as just described, is important for an understanding of existing jobs, organizations also must plan for new jobs and periodically consider whether they should revise existing jobs. When an organization is expanding, supervisors and human resource professionals must help plan for new or growing work units. When an organization is trying to improve quality or efficiency, a review of work units and processes may require a fresh look at how jobs are designed. These situations call for job design, the process of defining the way work will be performed and the tasks that a given job requires, or job redesign, a similar process that involves changing an existing job design. To design jobs effectively, a person must thoroughly understand the job itself (through job analysis) and its place in the larger work unit's work flow process (through work flow analysis). Having a detailed knowledge of the tasks performed in the work unit and in the job, a manager then has many alternative ways to design a job, the available approaches emphasize different aspects of the job: the mechanics of doing a job efficiently, the job's impact on motivation, the use of safe work practices, and the mental demands of the job.

Definitions

Job design is the process of deciding the contents of the job, deciding methods to carry out the job, deciding the relationship which exists in the organization. Job analysis helps to develop job design and job design matches the requirements of the job with the human qualities required to do the job.

According to Michael Armstrong, "Job Design is the process of deciding on the contents of a job in terms of its duties and responsibilities, on the methods to be used in carrying out the job, in terms of techniques, systems and procedures, and on the relationships that should exist between the job holder and his superior subordinates and colleagues." Job analysis helps to develop job design and job design matches the requirements of the job with the human qualities required to do the job.

Nature of Job Design

Identifying the components of a given job is an integral part of job design. Designing or redesigning jobs encompasses many factors, and a number of different techniques are available to the manager. Job design has been equated with job enrichment, a technique developed by Frederick Herzberg, but job design is much broader than job enrichment alone.

Designing Efficient Jobs

If workers perform tasks as efficiently as possible, not only does the organization benefit from lower costs and greater output per worker, but workers should be less fatigued. This point of view has for years formed the basis of classical industrial engineering, which looks for the simplest way to structure work in order to maximize efficiency. Typically, applying industrial engineering to a job reduces the complexity of the work, making it so simple that almost anyone can be trained quickly and easily to perform the job. Such jobs tend to be highly specialized and repetitive.

In practice, the scientific method traditionally seeks the "one best way" to perform a job by performing time-and-motion studies to identify the most efficient movements for workers to make. Once the engineers have identified the most efficient sequence of motions, the organization should select workers based on their ability to do the job, and then train them in the details of the "one best way" to perform that job. The company also should offer pay structured to motivate workers to do their best. Despite the logical benefits of industrial engineering, a focus on efficiency alone can create jobs that are so simple and repetitive that workers get bored. Workers performing these jobs may feel their work is meaningless. Hence, most organizations combine industrial engineering with other approaches to job design.

Designing Jobs That Motivate especially when organizations have to compete for employees, depend on skilled knowledge workers, or need a workforce that cares about customer satisfaction, a pure focus on efficiency will not achieve human resource objectives. These organizations need jobs that employees find interesting and satisfying, and job design should take into account factors that make jobs motivating to employees. The quest for meaningful work draws people to such career paths as teaching and public service. For example, when Patrick Bernhardt was laid off from his job as a marketing executive, he seized on the chance to switch fields. Bernhardt became a computer science teacher and enrolled in evening classes. When he switched to this job, Bernhardt took a 50 percent pay cut, but he doesn't mind: "This is the hardest thing I've ever done, but the sense of satisfaction makes it worth it."

A recent Money Magazine and Salary.com survey of 26,000 workers found that workers who considered themselves extremely satisfied with their jobs were putting in a lot more time at work than others. The most satisfied group in the survey reported eleven more weekly work hours than the least satisfied group. Generally, as satisfaction rose, workers reported longer hours worked.

A job satisfaction study compiled by CareerJournal.com asked satisfied workers to describe their jobs. The study found that highly satisfied employees consistently listed four factors: intellectual stimulation, job security, high levels of control and autonomy, and direct contact with clients and customers.

A model that shows how to make jobs more motivating is the Job Characteristics Model, developed by Richard Hackman and Greg Oldham. This model describes jobs in terms of five characteristics:

1. Skill variety. The extent to which a job requires a variety of skills to carry out the tasks involved.
2. Task identity. The degree to which a job requires completing a "whole" piece of work from beginning to end (e.g., building an entire component or resolving a customer's complaint).
3. Task significance. The extent to which the job has an important impact on the lives of other people.
4. Autonomy. The degree to which the job allows an individual to make decisions about the way the work will be carried out.
5. Feedback. The extent to which a person receives clear information about performance effectiveness from the work itself.

2.2. Theoretical Framework

Weber's Bureaucratic Model is a classic model of organizational design that is still in use today. It involves structuring an organization hierarchically with formal rules and procedures that govern the organization and its members. The basis for job design theory is organization theory, which can be classified broadly into three strains of thought: the classical, the behavioral, and the situational.

Classical theory was expounded in early writings of Max Weber and Henri Fayol. For the classicist, any organization achieves efficiency through its division of labor. Managers identify the overall purpose of the organization. They then divide this overall purpose into jobs, each rationally related to the whole. Jobs are, in turn, grouped to create work groups, divisions, and departments. Finally, each group is assigned a supervisor, who is responsible for overseeing the work of subordinates and reporting the results to his or her own superior.

Behavioral theory is quite different. Unlike the classicist, the behavioralist is much less interested in allocating specific tasks to specific jobs, making sure that the authority matches the position, and then trying to attain higher efficiency through specialization of labor. Behaviorists prefer simple organizational structure, decentralized decision-making and informal departmentalization. In an organic structure, subordinates feel free to discuss their performance problems with superiors and have a positive view of the organization. They participate in decision-making and communicate with those whose views are needed to solve immediate problems. These characteristics are in stark contrast to conditions in a traditional organization, where subordinates are guarded and negative about the organization, do not feel sufficient trust to communicate openly with those of higher status, and are not permitted to participate in decision-making.

Situational theory differs from both classical and behavioral theories. Advocates stress the influence of the external environment on the allocation of responsibilities and tasks within the organization, work groups, and jobs, allocating responsibilities and tasks means creating a structure. Appropriate structures differ according to technology, markets, production, research, and information.

One of the most common and relevant research topics in the field of contingency or situational theory involves analyzing the effect of a set of mainly external factors on the design of an organization in order to verify the most efficient organizational structures (Powell, 1992; Baligh et al., 1996; Forte et al., 2000; Pettigrew et al., 2000; Meilich, 2006).

This theory began with the work of Burns and Stalker (1961), who argued that the appropriateness of an organizational structure depends on environmental conditions. Aligned with this, Lawrence and Lorsh (1967) state that companies which match their internal characteristics to environmental requirements perform better. Accordingly, it is not possible to establish an ideal organization for all situations (Galbraith, 1973).

2.3. Empirical Framework

The framework of contingencies (denominated 'situational' by Lorsch (1977) emphasizes the need to study the influence of circumstances (contingencies or situations) on organizational structure and administrative behaviour, while the strategic choice approach shifts the focus to the decisions made by the organization's leaders in terms of products and markets and their impact on organizational forms, i.e. it integrates strategy into the model and assumes that managers'

perceptions, preferences and choices interact with the process of adjustment to the requirements of the environment in order to achieve objectives (Child, 1972).

Although the contingency framework has generated numerous (mainly empirical) studies of the different factors that contribute to organizational design, this research has mostly focused on describing their influence individually and in isolation. This type of analysis concludes that bureaucratic organizational structures are more appropriate in stable and predictable environments, while a less formalized and centralized organizational structure is more suitable in unstable and Unpredictable environments (Burns and Stalker, 1961); furthermore, a functional hierarchy is argued to be desirable in situations where products are related in terms of technology, but with increasing diversity of products and markets (diversification), divisional structures (Galbraith and Kazanjian, 1986) are more desirable. Finally, more flexible (decentralized and divisional) organizational structures are needed in new markets, while over time, as the organization acquires experience and tasks become increasingly predictable, a more centralized and functional structure is required (Hollenbeck, 2000).

Less common are studies such as those by Burton and Obel (1998), Brown and Eisenhadrd (2004), Huberman and Hogg (1995) and Nasrallah et al. (2003, 2009), which take many factors into consideration and look at how their combination affects organizational change. The present study aims to continue this second line of research and analyses the main factors that determine the organizational structure of a group of companies located in Catalonia (Spain). Specifically, it presents a preliminary analysis of potential constraints on certain elements (taken from contingency theory and the strategic choice approach) in relation to a typology of organizational models, the ultimate objective being to offer a kind of multidimensional analysis that takes a step towards a better understanding of organizational design, the relationships between business characteristics and the environment, and the behaviour of organizations. Sablynski (2003) defined organizational structure as “how job task formally divided, grouped and coordinated”.

According to Dalton (1980), “organizational structure may be considered the anatomy of the organization, providing a foundation within which organizations function”. Dalton categorized the organizational structure into traditional hierarchical organization and high performance organization. Traditional hierarchical organization is any long, complex administrative structure with job specialization and complex rules based on the principle of hierarchical authority, job specialization and formal rules (Machinsky, 1990). High performance organization is called organic organization that is designed to bring out the best in people and create an exceptional capacity to deliver high results (Dalton, 2000). Organic organization refers to a dynamic, loosely controlled, organization capable of modulating size and activities based on changing external and internal demands (Ledbetter, 2003). Organizational structure can be viewed as the way responsibility and power are allocated inside the organization and work procedures are carried out by organizational members (Teixeria et al., 2012). Daft (1998) mentioned eight dimensions of organizational structure: formalization, specialization, standardization, centralization, professionalism, complexity, hierarchy of authority and personnel ratios.

3. Methodology

3.1. Research Design

Research design is the frame work which specifies the type of information to be collected, the sources of data and the collection procedures. The study adopted survey research design. The basic idea behind survey methodology is to measure variables by asking people questions and then to examine relationships among the variables.

3.2. Population of the study

The population of a study is the entire aggregate of individuals or items relevant to a phenomenon under investigation (Franklin, 2011). The target population of this study includes senior, junior and top management of the four selected manufacturing organizations presented as below namely: Electricity Distribution Company (EEDC), Innoson Nigeria Ltd Enugu, PZ Industries Plc and Nigerian Breweries Plc in Enugu metropolis.

The breakdown of the population of the selected companies is shown in table 3.1 below:

Table 3.1: Population Distribution

Name of Firm	Population
Electricity Distribution Company (EEDC)	350
Innoson Nigeria Ltd	350
PZ Industries Enugu	400
Nigerian Breweries Plc Enugu	400
Total	1,500

Source: Field Survey, 2016

3.3. Sources of Data Collection

Data for the study were collected from both primary and secondary sources. Primary data were collected by means of interviews and structured questionnaires using summing rating scale of 1-5, which were administered to the chosen sample. The information from secondary sources was obtained from the library, published journals and articles, textbooks, internet, and other documented materials and were mostly utilized in the literature review.

3.4. Method of Data Collection

The instruments used in data collection for this study is a structured questionnaire and oral interview. The questionnaire was designed in Likert scale (5 points) format. The questionnaire was divided into two parts namely section A and B. Section (A) deals with the personal information about the respondents while section (B) deals with the research questions. There were a total of 14 questions in the questionnaire. The questionnaire was distributed to top management, senior and junior staff of the selected banks.

Interview: Some respondents were interviewed to get more information about the study especially on those areas not covered by the questionnaire.

3.4.1. Instrument for data Analysis

Data generated from the study were organized and presented in tables and percentages. The Hypotheses were tested using Z- test and Chi-Square (X^2) statistical techniques: Hypotheses 1 and 3 were tested using Z-test while hypotheses 2 and 4 were tested using Chi-square. The Special Package for Social Science (SPSS) computer version was employed.

4. Data Presentation, Analysis and Interpretation

The data generated from the field survey using the questionnaire as instrument were presented below in tables and percentages. The Z-test and Chi-square statistical techniques were used in testing the hypotheses.

Table 4.1: Analysis of Questionnaire Distributed and Returned

Organization	Number Distributed	Number Returned	% Returned	Not Returned	% Not Returned
Electricity Distribution Company	80	75	87.5	5	12.5
Nigerian Breweries Plc	42	36	85.7	6	14.3
PZ Industries Plc	138	112	81.2	26	18.8
Innoson Nigeria Ltd	56	47	82.5	9	17.5
Total	316	270	85.4	46	14.6

Source: Field Survey, 2016

From Table 4.1 above it could be seen that a total of 316 copies of the questionnaire were distributed to respondents. 270 copies of the questionnaire representing 85.4% were returned while 46 (14.6%) were not returned.

Table 4.2: Sex Distribution of Respondents in the Organizations of Study

Organization	Male	Female	Total	Percentage
Electricity Distribution Company	60	15	75	27.8
Nigerian Breweries Plc	28	8	36	13.3
PZ Industries Plc	87	25	112	41.5
Innoson Nigeria Ltd	36	11	47	17.4
Total	211 (78.1%)	59 (21.9)	270	100

Source: Field Survey, 2014

Table 4.2 above shows that out of the 270 total respondents, 211 (78.1%) are males while 59 (21.9%) are females.

Table 4.3: Age Distribution of Respondents in the Organizations of Study

Organization	20-25 Years		26-30 Years		36 and above		Total	%
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
Electricity Distribution Company	14	5.2	26	9.6	35	13.0	75	27.8

Nigerian Breweries Plc	6	2.2	12	4.4	18	6.7	36	13.3
PZ Industries Plc	20	7.4	38	14.1	54	20.0	112	41.5
Innoson Nigeria Ltd	8	3.0	16	5.9	23	8.5	47	17.4
Total	48	17.8	92	34.1	130	48.1	270	100

Source: Field Survey, 2016

From Table 4.3 above, 48 (17.8%) of the respondents were within 20-25 years; 92 (34.1%) were of 26-30 years while 130 (48.1%) were of 36 years and above.

Table 4.4: Qualification of Respondents in the Organizations of Study

					Total	%
	Electricity Distribution Company	Nigerian Breweries Plc	PZ Industries Plc	Innoson Nigeria Ltd		
FSLC	0	1	12	9	22	8.1
WAEC/GCE	0	3	22	10	35	13.0
OND/NCE	28	6	26	12	72	26.7
B.Sc/HND	36	20	43	11	110	40.7
MBA/M.Sc/Ph. D	9	3	5	2	19	7.0

Others	2	3	4	3	12	4.4
Total	75	36	112	47	270	100

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Table 4.4 above shows that out of 270 respondents, 8.1percent have First School Leaving Certificate; 13 percent have WAEC/GCE certificate; 26.7 percent have OND/NCE certificate; 40.7 percent have B.Sc/HND certificate; 7 percent of the respondents have MBA/M.Sc/Ph.D certificates while 4.4 percent represent others.

Table 4.5: Category of Staff in the Organizations of Study

Organization	Junior	Senior	Total	Percentage
Electricity Distribution Company	56	19	75	27.8
Nigerian Breweries Plc	20	16	36	13.3
PZ Industries Plc	82	30	112	41.5
Innoson Nigeria Ltd	30	17	47	17.4
Total	188 (69.63%)	82 (30.37%)	270	100

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Table 4.5 above shows that out of 270 respondents, 188 (69.63%) are junior staff while 82 (30.37%) are senior staff.

Table 4.6: Work Experience of Respondents in the Organizations of Study

Option	No. of Respondents				Total	% of Total
	Electricity Distribution Company	Nigerian Breweries Plc	PZ Industries Plc	Innoson Nigeria Ltd		
0 – 5	15	7	19	9	50	18.5
6 – 10	25	14	40	18	97	35.9
10 years and above	35	15	53	20	123	45.6
Total	75	36	112	47	270	100

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Table 4.6 shows that out of 270 respondents, 50 (18.5%) have worked for 0 – 5 years, 97 (35.9%) have worked for 6 – 10 years while 123 (45.6%) have worked for 10 years and above.

RESEARCH QUESTION (1)

Adherence to organizational design on employee performance has significant influences in Nigerian manufacturing industry?

S/NO		Agreement	Disagreement	Total
1	Adherence to organizational design on employee performance has significant influences in Nigerian manufacturing industry.	268	02	270
	Total	273 (51%)	267 (49%)	540

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Table 4.7 shows that 273 representing 51% agree while 267 representing 49% disagree. This implies that Adherence to organizational design on employee performance has significant influences in Nigerian manufacturing industry

RESEARCH QUESTION (2)

There is significant relationship between organizational structure and job design on employee performance in manufacturing industry

S/NO		Agreement	Disagreement	Total
1	There is significant relationship between organizational structure and job design on employee performance in manufacturing industry	265	05	270
	Total	275 (59.9%)	265 (40.1%)	540

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Table 4.8 shows that 275 representing 59.9% agree while 265 representing 40.1% disagree. This shows that There is significant relationship between organizational structure and job design on employee performance in manufacturing industry

RESEARCH QUESTION (3)

The adoption of the organizational design on employee performance on training significantly enhances corporate success and economic growth.

S/NO		Agreement	Disagreement	Total
1	The adoption of the organizational	208	62	270

design on employee performance on training significantly enhances corporate success and economic growth

Total 310 (57.5%) 230 (42.5%) 540

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Table 4.9 shows that 310 representing 57.5% agree while 230 representing 42.5% disagree. This indicates The adoption of the organizational design on employee performance on training significantly enhances corporate success and economic growth

4.3. Descriptive Statistics of Hypotheses

H₁. Adherence to organizational design on employee performance has significant influences in Nigerian manufacturing industry.

Table 4.12: Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Adherence to organizational design on employee performance has significant influences in Nigerian manufacturing industry	1012	2.8330	1.58029	1.00	5.00

Table 4.13: One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

	Adherence to organizational design on employee performance has significant influences in Nigerian manufacturing industry
N	540
Normal Parameters(a,b)	Mean 3.8314
Most Extreme Absolute	Std. Deviation 1.48029 .286

Differences		
	Positive	.287
	Negative	.236
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		9.417
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.001

a Test distribution is Normal.

b Calculated from data.

Table 4.13 is the output of the computed One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test, the response options of agree and disagree based on the responses of the research subjects from the selected organization. Z- calculated Value ($Z_c = 9.417$) is greater than the Z tabulated value ($Z_t = 1.96$)

Hypothesis Two:

H₁: There is significant relationship between organizational structure and job design on employee performance in manufacturing industry.

Table 4.15: Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	24.540(a)	6	.002
Likelihood Ratio	18.974	6	.004
Linear-by-Linear Association	.650	1	.420
N of Valid Cases	540		

Table 4.15 is the output of the computed Chi-Square values from the cross tabulation statistics of observed and expected frequencies with the response options of agree and disagree based on the responses of the research subjects from organization. Pearson. Chi-Square computed value ($X^2_c = 24.540$) is greater than the Chi –Square tabulated value ($X^2_t = 12.59$) with 6 degrees of freedom (df) at 0.05 level of alpha ($X^2_c = 24.540, p < .05$)

Hypothesis Three

H₁: The adoption of the organizational design on employee performance on training significantly enhances corporate success and economic growth.

Table 4.17: One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

	The adoption of the principles of corporate governance significantly enhances the rate of return on investment in the banking industry	
N		540
Normal Parameters(a,b)	Mean	2.8330
	Std. Deviation	1.58029
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.236
	Positive	.207
	Negative	.266
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		6.817
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.001

a Test distribution is Normal.

b Calculated from data.

Table 4.17 is the output of the computed One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test, the response options of agree and disagree based on the responses of the research subjects from the selected organization Z-calculated Value ($Z_c = 6.817$) is greater than the Z- tabulated value ($Z_t = 1.96$)

5. Summary of Findings, Recommendations and Conclusions

5.1. Summary of Findings

Adherence to organizational design on employee performance has significant influences in Nigerian manufacturing industry

There is significant relationship between organizational structure and job design on employee performance in manufacturing industry

The adoption of the organizational design on employee performance on training significantly enhances corporate success and economic growth

Training design plays a very vital role in the employee as well as organizational performance. A bad training design is nothing but the loss of time and money

5.2. Conclusion

Organizational design on employee performance has a significant impact in employee performance. Training and Development has positive effect on Organizational Performance. Job design among other variables determines performance in organizations. The higher the degree of uncertainty in the environment, the greater the flexibility expected of a manager as regards the organizational design to adopt. This is because changes in today's business environment have made it almost impossible to adopt a particular style that would work best. Actions of competitors have created the need for continuous change in organizations.

5.3. Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study, the following recommendations were made:

1. For a competitive advantage in the ever changing business environment, organizations should adopt an organizational design that is flexible and responsive to change especially as it concerns competitions.
2. That the culture of a given society should be put into consideration for effective organizational design on employee performance
3. That there should be policy framework to ensure significant relationship between organizational structure and job design on employee performance in manufacturing industry.
4. The study recommends that employees should be optimally utilized at the workplace though employers should be careful not to overwork their employees.
5. It also recommends that job rotation should be done as a routine and employers should consider giving employees some sort of control over their work and more discretion over how it gets done.
6. Finally, training of management / senior staff should be regular in order to equip them on the need to be proactive and responsive to today's dynamic work environment.

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