

## INFORMATION TO USERS

This reproduction was made from a copy of a document sent to us for microfilming. While the most advanced technology has been used to photograph and reproduce this document, the quality of the reproduction is heavily dependent upon the quality of the material submitted.

The following explanation of techniques is provided to help clarify markings or notations which may appear on this reproduction.

1. The sign or "target" for pages apparently lacking from the document photographed is "Missing Page(s)". If it was possible to obtain the missing page(s) or section, they are spliced into the film along with adjacent pages. This may have necessitated cutting through an image and duplicating adjacent pages to assure complete continuity.
2. When an image on the film is obliterated with a round black mark, it is an indication of either blurred copy because of movement during exposure, duplicate copy, or copyrighted materials that should not have been filmed. For blurred pages, a good image of the page can be found in the adjacent frame. If copyrighted materials were deleted, a target note will appear listing the pages in the adjacent frame.
3. When a map, drawing or chart, etc., is part of the material being photographed, a definite method of "sectioning" the material has been followed. It is customary to begin filming at the upper left hand corner of a large sheet and to continue from left to right in equal sections with small overlaps. If necessary, sectioning is continued again—beginning below the first row and continuing on until complete.
4. For illustrations that cannot be satisfactorily reproduced by xerographic means, photographic prints can be purchased at additional cost and inserted into your xerographic copy. These prints are available upon request from the Dissertations Customer Services Department.
5. Some pages in any document may have indistinct print. In all cases the best available copy has been filmed.

**University  
Microfilms  
International**

300 N. Zeeb Road  
Ann Arbor, MI 48106



8408988

**Bard, Leona Fliegner**

**WORK AND FAMILY: A BASELINE STUDY OF THE RELATIVE  
IMPORTANCE OF THE PERCEPTION OF ORGANIZATIONAL EQUITY AND  
JOB SATISFACTION TO THE OCCUPATIONAL INVOLVEMENT OF MIDDLE  
MANAGERS**

*The University of North Carolina at Greensboro*

PH.D. 1983

**University  
Microfilms  
International** 300 N. Zeeb Road, Ann Arbor, MI 48106



WORK AND FAMILY: A BASELINE STUDY OF THE RELATIVE IMPORTANCE OF THE  
PERCEPTION OF ORGANIZATIONAL EQUITY AND JOB SATISFACTION  
TO THE OCCUPATIONAL INVOLVEMENT OF MIDDLE MANAGERS

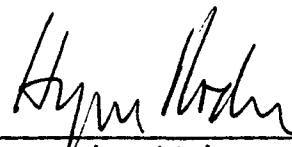
by

Leona F. Bard

A Dissertation Submitted to  
the Faculty of the Graduate School at  
The University of North Carolina at Greensboro  
in Partial Fulfillment  
of the Requirements for the Degree  
Doctor of Philosophy

Greensboro  
1983

Approved by



---

Dissertation Advisor

APPROVAL PAGE

This dissertation proposal has been approved by the following committee of the Faculty of the Graduate School at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

Dissertation Advisor

Hym Rodh

Committee Members

Rebecca M. Smith

Whang Ahn

Vin R. Kinnell

November 10, 1983  
Date of Acceptance by Committee

November 10, 1983  
Date of Final Oral Examination

BARD, LEONA F. Work and Family: A Baseline Study of the Relative Importance of the Perception of Organizational Equity and Job Satisfaction to the Occupational Involvement of Middle Managers. (1983) Directed by: Dr. Hyman Rodman. Pp. 125.

The long-range purpose of this study was to clarify the variables associated with work effort in order to provide baseline data for future investigation of the linkages between work roles and family roles.

The subjects were 477 middle managers from five organizational settings. Three of the organizations were industrial corporations and two of them were governmental agencies. The selection criteria were discussed with representatives from each institution and all employees complying with them were contacted.

The data were collected by means of a questionnaire which was designed for the study. The dependent variable, work effort, was measured by the Lodahl and Kejner (1965) Job Involvement Scale.

The study documented the importance of both specific job satisfaction and the perception of organizational equity to the understanding of work effort. As was hypothesized, these independent variables were able to explain a significant amount of the variability of work effort. Contrary to our expectations, no age-related differences were found. In other words, in looking at the relative importance of the variables, it was found that the work effort of both the younger managers and the older managers was influenced more by the

level of specific job/task satisfaction than by the perception of equitable treatment. At the same time, job satisfaction was found to be highly related to a sense of equitable treatment, indicating that the determination of the level of job satisfaction was dependent upon the degree of equity perceived.

In interpreting these findings, it was concluded that the perception of equity is an underlying process, more difficult to assess than job satisfaction which has more tangible criteria and is more accessible to psychological awareness. Equity may therefore be a necessary but not sufficient motivator of work effort. It was also pointed out that the survey took place during an economic recession which constrained employment mobility and accentuated the desire for job security, providing a climate which may have served to enhance the influence of job satisfaction.

The results of this study were considered in relation to past research which failed to differentiate between management and nonmanagement workers and between attitudes toward a specific job and attitudes toward overall organizational policies and practices. The implications of these findings were discussed and suggestions for future research needs and directions were made.



## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to express my appreciation to the many people who have been most helpful to me in the completion of this research project. I am most grateful to my major advisor, Dr. Hyman Rodman, for his encouragement, his valuable comments, and his constructive suggestions. His ability to search beyond the obvious has served as an inspiration to me in both the development and the execution of this study. Special thanks also go to Dr. Rebecca M. Smith, Dr. Vira R. Kivett, Dr. William W. Purkey, Dr. W. Lawrence Osborne, and Dr. John Shelton for their interest, their assistance, and their support.

I would also like to express my gratitude to the organizations participating in this study, whose desire for anonymity has been honored. Their willingness to take the time to consider this research proposal and facilitate the study demonstrated a genuine concern for the well-being of their employees and made this effort all the more worthwhile. To the individuals who gave of themselves to respond to the questionnaires, I thank you sincerely.

Finally, I would like to express my appreciation and love to my family for bearing with me and consistently providing me with encouragement, understanding, and support throughout my graduate study. May you receive as you have given, for your gift has been great.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
APPROVAL PAGE . . . . .	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS . . . . .	iii
LIST OF TABLES . . . . .	vi
 CHAPTER	
I. INTRODUCTION . . . . .	1
Statement of the Problem . . . . .	1
Purpose of the Study . . . . .	4
Scope of the Study . . . . .	10
II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE . . . . .	12
The Motivation to Work . . . . .	12
The Concept of Commitment . . . . .	21
The Context for the Decision-Making Process in the Industrial Organization . . . . .	28
The Job and the Career . . . . .	48
Objectives of the Study . . . . .	57
Hypotheses . . . . .	59
III. METHODOLOGY . . . . .	61
Procedure . . . . .	61
The Sample . . . . .	62
Research Instruments . . . . .	64
Methods of Data Analysis . . . . .	69
IV. RESULTS . . . . .	70
Additional Analyses . . . . .	78
Discussion of Results . . . . .	84

	Page
CHAPTER	
V. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS . . . . .	96
Research Procedures . . . . .	98
Strengths and Limitations . . . . .	99
Conclusions . . . . .	102
Implications . . . . .	103
BIBLIOGRAPHY . . . . .	110
APPENDIX . . . . .	119

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE	Page
1. Multiple Regression Analyses of the Influence of Job Satisfaction, Perceived Equity, and Age Upon Job Involvement . . . . .	71
2. Relative Importance of the Individual Variables to the Model . . . . .	72
3. Multiple Regression Analysis of the Influence of Job Satisfaction and Perceived Equity Upon the Job Involvement of Younger Managers . . . . .	73
4. Relative Contributions of the Independent Variables in Explaining the Job Involvement of the Younger Managers . . . . .	73
5. Multiple Regression Analysis of the Influence of Job Satisfaction and Perceived Equity Upon the Job Involvement of Older Managers . . . . .	75
6. Relative Contributions of the Independent Variables in Explaining the Job Involvement of the Younger Managers . . . . .	75
7. Multiple Regression Analysis of the Influence of Job Satisfaction and Perceived Equity Upon the Job Involvement of Older Managers Indicating Low Levels of Work Effort . . . . .	77
8. Relative Contributions of the Independent Variables in Explaining the Job Involvement of Older Managers Indicating Low Levels of Work Effort . . . . .	77

TABLE

Page

9.	Correlations Between Assessments of Adequacy of Feedback and Job Satisfaction, Age, and Job Involvement . . . . .	78
10.	Correlation Between Job Involvement and the Independent Variables . . . . .	80
11.	Intercorrelations Between the Independent Variables . . . . .	80
12.	Mean Scores for Job Involvement by Reward Priority and Appraisal of Present Position . . . . .	82
13.	Analysis of Variance of Job Involvement by Reward Priority and Position Appraisal . . . . .	83
14.	Multiple Regression Analysis of the Influence of the Individual Companies Upon the Model . . . . .	85
15.	Mean Differences Between Sexes, Education Levels, and Training Levels for Job Satisfaction, Perceived Equity, and Job Involvement . . . . .	86

## CHAPTER I

## INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

Although the American Dream promises that those who work hard will be rewarded, reality dictates that rewards are not limitless and may not always be sufficient for the effort exerted. What then happens to individuals who work for an organization and find themselves beginning to question its willingness or ability to provide appropriate and fair compensation for hard work? The only literature which addresses itself to this question is based upon laboratory experiments, primarily in the area of the sufficiency of pay (Adams, 1963; Festinger, 1961; Katzell, 1980; Walster, Walster & Berscheid, 1978).

Social scientists have been interested in the topic of motivation in work organizations since the turn of the century when industry became concerned about production plateaus. Motivation, in this context, refers to those factors which facilitate a high level of job involvement by providing incentives for people to work hard. Job involvement may therefore be seen as a manifestation of the work effort an individual is willing to exert as well as a reflection of his or her motivational level. The initial focus of the studies done in this area attempted to associate hard work with job satisfaction but found the relationship to be negligible (Locke, 1976). While much has been done to improve the research, both with respect to theoretical bases and methodology, there

has been little contributed which has significantly increased our understanding of the variability of work motivation.

Interestingly, there have been a number of disparate contributions to the literature with no effort made at coordination or practical use. Vroom (1964) made the first such contribution by noting the absence of theoretical foundations to the early job satisfaction studies and introducing the application of cognitive theory to work motivation. By that time, Festinger (1957) had already developed the theory of cognitive dissonance and applied it to the question of insufficient rewards (Festinger, 1961). Adams (1963, 1965) elaborated upon this in studying responses to perceived inequity of pay. Levinson (1965) and Schein (1968, 1972) noted the importance of equity more generally in their emphasis upon the need for reciprocity in the "psychological contract" which encompasses the total work relationship between an employer and employee.

Not only does the bulk of the research ignore the potential interdisciplinary contributions available in the literature, but it is ambiguous with respect to both definitions and methodology. As a result, when the term job satisfaction is used, it lacks clarity (Staw, 1976), and researchers often use their own definitions for relevant concepts, depending upon the focus of their research. This has led to a situation in which an effort needs to be made to clarify and provide some consistency to the terminology under consideration.

Although there are notations in the literature concerning the volitional nature of work effort (Blau, 1964; Salancik, 1979; Schein, 1972; Shostak, 1968), the majority of studies are based upon easily measured variables, using nonmanagement workers who have little control over routinized jobs (Katz & Kahn, 1966; Lawler & Porter, 1967). Attitudinal differences between managers and nonmanagers are overlooked in these studies, although there is a large body of research from which one may easily distinguish such differences (Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler & Weick, 1970; Dubin, 1956; Green, 1968; Kanter, 1977a; Kohn, 1969; Margolis, 1979; McCall & Simmons, 1978; Shibutani, 1955; Sofer, 1970; Wilensky, 1961; Zablocki & Kanter, 1976).

Where management workers have been used as subjects, the Job Description Index or JDI (Smith, Kendall & Hulin, 1969) has been the preferred tool to obtain information about attitudes. Although the JDI has proved to be reliable, it yields information which focuses more upon a worker's attitude toward his or her specific job/task than toward the organization as a whole, while incorporating both attitudes, without distinction, in its scale. This may be appropriate for skilled laborers who remain primarily within one type of job for their entire work history, but it is less relevant to the more mobile organizational managers who will fill many different types of jobs within the same organization during their careers. Their attitudes toward their particular positions may be quite discrepant from their feelings about their companies in general.



### Purpose of the Study

The long-range purpose of this study is to provide baseline data to contribute to our understanding of the linkages between work and family. It is believed that by clarifying variables relevant to work behavior it will be easier to relate such behavior to family issues. The immediate purpose of this study was to investigate the relative influence of the perception of organizational equity and job satisfaction upon work effort. More specifically, the objective of this study was to examine the work effort exerted by managers in an industrial organization, as it was manifested in their level of job involvement; since such managerial effort is volitional, this is a critical variable from both a theoretical and a practical standpoint. By clarifying the concept of job satisfaction so that it referred specifically to satisfaction with tasks inherent in a particular role, and by introducing the variable of an individual's perception of the equity of organizational policies, it was hoped that new light would be shed on the factors that underlie individual work effort.

Work effort was conceptualized, in accordance with the work of Strauss (1978) and Scanzoni and Scinovacz (1980), as an outcome of a decision-making process which takes place within a context determined by characteristics of the worker as well as the setting. While the process itself was not a focus of this study, the context and the resulting behaviors were dealt with in depth.

The literature on job satisfaction is incomplete with respect to the response of management employees, and there have been no studies which have investigated job satisfaction as it relates to the perception of organizational equity in influencing work motivation. The general literature on the attitudes of managers (Bray, Campbell & Grant, 1974; Campbell et al., 1970; Kanter, 1977b; Locke, 1976; Margolis, 1979; Sofer, 1970) suggests that a specific job is seen as a small part of a career of job changes in the rise up the hierarchical ladder of success. Job satisfaction is transitory as jobs are not expected to be permanent.

Upon entry into an industrial organization, the manager undergoes a socialization process which conveys expectations and promises potential rewards. The bulk of the literature attributes the motivation of the manager to this process with its promised rewards (Berlew & Hall, 1966; Bray et al., 1974; Buchanan, 1974; Campbell et al., 1970; Kanter, 1977b; Locke, 1976; March & Olsen, 1976; Margolis, 1979; Presthus, 1962; Schein, 1968; Sofer, 1970; Van Manaan, 1977). In its effort to exert control, the organization is described as circumscribing managers' access to alternative sources of rewards by keeping them from establishing bases for the attainment of these rewards elsewhere (Blau, 1964; Kanter, 1977a,b; Margolis, 1979; Presthus, 1962; Schein, 1968). Managers are encouraged to become increasingly dependent upon the organization while concurrently accruing benefits they would have to sacrifice if they were to leave the organization (Becker, 1960).

There are, however, objective limits to rewards. Opportunities diminish as one moves up within the hierarchy and not all who wish to move ahead succeed in doing so. What happens to individuals who have worked hard all of their lives, by virtue of being highly involved in their jobs, when they realize that the rewards they have worked to attain are not likely to be theirs? Festinger (1961), in studying responses to insufficient rewards, found that individuals in such situations experience the tension associated with cognitive dissonance. To reduce this tension, they may either change their behavior by diminishing their job involvement, they may alter their cognitions by changing their goals or their desired rewards, or they may leave the inequitable exchange.

Research related to organizational commitment suggests that once individuals have reached a certain point in their careers, they have so much invested in their organizations, both emotionally and economically, that it is virtually impossible for them to go elsewhere (Becker, 1960; Blau, 1964; Buchanan, 1974; McCall & Simmons, 1978; Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979; Presthus, 1962; Scanzoni, 1979; Shibutani, 1955; Sofer, 1970; Staw, 1976; Stryker, 1968). Young managers may have less at stake in leaving an inequitable exchange and they may feel more pressure to do so in their effort to succeed; older managers, who have more to lose, may be more accepting of their circumstances and less anxious to move on (Becker, 1960; Gould, 1972; Levinson, 1977; Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson & McKee, 1974; Staw, 1976). Age may therefore have a bearing upon an individual's response to perceived

inequity.

In accordance with Festinger's (1961) findings, those who do not leave an exchange which they perceive to be less than equitable may be expected to either alter their behavior or alter their cognitions. Individuals who resolve the dissonance by altering their behavior would be expected to exert only a normatively acceptable level rather than a high degree of job involvement. Individuals who alter their cognitions would be expected to maintain their lifelong pattern of hard work, i.e., maintain job involvement levels, but find some means of justifying their behavior once they recognized that they would not be able to obtain formerly anticipated rewards. Staw's (1976) explanation of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards expands upon Festinger's work by suggesting that when extrinsic rewards can no longer be expected in return for hard work, individuals may justify their behavior by more positively re-evaluating the intrinsic rewards associated with their tasks.

An example of the alteration of cognitions was recently provided by Howard and Bray (1980, 1982) in their study of AT&T managers. Those men who had failed to reach the management levels to which they had previously aspired expressed reduced desire to move up. While they did not claim to be highly satisfied with the level they had reached, they no longer expressed a great desire for promotions either. Most of them indicated that relocation was unacceptable, while others were reluctant to assume the added responsibilities a promotion would entail. At the same time, Howard and Bray reported that career success was highly related to the importance of work in the managers' lives. Those

managers who only moved to the lower management levels tended to disengage themselves from their work, or withdraw from job involvement (Schein, 1978), at a relatively early age, while those who continued to move up within the hierarchy were found to remain highly involved in their jobs. For middle managers, the process of disengagement began after ten to thirteen years of employment, when they were in their late 30's. As these adjustments were made to career plateaus and as the primacy of work decreased in the managers' lives, other themes, such as family life and hobbies, became more important.

While Howard and Bray noted the acceptance of career plateaus and the concurrent process of disengagement in the group of managers who no longer anticipated promotions, they also reported that among managers who had realistic expectations of future promotions (by virtue of being part of the Bell Advanced Management Program, which is an executive development course to help prepare identified potential officers from middle management for their future responsibilities), more than half said that advancing one more level was extremely important or very important, compared to only 16 percent of the first group. They concluded that "ambition was not dead among high flying middle managers" (1982, p. 2F).

The nature of this issue has a direct bearing upon current problems encountered by individuals facing the limits of extrinsic organizational rewards. While older managers are finding that economic slowdown is cutting expansion and keeping them in jobs they had initially thought of as "stepping stones" to higher level positions, younger managers are

discovering that although they would be willing to move to a different organization, the limited opportunities for promotion are fairly consistent across organizations. There are not enough positions available into which the bright young men of middle management may move (Gottschalk, 1981). The problems associated with the perception of insufficient rewards are therefore exacerbated by the lack of economic expansion and the pressure of the "baby boom" children growing up.

At the same time, a recent study by Yankelovich and Immerwahr has concluded that the limited availability of rewards has reduced the effort exerted by managers to the extent that, at the present time, a large portion of the workforce is not working up to potential (Hartson, 1983). In the absence of ownership as a motive for a high degree of work effort, however, industrial organizations are dependent upon hard-working individuals to sustain organizational well-being. Consequently, they must take deliberate steps to create the necessary level of motivation (Margolis, 1979). Traditionally, this has been done with promises of extrinsic rewards. As such promises are necessarily curtailed, alternative means of motivation must be found.

In addition to affecting organizational well-being, managers' perceptions of receiving equitable treatment affect their own well-being. As Katzell (1980) has noted, the literature generally concedes that experiences at the workplace have an effect upon the entire fabric of an individual's life, affecting relations with family as well as with friends. More specifically, the impact of the inadequately performed or "damaged" worker/earner role may serve to

initiate new family stress as well as to exacerbate existing difficulties (Rodman & Safilios-Rothschild, 1983; Voydanoff, 1983) The literature on the meaning of work and work role centrality suggests that for those whose identities are anchored in their work roles, the effects of the perception of inequity at work may have even more severe consequences than for those who are less emotionally involved in their jobs (Dubin, 1956; Green, 1968; McCall & Simmons, 1978; Shibutani, 1955; Sofer, 1970; Stryker, 1968; Wilensky, 1961; Zablocki & Kanter, 1976).

#### Scope of the Study

Within a utilitarian theoretical framework (See Blalock & Wilkins, 1979; Scanzoni & Scinovacz, 1980), which incorporates contributions from exchange, equity, symbolic interaction and adult development research, this study investigated the influences of job satisfaction and of perceived organizational equity upon the effort exerted at work by industrial executives. Since the theoretical contributions on adult development suggest that there are differential societal age pressures and the literature on organizational practices suggests that there are differential alternatives available based upon age, the influence of age within this framework was also investigated. The principle questions addressed by this study were the following:

1. What are the contributions of differential levels of job satisfaction and perceived equity to work effort?

2. Is there a measurable difference in work effort between those who feel that the organization will provide equitable rewards for hard work and those who feel it will not?

3. Is there a measurable difference in work effort between those who are highly satisfied with their present jobs and those who are not?

4. Is there a relationship between job satisfaction and the perception of organizational equity?

5. If there is a relationship, is it related to the age of the individual?

6. Is there a measurable difference, based upon age, between the importance of job satisfaction and the importance of the perception of equity in their contributions to work effort?

The research design was one in which a questionnaire was administered to 477 middle level organizational managers in five different organizations. The questionnaire was distributed through the interoffice mail and investigated attitudes toward specific job/tasks and toward perceived organizational equity. Work effort was measured by the Lodahl and Kejner (1965) Job Involvement Scale. Multiple regression techniques were used to determine the importance of job satisfaction, perceived equity, and age in explaining the variability of work effort.



CHAPTER II  
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter reviews the literature, tracing the research in each of the areas addressed by the study. It provides the background material for the development of the premise that work effort, as it is reflected in job involvement, is related to specific job satisfaction, perceived organizational equity, and age. The first part of the chapter focuses upon a brief review of the general way in which the subject of work motivation has been treated. The next three sections introduce research on the concept of commitment, relate it to decision making within the organizational setting, and consider the ramifications of disappointment on the committed individual. The rationale of the study, as it articulates with the literature, is then presented, along with the specific hypotheses to be tested.

The Motivation to Work

Motivation refers to "how behavior gets started, is energized, is directed, is stopped, and what kind of subjective reaction is present in the organism while all this is going on" (Jones, 1955). The motivation to work relates these behavioral parameters to the work setting. From 1630 to the beginning of our Industrial Revolution in 1840, such issues were not of importance because the Protestant "work ethic" dominated society (Shostak, 1968). People worked to survive, starting at a young age and continuing through their short lives. Idleness was associated

with the devil. As the Industrial Revolution took hold, the subsistence agriculture of the rural masses and the craft and self-employment of the urban residents were altered by the technological advances made (Kanter, 1977a). These advances, coupled with the arrival of new immigrants and the creation of new opportunities, led to the association of work with wishful ambitions and with improving one's lot in life. By the late 1800's, however, self-employment had given way to working for wages and the business world was dominated by concern for the appropriate control of this work force (de Grazia, 1962; Kanter, 1977a; Locke, 1976; Shostak, 1968).

It was at this point that concern about work motivation arose and it was this issue that Frederick Taylor was addressing when he introduced his ideas on scientific management in 1912 (Locke, 1976). Taylor believed that his proposals would lead to a change in attitude on the part of both the worker and the manager; instead of being concerned with the "division of the surplus", they would turn their attention to increasing its size so that it would not be necessary to quarrel over its division.

After initial hesitation, business quickly adopted these procedures as they seemed to provide a solution to the problem of production plateaus and a way of making labor more efficient (Locke, 1976). When these methods were found to be cumbersome and not as effective as promised, business again changed course in the late 1920's (Schein, 1968; Shostak, 1968) when the Mayoists from the Harvard Business School presented the human relations approach as the antithesis of Taylor's

scientific management (Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1939).

Taylor had assumed that a worker who received the highest possible earnings with the least amount of fatigue would be satisfied and productive. Mayo clarified this by proposing the necessity of not only fulfilling workers' economic needs but of matching people up to their jobs so that their psychological needs would also be met.

Mayo's approach led the business community to adopt a paternalistic attitude toward the worker. Although it has undergone some modification through the years, this approach has retained its appeal for the larger industrial organizations. The volitional base of work behavior is well recognized; while it may be manipulated (Blau, 1964; Shostak, 1968), it remains volitional (Salancik, 1977; Schein, 1972).

Business organizations require certain behavior from workers if they are to function effectively. People must be induced to enter and remain within the system, they must carry out their role assignments in a dependable fashion, and there must be innovative and spontaneous activity in achieving organizational objectives which go beyond the role specifications of a position (Katz, 1964; Katz & Kahn, 1966). While there seem to be a number of ways to fulfill the first and second of these organizational requirements, the third one has been problematic through the years in that minimum standards for quality and quantity of work tend to become maximum standards and the need to motivate people beyond this point has been unavoidable (Katz, 1964).

Mayo's proposal that job satisfaction on the part of the worker would result in more and better productivity has generated an enormous number of studies. Unfortunately, the results have indicated that increasing the job satisfaction of workers is not a reliable means of increasing productivity or motivating the worker to go beyond role specifications (Locke, 1976).

#### Job Satisfaction and Performance

The focus of the job satisfaction studies prior to 1955 was on whether people liked or disliked certain aspects of their work situations (Lawler & Porter, 1967). Rarely were other facets of their attitudes toward work considered and rarely were other factors in the work situation investigated (Locke, 1976). Not only was there a failure to define concepts consistently (Guion, 1958), but most analyses were done by means of factor analysis which led to a situation in which findings were often a function of the specific variables selected for investigation. As a result, different studies claiming to measure the same thing reached different conclusions (Vroom, 1964).

In addition, most of the studies done were on laborers or nonmanagement employees. This not only limited the generalizability of the findings but also colored the conclusions drawn, as the jobs in question were routinized and had little to do with satisfaction as a motivator (Lawler & Porter, 1967; Katz, 1964).

This early research consistently found job satisfaction to be inversely related to absences and turnover and, with equal consistency, showed a negligible relationship between satisfaction and the level of performance (Brayfield & Crockett, 1955; Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, & Capwell, 1957; Locke, 1976; Vroom, 1964). Brayfield and Crockett (1955) concluded that employees' attitudes toward their jobs were not appreciably related to their levels of performance. Herzberg et al. somewhat contradicted this in their 1957 review of the literature in which they found that positive job attitudes were favorable to a high level of performance, but the correlations were low and, in many of the studies reviewed, the relationship was not reflected. Georgopoulos, Mahony and Jones (1957) clarified the issue by noting that when workers believed that productivity (a high level of performance) would be instrumental in the attainment of personal goals, they were high producers.

Summarizing this literature, March and Simon (1958) conceptualized job satisfaction as influencing an individual's "decision to participate" but not directly affecting his "decision to produce". Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman (1959), investigating the relationship between job satisfaction and the motivation to perform, made a distinction between the factors of a job which lead to satisfaction and those which motivate a person to perform. They believed that the absence of extrinsic rewards was responsible for dissatisfaction and attributed the motivation to perform to the presence of intrinsic rewards. While Herzberg's two-factor theory served to stimulate a great

deal of research, it has been controversial and has generally led to the conclusion that it is an "oversimplification which has served its purpose and should be altered or respectfully laid aside" (Campbell et al., 1970, p. 381).

One of the major problems associated with this body of research was that little attention was paid to theory (Lawler & Porter, 1967; Vroom, 1964). Campbell and Pritchard (1976) pointed out that prior to 1960 there was very little in the way of motivational theory for the practitioner or scientist to fall back on when a systematic approach was needed to analyze a situation. Consequently, there were a lot of empirical findings but little in the way of concepts or models to tie the research together.

#### Theoretical Contributions

In 1964, when Vroom presented his own research findings, he referred to the failure to utilize existing theory by stating:

We assume that applied as well as basic research should be directed by some kind of systematic model of reality, rather than by isolated "hunches" or by expediency. We also assume that there is a lawfulness in the behavior of individuals which transcends the boundaries of applied fields. It is exceedingly unlikely that behavior of persons in work situations is governed by processes that are basically different from behavior in other types of situations. Accordingly, we regard as a useful starting point for the development of theory in industrial psychology, theories which have proven useful in organizing empirical knowledge and in guiding research in other fields. (pp.5-6)

The major motivational models existing prior to 1960 were those which utilized reinforcement (Skinner), drive or need reduction (Hull), or incentives (Lewin) as the motivational determinants of behavior (Campbell & Pritchard, 1976). It was the work of Lewin (1938) and Tolman (1932) which led to the emergence of cognitive process theories, as experiments turned from animals to humans. Both Lewin and Tolman held that individuals have cognitive expectancies concerning the outcomes that are likely to occur as a result of what they do, and that they have preferences among outcomes.

Such theoretical origins gave rise to expectancy theory, as it was initially introduced by Vroom (1964), expanded upon by Graen (1969), simplified by Porter and Lawler (1968), and, most recently, modified by Lawler (1971, 1973). Festinger's (1954, 1957) work in the area of social comparison processes and cognitive dissonance and the work of Thibaut and Kelley (1959) and Homans (1961) in social exchange processes gave rise to equity theory, as presented by Adams (1963, 1965). This is also a cognitive theory based upon individual perceptions within relationships. These newer theoretical bases have facilitated the evolution of a more systematic set of models and more comprehensive specifications for the motivational analysis of behavior than the pre-1960 floundering efforts permitted (Campbell & Pritchard, 1976).

Vroom (1964) developed a model which attempted to predict choices among tasks or effort levels based upon the desired outcomes of the behavior and the expectation that the behavior would indeed be instrumental in obtaining that outcome. Graen (1969) attempted to

broaden the conceptual base of the model by incorporating ideas about attitudes, roles and interpersonal influence processes. While he increased the parameters and complexity of the model, he ran into the problem of dealing with and explaining discrete effort levels. Porter and Lawler (1968) presented the least complex model, avoiding the problem of discrete effort levels, and introduced the distinction between intrinsic rewards (which are those an individual provides for himself) and extrinsic rewards (which are those granted by other people). They also added the concept of feedback. They proposed that the effort-reward relationship would be changed over time as actual rewards were compared with expected outcomes with respect to their occurrence and their equity. Lawler (1971, 1973) later added a third feedback dimension which involved the success or failure of the task performance.

As expectancy theory moved along, it became apparent that there was a need to incorporate consideration of the equity of the exchange relationship. At the same time, equity theory was being dealt with extensively in the area of work by Adams (1963, 1965) who stimulated a great deal of research which focused primarily upon pay. Adams proposed that people consider their relevant inputs (effort, education, age, beauty, etc.) as well as outcomes in an exchange relationship and compare them to what they see others in similar situations putting in and getting out of their exchanges. This conceptualization incorporates Homan's (1961) concept of distributive justice, which is the assessment made by individuals of outputs they receive relative to inputs made by



them in comparison to those of others. It is also based upon Thibaut and Kelley's (1959) Comparison Level (CL) and Comparison Level for Alternatives (CLalt). The individual's assessment of the total relationship with respect to its costs and rewards is the CL and the CLalt is the minimum level the individual will accept in a relationship, in light of available alternatives. Perceived equity is believed to result when individuals consider themselves to be receiving proper treatment in the exchange, relative to what others receive.

Adams further explained that when feelings of perceived inequity are experienced, they produce the tension associated with cognitive dissonance (See Festinger, 1957, 1961). Individuals may attempt to reduce this tension by means of (a) cognitively distorting inputs or outcomes, (b) getting the comparison person to change inputs or outcomes, (c) changing their own inputs or outcomes, (d) changing to a different comparison person, or (e) leaving the particular exchange relationship. The selection of resolutions depends upon which are available, as not all of them may be, and which are perceived as being most effective to maximize positive outcomes and minimize costly inputs. Leaving the field or retreating from the exchange relationship is viewed as a last resort, occurring only when inequity is great and other means of reducing it seem to be unavailable.

In their 1975 review of the literature, Katzell and Yankelovich broadened Adams' proposals regarding the perception of equity by pointing out how dependent such perceptions are upon individual differences:

Of all the factors which help to create highly motivated/highly satisfied workers, the principal one appears to be that effective performance be recognized .. in whatever terms are meaningful to the individual, be it financial or psychological or both. This means that programs, in order to enhance both productivity and job satisfaction, must function so that workers find effective performance to be rewarding and that doing what one finds rewarding results in effective performance. (p. 26)

Levinson (1965) initially pinpointed this aspect of the individual/work relationship when he discussed reciprocation as the "process of fulfilling mutual expectations and satisfying mutual needs in the relationship between a man and his work organization" (p. 384), calling it a "psychological contract" in accordance with Karl Menninger's (1958) description. It was Levinson's feeling that conceptualizing reciprocation as a continuous process could contribute to integrating many disparate ideas in industrial psychology.

#### The Concept of Commitment

The concept of commitment may indeed be the integrating vehicle to which Levinson alluded. The literature in this area indicates that while the concept is rooted in equity theory, it incorporates exchange principles and continues to be relevant to the concepts of decision making theory.

Katz and Kahn (1966) noted that the most effective way to increase the quality and quantity of performance so that it was creative and spontaneous and went beyond specified roles was to facilitate the internalization of organizational goals. They pointed out, however,

that for the average assembly line worker, creativity and spontaneity would have little to do with job performance and would be difficult to express within the confines of the conventional organization. For such workers, the exchange is a utilitarian one, based upon providing services for tangible rewards which are assessed as either equitable or inequitable. The demand for creativity and spontaneity is one associated with the role of the administrator, for whom equity is a more abstract concept which incorporates anticipated rewards as well as those actually received. They concluded that the internalization of values and goals, to the extent that it had a bearing upon performance motivation, was relevant to the executive or managerial level.

Buchanan (1974) incorporated these ideas into his conceptualization of commitment which, he stated, includes identification, involvement and loyalty. Committed individuals, according to Buchanan, adopt as their own the goals and values of the organization, are psychologically immersed or absorbed in the activities of the work role, and feel attraction for and attachment to the organization. Lee (1971) pointed out that such an individual is also more productive in contributing to organizational objectives.

The organization benefits from such attitudes and behaviors because they result in a high level of work effort. The commitment of managers is essential for the survival and functional effectiveness of large work organizations because it is the basic responsibility of management to maintain such organizations (Buchanan, 1974; Margolis, 1979). In the absence of ownership as a motive for such concerns, modern organizations

have, of necessity, turned to the deliberate creation and protection of a committed elite, dedicated to sustaining organizational well-being (Kanter, 1977a; Margolis, 1979). The company first creates such individuals by means of a socialization process (Presthus, 1962) and then attempts to gratify their needs by means of pay and status symbols (Kanter, 1977a,b; Lee, 1971) in order to maintain the exchange of mutual benefits.

In this sense, commitment captures the psychological bond suggested by Levinson's (1965) concept of reciprocity and Katz' (1964) internalization of organizational goals. It involves more than passive loyalty, which might be highly functional on a nonmanagerial level but is not sufficient to motivate the ingenuity and autonomy of the manager. It involves an active relationship with the organization such that individuals are willing to give something of themselves in order to contribute to the organization's well-being.

As an attitude, Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979) suggested that commitment was more global than job satisfaction, reflecting a general affective response to the organization as a whole, rather than specifically to one's job or part of it. They further believed it to be more stable over time, as an employee does not seriously re-evaluate his or her attachment to an overall organization in light of day to day vicissitudes in satisfaction. Commitment develops over time while job satisfaction reflects reactions to specific aspects of the work environment.

Commitment emphasizes attachment to the employing organization, including its goals and values, while satisfaction emphasizes the specific task environment where an employee performs his or her duties. (Mowday et al., 1979, p. 226)

### Commitment and Interdependence

The reciprocity involved in commitment is more clearly demonstrated by Scanzoni (1979), who places commitment within a decision-making framework. In this context, reciprocity is conceptualized as stabilizing and maintaining relationships, as Levinson (1965) has suggested, since relationships are based upon the equity of their exchange in light of comparable alternatives (Thibaut & Kelly, 1959).

According to Scanzoni, commitment is the highest level of interdependence, which is a progressive process. Whether in work organizations or in families, people--and here we must note that organizations and their actions are instruments of individuals (March & Olsen, 1976)--enter relationships based upon their attraction to one another because they perceive that they each have desired rewards or benefits or resources to offer one another. These are provided through an exchange process which is based upon both reciprocity and obligation. Gouldner (1960) noted that reciprocity contributes to the maintenance and stability of relationships because it engenders enduring obligations between participants. The performance of valued services leads to feelings of moral obligation to reciprocate for benefits received.

During this process, rules of exchange concerning inputs and outputs emerge. This occurs either through (a) spontaneous consensus (Fox, 1974) in which agreement is implicit with little or no conscious thought, (b) emergent consensus (Scanzoni, 1979) in which people discuss an issue and realize that they agree with one another, or (c) negotiation or bargaining in which disagreements are worked out. These rules must be altered when either party feels that they are not conducive to distributive justice (Homans, 1961), which is the perception that the exchange is equitable with respect to inputs made and outputs received.

Power is a concept which relates to the bargaining situation and is associated with the movement that takes place between the partners. Zartman (1976) defined bargaining power as the ability of one party to produce movement, re-evaluation, or a change in behavior in the other party. Each partner has power over the other by virtue of the relative amounts of resources each possesses and the alternative resources, outside the relationship, to which each has access (Heath, 1976). The symmetry or balance of bargaining power derives from a comparison of goals attained and costs incurred in the negotiation process (Kuhn, 1975).

According to Scanzoni (1979), the process of negotiating a change in the exchange relationship to make it more equitable will be influenced by the balance of resources at the outset and by the expectations of the parties during the process. If each believes the other to be interested in maximizing mutual rather than individualistic

interests, there will be flexibility in the negotiation and a willingness to compromise. Trust, as expressed in confidence that rewards will evolve, will augment this. On the other hand, if the parties distrust each other in that they believe each to be working toward individualistic ends, the negotiations will have an inflexible, rigid quality wherein the attainment of a more equitable balance of power is unlikely. In the first case, it is likely that the conflict which engendered the negotiation will be resolved with equity perceived by both parties and the power exercised seen as legitimate. In the latter case, the conflict is not resolved but is regulated by one party's control over the other. Power, in this case, is seen as illegitimate.

According to Buckley (1967), nonlegitimate power is the "control or influence over the actions of others to promote one's goals without their consent, against their 'will', or without their knowledge or understanding" (p. 186). In contrast, legitimate power, or authority, is "the direction or control of the behavior of others for the promotion of collective goals, based on some ascertainable form of their knowledgeable consent. Authority thus implies informed voluntary compliance" (p. 186).

Relationships expand to higher levels of interdependence by means of continued attractions, obligations, and negotiations which are successfully resolved. Such resolutions further reinforce the belief that each party is concerned with mutual goals and is trustworthy. Commitment is reached when people feel solidarity or cohesion with an

association. It is characterized by a high level of inputs which are consistently made over a period of time. Incorporated within this is the generalized perception that the present exchange relationship is substantially more beneficial than available alternatives.

Lee (1971) exemplified this in his study of 170 scientists when he found organizational identification or commitment to be a "function of the scientist's general satisfaction with the job, organization and profession" (p. 225). His results indicated that those with high organizational identification were generally more productive, better motivated and rewarded, more satisfied and less likely to leave the organization. In attempting to explain the bases of organizational identification, Lee stated that it "can be explained best by the employee's perceived opportunity for achievement in the organization, perceived prestige of the profession, overall relationship with management and prestige within the organization" (p. 225). Similar conclusions were reached by March and Simon (1963) and Patchen (1970), who indicated that commitment is based upon an exchange relationship in which individuals attach themselves to organizations in return for expected rewards or payments from the organization.

#### Equity vs. Exploitation

Waller (1939) anticipated these findings when he introduced the concept of exploitation in his description of the progression of relationships from superficial to more intimate. He felt that initial bargaining was based more upon individualistic than mutual interests.



According to his "principle of last interest", the party least concerned about the continuation of the relationship dictates the conditions of the association. These contributions provided a base for discussing exploitation in terms of one party unjustly taking more than giving and equity in terms of people being satisfied with their inputs relative to their outputs in the exchange relationship. Waller described an inequitable situation as one in which a sense of exploitation evolved. This would be tolerated until the exploiting party felt guilty or lost interest or until the exploited party initiated conflict to renegotiate the arrangement or ended the exchange relationship. The social psychologists expanded upon this by addressing the options of people who feel exploited but can neither correct the arrangement nor leave the exchange. These are the individuals who are expected to alter their cognitions.

The Context for the Decision-Making Process  
in the Industrial Organization

In looking at the kinds of decisions people will make about work effort, it is necessary to consider a number of factors which contribute to the context within which such decisions are made. Some of these are the meaning of work itself, the importance of work to the individual's sense of identity, the work setting and the philosophy of the organization, and the cultural norms influencing the individual. An individual's past experiences within the company also contribute in that they influence expectations of fairness, understanding, and cooperation in resolving differences. In general, they affect the degree to which

that individual trusts the motives of the company leaders and the kinds of assessments which are made regarding the benefits of the exchange.

### Work Role Centrality

Green (1968) distinguished between work and labor in terms of an individual's feeling of potency in achieving desired goals. According to Green, when a man labors, he performs a task mechanically. He responds to forces outside of himself which he has not set into motion and cannot control. "He is not master of himself so much as he is himself mastered" (p. 119). He performs an endless task. Work, on the other hand, refers not only to an activity, but to a completed task or product. For Green, the concept of work incorporates the capacity for termination and is in that way different from labor, which is endless, cyclical, or futile. It is the exercise of judgment, insight, craft, or style that constitutes the expression of the human being in his activities. To the extent that tasks do not require these capacities, they resemble labor and not work in that what is wanted is not the person but the fulfillment of a function.

Green elaborated by explaining that the contrast between work and labor is reflected in the individual's sense of power or impotence. Labor, being futile in that it is effort expended without the benefit of achievement, renders people impotent because their efforts do not permit them some accomplishment. Work, being the consequential expenditure of effort, has more than extrinsic or instrumental value in that its completion results in some worldly accomplishment. Individuals who work

find a sense of potency in their ability to achieve. The demand for competence, associated with achievement, serves to delineate capacities and limitations and provides a means of self-discovery and self-disclosure. For those who labor rather than work, this sense of meaning is absent in that what they do has a solely extrinsic utility. The job is not a meaningful part of the person's life; it merely has instrumental value as a way of securing necessary resources to permit something better to be done away from it. Work, in the sense that Green used it, is something done elsewhere rather than on the job.

Within this context, a job which has the nature of labor cannot be identified as a life interest. Dubin (1956) substantiated this in his study of central life interests of industrial workers. He found that their social experiences were segmented, with their center for intimate human relationships and their feelings of enjoyment, happiness, and worth located away from their workplace. In discussing the consequences of tasks which offer little freedom, provide no visible status, and permit little control over behavior, Wilensky (1961) found that work attachments were weak, work sharply split from leisure, and ties to the community and society uncertain. Kohn (1969), in his investigations of the effects of social class on parental behavior, found parental values to be the key to bridging the gap between position in the social system and child socialization. By values, he meant those characteristics considered to be desirable for children to have. Kohn's basic premise was that values are a function of the conditions of life associated with class position. These conditions were determined, he believed, by the

degree to which an individual's occupational sphere was conducive to or restrictive of self-direction. By self-direction, Kohn meant "the use of initiative, thought and independent judgment in work" (p. 140).

These studies suggest that when a job has the qualities of work, in accordance with Green's propositions, it becomes a central life interest by virtue of its contribution to the individual's sense of self. This is in line with the ideas of the symbolic interactionists who propose that people develop a sense of who they are by entering social situations, determining what their positions are within the situation, relative to those held by others, and behaving in accordance with their perceptions of the behavioral expectations, or role, appropriate to the position (Shibutani, 1955; Stryker, 1959). One thus "defines" the situation with respect to relative positions and behaves as he or she believes the position demands, validating the behavior in light of its fulfillment of perceived reference group expectations (Stryker, 1959).

Stryker (1968) later introduced the concept of a role identity which McCall and Simmons (1978) describe as "the character and role that an individual devises for himself as an occupant of a particular position ...his imaginative view of himself as he likes to think of himself being and acting as an occupant of that position" (p. 65). An individual is seen as having a number of role identities as a result of occupying more than one social position (Stryker, 1968). The salience or importance of a particular role identity is dependent upon the significance of the reference group whose expectations determine appropriate behavior as well as the degree of satisfaction derived from

successfully enacting the role (McCall & Simmons, 1978; Stryker, 1968). McCall and Simmons further pointed out that a role identity is not limited to the specific social situation from which it originated; it may exert an important influence upon daily life and outlook. Behavioral expectations derived from a reference group of significant others may thus be generalized, by virtue of the centrality of the role to general functioning or the salience of the role to the individual.

Shibutani addressed this in 1955 when he described a reference group as providing an organized perspective to an individual in a wide variety of social contexts by virtue of providing an outlook which becomes an orientation toward the world and is brought to bear on all situations. He did not attribute the different modes of life and outlook characteristics of different social classes to differential economic patterns. Instead, he attributed them to similarities in occupations and limitations set by income levels which dispose individuals to restricted communication channels or reference groups.

This analysis supports Green's (1968) differentiation between work and labor. It suggests that the role identity associated with employment may be increased within the salience hierarchy of the individual for whom it provides a rewarding context within which they may clarify and validate their sense of self while experiencing the power to control an aspect of their world effectively. Zablocki and Kanter (1976) substantiated that those for whom work is a central life interest live more occupation-dominated lifestyles, a finding which is not uncommon in the literature (Dubin, 1956; Kanter, 1977b; Kohn,

1969; Margolis, 1979; Shibutani, 1955; Sofer, 1970; Wilensky, 1961). Campbell et al. (1970), in their study of managerial behavior, noted that there are also consistent personality differences between managers and nonmanagers. Managers have stronger motives for achievement, power, status, income, and advancement and like to exercise initiative. This suggests that there may be different types of individuals aspiring to the kinds of jobs Green would characterize as work and those he would characterize as labor.

#### The Role of the Organization

In order to examine the development of commitment within the organizational setting, it is necessary to consider not only the meaning of work to the employee but also the meaning of the worker to the organization. These outlooks are essential components in determining the context within which the exchange relationship evolves.

Schein (1972) characterized the relationship between the employee and the organization as one in which the organization pays the employee, provides security and status and makes demands not too far removed from the specific job description. In return, the employee works hard, works efficiently, and refrains from criticizing the company or hurting its image. The organization expects the employee to see its demands as legitimate and the employee expects the organization to be fair in its dealings. If these expectations are not fulfilled, each party makes an effort to influence the other, according to Schein. Individuals do so by altering behavior; organizations influence by manipulating

resources.

Etzioni (1961) investigated some of these means of influence and the kinds of involvements which resulted and characterized organizations accordingly. When the organization was coercive in its use of resources, its members were seen as having an alienative involvement in that they were not psychologically immersed but rather felt compelled to retain membership. When the organization attempted to elicit involvement through the exchange of economic rewards for membership and performance, its members were seen as calculative in that they were involved in a strict exchange relationship, "a fair day's work for a fair day's pay." When the organization attempted to elicit involvement on the basis of the intrinsic rewards available in membership or performance, its members became morally involved because they intrinsically valued the organization and their jobs. Although the nature of the organization does not always elicit the kinds of involvements Etzioni postulated, he presented these as the workable or equitable psychological contracts while other pairings were seen as inequitable in that the balance of the exchange was tipped to one side or the other in violation of an equitable psychological contract.

In the growth of business and industry, there has been a movement away from coercive companies, empowered by the scarcity of jobs and low standard of living in society, to companies that are concerned about providing adequate economic rewards, job security, and benefits to their employees (Kanter, 1977a; Schein, 1972; Shostak, 1968). The growth of unions as well as the need for high quality performance from both

managers and workers has added impetus to this trend toward more utilitarian psychological contracts.

The exchange relationship sought is one characterized by the expectation that employees will like their work, become personally committed to organizational goals, and become creative in the service of these goals. The organization, for its part, provides the employees with more influence in decision making and reduces the role of management accordingly (Schein, 1972).

Ultimately, the relationship between the individual and the organization is interactive, unfolding through mutual influence and mutual bargaining to establish a workable psychological contract. We cannot understand the psychological demands if we look only to the individual's motivations or to organizational conditions and practices. The two interact in a complex fashion, requiring us to develop theories and research approaches which can deal with systems and interdependence phenomena. (Schein, 1972, p. 77)

#### The Socialization of Normative Behaviors

Kanter (1977a), in reviewing the development of business and industry, pointed out that in addition to a more equitable relationship with workers, this development has led to the evolution of the more highly valued, less easily replaced worker, for whom organizations attempt not only to enhance rewards but to render available alternatives irrelevant. She compares their behavior toward such individuals to Coser's (1974) description of "greedy institutions" in that they "seek exclusive and undivided loyalty and attempt to reduce the claims of competing roles and status positions on those they wish to encompass



within their boundaries" (Coser, 1974, p. 4).

This is accomplished by a socialization process in which the organization pressures individuals to weaken or not form ties with other institutions whose claims for allegiance might conflict with its own (Kanter, 1977a,b; Margolis, 1979; Presthus, 1962). An effort is made to insulate individuals from other relationships and anchor their identities within the occupational universe. The typical means used to accomplish such goals are travel time and family mobility (Kanter, 1977b; Margolis, 1979).

Blau (1964) describes this within the context of exchange and power. In order to be powerful, individuals must maintain control of the balance of resources. They must (a) remain indifferent to the benefits others can offer in an exchange, (b) bar others' access to alternative suppliers of the resource, (c) prevent others from resorting to coercive force to effect their demands, and (d) sustain people's needs for the benefits they have to offer. On the other hand, to escape another's attempts to influence or exert power, Blau indicated that individuals must (a) have a strategic resource to exchange through which they can create a reciprocal relationship, (b) find an alternative source for the desired resource, (c) acquire the ability to use coercive force, or (d) be able to do without the resource.

The organization, by means of selection, socialization, and benefits, slowly and systematically, if not overtly (Schein, 1968), takes the lead in this influence process by means of the imbalance of

resources inherent in the exchange (Becker, 1960; Buchanan, 1974; Katz, 1966; Margolis, 1979; Stevens, Beyer Trice, 1978). While its most strategic resource is money, it is primarily by means of manipulation of the sense of identity that commitment is most effectively inculcated in the highly valued worker by the company (Buchanan, 1974; Margolis, 1979).

Individuals develop a sense of identity within the organization by means of a socialization process in which they learn (a) the basic values and goals of the organization, (b) the means by which they may be attained, (c) individual job responsibilities, (d) acceptable behavior patterns for effective job performance, and (e) other guiding principles for maintaining the organization (Schein, 1968). In this way, individuals learn the level of normative involvement expected of their roles (Berlew & Hall, 1966; Buchanan, 1974; March & Olsen, 1976).

Presthus (1962) described this as an educational process and compares the organization to a school or a church. Employees are encouraged to accept the expounded ideals, attitudes, and beliefs without questioning their legitimacy or rationality. Through these teachings, individuals learn what is required of them within the setting and are provided with a means by which to locate themselves within time and space so as to participate successfully within the organization (Van Manaan, 1977).

As a new member, the individual is standing at the boundary of the organization, a very stressful location, and he is motivated to reduce this stress by becoming incorporated into the 'interior' of the company. Being thus motivated to be accepted by this new social system and to make sense of the ambiguity surrounding him he is more receptive to cues from his environment than he will ever be again, and what he learns at the beginning will become the core of his organizational identity. (Berlew & Hall, 1966, p. 210)

Sofer (1970) noted that when prospective managers and technical specialists take up their first major employments, systematic attempts are characteristically made by members of senior management to mold and influence their identities. During induction processes, new entrants are deliberately exposed to the company's mode of thinking and to the approach to company affairs of senior executives. Those individuals who question the aims and methods of the organization are considered to be on the wrong track.

During the early years, the fulfillment of these reference group expectations serves as the most basic building block of identity, as it gratifies important psychological needs and increases organizational attachment (Berlew & Hall, 1966; Buchanan, 1974). Formal efforts are also made, throughout the career (Sofer, 1970), through periodic courses and conferences which impart information and skills thought desirable for organizational ends. Colleagues are thereby able to share viewpoints and experiences and, in so doing, they increase their identification with the company through the reinforcement of shared values. Pressures toward behavioral conformity and toward the adoption of a particular style of interaction are thus imposed by the company and

accepted by the employee who wishes to maintain organizational membership. The effect of frequent transfers enhances this identity as there is little time to develop intimate enough relationships with others to provide the possibility of alternative reference groups (Kanter, 1977b; Margolis, 1979).

Incorporated into this socialization process is the establishment of the goal of upward mobility. Those who react positively to the bureaucratic situation and succeed in it are those who aspire to move ever higher on the corporate ladder (Presthus, 1962). The literature indicates that business executives value promotions very highly (Bray et al., 1974; Campbell et al., 1970; Kanter, 1977b; Margolis, 1979). Locke (1976) suggests that this reflects a very high degree of personal ambition:

The roots of the desire for promotion would include the desire for psychological growth (made possible by greater responsibility); the desire for justice (if one has earned the promotion); the desire for higher earnings; and the desire for social status (for those who base their self image on what others think of them) (p. 1323).

The desire for promotions is further fostered by uncertainty surrounding current status. Status anxiety is initiated by the veil of secrecy surrounding salaries and the lack of clarity regarding the criteria necessary for advancement within the corporate structure (Kanter, 1977b; Margolis, 1979; Presthus, 1962). Middle managers are additionally plagued by unclear criteria for performance evaluations which inculcate doubts, anxieties, and tensions and further intensify dependency, initiating a sense of helplessness (Sofer, 1970).

The organization thus offers such resources as money, pride, status, identity, security and generous benefits while the individual has only his services to offer in order to bring reciprocity into the exchange. In accordance with Blau's (1964) propositions, the company then nullifies the individual's resources by being independent of them through the creation of an abundance of individuals offering similar resources. In so doing, the organization renders any employee dispensable, if necessary, and maintains the imbalance of resources which permits it to have power over the employee.

Unfortunately, the specialization of products has contributed to the realistic difficulty in job changes for all but the most highly motivated. As managers get older, their training becomes more and more specific to the company they work for, increasing their value to that company and circumscribing their outside contacts still further (Margolis, 1979; Salancik, 1977). It is through this process that Becker's (1960) concept of "side-bets" becomes relevant. Side-bets are involved when people perceive associated benefits as positive elements in the exchange and, being loath to lose them, they decide to stay with the organization rather than seek an alternative one. Organizations facilitate side-bets through generous benefits such as pension programs, profit sharing programs, stock plans, etc. They additionally enhance the benefits of one's "contacts" in the company and the ease of operating within a familiar work group, while suggesting that the person who "moves around" may be somewhat undependable. This establishes an individual's reputation as a side-bet (Becker, 1960).

In summary, the organization establishes its influence over the individual by means of the socialization of normative behaviors, the manipulation of money, status, security, reputation, etc., and the barring of access to alternative sources of desired rewards. Even when this is equitable in nature, organizational needs have priority over individual needs. Such a situation provides fertile ground for exploitation, should it be necessary. Furthermore, as time moves on and the individual remains with the company, dependency increases as the acquisition of crucial resources becomes restricted to those that are provided by the organization. The exploitive potential of the organization begins with the imbalance of available resources; it is fostered by the dispensibility of the individual employee and the encouragement of reliance upon the company; and it is maintained by the individual's increasing dependency as time goes on.

#### Age as an Influence

The employee is subjected to still further pressures which stem from generalized cultural attitudes regarding the milestones of the successful executive and when one should reasonably expect them to be reached. One does not live forever, and unless an individual acquires the accoutrements of success in a timely fashion, it becomes less likely that they will ever be attained.

After reviewing the literature relating age and appropriate movement in a career, Sofer (1970) concluded that the link between them is evident in the efforts that have been made to identify career phases

and patterns. Citing the classifications and distinctions made by Buhler (1935), Chinoy (1955), and Miller and Form (1951), Sofer noted that in spite of occupational differences, most careers have phases of development which are characterized by particular age categories and incorporate the behaviors which are considered socially acceptable for a particular age. The implication is that something is wrong with the person who is in a career phase usually characteristic of people in a different life-cycle stage, especially if those people are younger than the individual. Alluding to Cain's (1964) term "age status asynchronization", Sofer underlined the point that particular occupational and organizational positions are appropriate to persons in particular age categories. People are in socially "appropriate" and personally reassuring situations when they are in the "right" career phase for their ages. They are in an embarrassing and discomforting situation when they are "too old" for their current career phase or where that career phase is discordant with their status elsewhere.

This suggests that there may be particular pressure upon managers who are in the process of moving up the corporate ladder but find themselves enmeshed in the limbo of "middle management" (Kanter, 1977b). They are not only prone to the anxieties of uncertain organizational criteria but to the societal pressures associated with age and success as well.

Although the research in adult development, which incorporates both sociological and psychological components, has been done primarily with the male, it is believed that females who participate in management careers are prone to very similar pressures and expectations as those of their male counterparts. The literature describes adulthood as being composed of periods of stability and periods of transition, during which reappraisal of the past and exploration of alternatives takes place (Gould, 1972; Levinson, 1977; Levinson et al., 1974; Vaillant, 1978). These are interspersed within a series of sequential developmental stages which begin at the end of adolescence.

The 20's are presented as a period of exploring possibilities and establishing the bases of adult life; this terminates with a careful appraisal of experiences at about age 30. The next period begins in the early 30's and is characterized by a focus upon settling down and making deeper commitments to work, family, and valued interests, as well as striving to advance and succeed.

This involves planning, striving, moving onward and upward, having an inner timetable that contains major goals and way stations and ages by which they must be reached (Levinson et al., 1974, p. 249).

Toward the end of this period, starting at about age 36-37, there is a phase so distinctive that Levinson (1977) has named it BOOM, which is an acronym for Becoming One's Own Man. It is characterized by the dual sensations of accomplishment and constraint. Individuals are aware of their dependency upon those who have assisted them in achieving their



accomplishments but feel that they are not sufficiently on their own. They are impatient to be free of their mentors and anxious to move from junior to senior membership in the world. This sense of constraint or oppression is not limited to work. It may also be experienced in marriage and other relationships.

During the BOOM phase, people clarify their goals and intensify their efforts to advance. If they succeed in achieving crucial aspirations, they experience the sensations described above and continue their progress into the next developmental period. On the other hand, BOOM may initiate a re-evaluation of aspirations either because they fail to fulfill expectations or because they are unattainable. Individuals may seek to radically change their lives in the sequence Levinson (1977) calls Breaking Out. This may involve such decisive acts as changing one's job, divorce, relocation, etc.

These changes are hardly underway when the individual enters the next period, the Mid-Life Transition, which initiates still further efforts to question and improve one's life (Levinson et al., 1974; Levinson, 1977). Individuals in their late 30's are highly concerned with achieving the goals they have set for themselves, as a means of validating their sense of self-worth. In their early 40's, undergoing the Mid-Life Transition, even people who successfully achieve their goals begin to examine themselves and the direction their lives are taking. They become concerned with whether their goals are valid. They question the meaning of their successes and failures and may reorganize their priorities to gain more of what they feel they really want out of

life.

Somewhere in the middle 40's, this transition moves to a period of restabilization during which an effort is made to resolve the old issues and move on in life. Consequently, the old issues may be perceived in a new light so that commitments may be renewed or new choices entered into.

The late 40's are portrayed as another period of settling down (Gould, 1972, 1975) and friends and loved ones become more important while ambition becomes diluted with the sense that major career and personality changes are not likely to occur. There is an effort made toward a reconciliation of what is with what might have been. The 50's follow with a similar acceptance of reality and a focus upon what one has rather than what one is not likely to attain.

#### An Overview

The literature indicates that the general organizational context within which employees make decisions about work effort is one which is different in meaning to different levels of workers. While the outlook of the nonmanager is one in which work is instrumental in obtaining the benefits life has to offer, managers derive much of their identity from their successes and accomplishments at work. This is partially due to their own needs and attitudes and partially a result of the deliberate manipulation of these needs and attitudes by the organization, in its effort to maintain control of its more valued and less easily replaced workers. The organization's health is dependent upon the attainment of

a strong sense of commitment from its managers. As a result, the exchange relationship between those who make policies and those who are subject to them, on an executive level, is an extremely important one.

In addition to reporting motivational differences between managers and nonmanagers, related to the salience of the work role, the literature also contains references to motivational differences within managerial ranks, related to the position of the work role (Campbell et al., 1970). These differences are augmented by psychosocial pressures which dictate a timetable for success or failure (Gould, 1972, 1975; Levinson, 1977; Levinson et al., 1974; Vaillant, 1978). These kinds of contextual variables serve as a framework within which decisions are made.

Following Strauss (1978), Scanzoni points out that the context influences the decision-making process and that both of them influence the outcomes. The context may be partitioned into both tangible and intangible components. Tangible discrepancies between parties are those related to differences in rank, status, and goals, while intangible components are more specific to the context and influence the attitudes of the parties involved. The literature contains references to such variables in the work on organizational climate (Litwin & Stringer, 1968; Pritchard & Karasick, 1973; Schneider, 1975; Taguiri, 1968), which refers to an individual's perception of the situation, as distinguished from job satisfaction literature, which deals with evaluations or affective responses to the situation. Pritchard and Karasick (1973) define organizational climate as a "relatively enduring

quality of an organization's internal environment distinguishing it from other organizations; (a) which results from the behavior and policies of members of the organization, especially management; (b) which is perceived by members of the organization; (c) which serves as a basis for interpreting the situation; and (d) acts as a source of pressure for directing activity" (p. 126).

Climate perceptions thus serve as a frame of reference the individual may utilize when defining situations and determining appropriate behavior. Scanzoni (1979) identifies the variables involved as those having to do with feelings of trust, expectations of fairness, belief in the mutual focus of maximum joint profit rather than that of maximum individual profit, and the expectation of empathy or understanding from the other party. Such factors are based upon past bargaining history of the partners, both with each other and with others, and an awareness of the partner's normative way of interacting in negotiations.

In sum, we are discussing the expectation of equity or exploitation by one party of the other. According to Scanzoni, that expectation determines how each partner will behave toward the other with respect to the flexibility of ideas and the willingness to make allowances and compromises. Such attitudes often determine whether the conflict being negotiated will be resolved or regulated. Within an organizational setting, where resources are not balanced and the organization always has the potential to exploit, the resolution of conflict is something which must be overtly desired and sought, because the regulation of the

conflict can so easily be attained and maintained by coercion.

In addition to establishing the frame of reference for conflict resolution, the attitudes reflected in the organizational policies convey the nature of the psychological contract into which the organization is willing to enter. As Schein (1972) has pointed out, most policy makers have come to the conclusion that utilitarian/rational contracts result in the most productive relationships with respect to both the needs of the organization and the needs of the employee.

It is my central hypothesis that whether a person is working effectively, whether he generates commitment, loyalty, and enthusiasm for the organization and its goals, and whether he obtains satisfaction from his work, depends to a large measure on two conditions:

(1) the degree to which his own expectations of what the organization will provide him and what he owes the organization match what the organization's expectations are of what it will give and get; (2) assuming there is agreement on expectations, what actually is to be exchanged -- money in exchange for time at work; social-need satisfaction and security in exchange for work and loyalty; opportunities for self-actualization and challenging work in exchange for high productivity, quality work and creative effort in the service of organizational goals; or various combinations of these and other things. (p.77)

### The Job and the Career

#### Movement Up the Hierarchy

Since a career involves movement through a set of related positions through time (Sofer, 1970; Van Maanan, 1977), progress within the bureaucratic structure is a central concern of the individual (Bray et al., 1974; Campbell et al., 1970; Kanter, 1977b; Lawler, 1973;

Margolis, 1979; Sofer, 1970). Such progress is indicated by movement within the company, dictated by the fact that people in executive positions (or in a series of executive roles) may need to make different sorts of contributions at different phases of their careers. At one stage, they may be full of suggestions for innovation and capable of pressing changes through; at another, they may be content to contribute to tasks demanding multiple contributions from colleagues; and at still another, they may find themselves in the role of counselor to younger colleagues. Changing demands and policies taken by the organization require a wide range of inputs from the executive, whom the organization attempts to prepare by "seasoning".

The company had a sophisticated system of career planning and management development. It kept close track of its middle management ranks to single out the people with the best potential for advancement up the corporate ladder, and it made a deliberate effort to broaden these people in knowledge and experience by rotating them through assignments, moving them across departments, sending them off to management courses, and the like. (Beckhard, 1977, p. 149)

The company permits people to familiarize themselves with a wide variety of functions by transferring them frequently from one position to another (Kanter, 1977a,b; Litwak, 1960; Margolis, 1979). As a result, individuals on the rise in the company may literally be people on the move. All movements, however, are not to more senior positions. The route of the upwardly mobile person is one which includes lateral as well as vertical moves in a zigzag path upward (Beckhart, 1977; Sofer, 1970). In his study of British executives, Sofer (1970) found that the

men were preoccupied with organizational advancement. They used their rate of movement and the age appropriateness of their positions as parameters for assessing themselves relative to immediate colleagues and those in comparable positions and status in other organizations. He interpreted this concern with advancement as a factor not only in the individual's desire to enhance his organizational prestige, but, more importantly, as a crucial component of how the men felt about themselves relative to their peers. He utilized Bott's (1954) concept of an internalized reference group, which refers to the incorporated norms and values derived from the primary membership groups to which one belongs and for whose standards one performs. Sofer concluded that promotions within the organization provide opportunities to meet or exceed standards of internalized reference groups and thereby serve to reinforce peoples' sense of self-worth and verify that they have lived up to the identities they have attempted to establish for themselves.

The prospect for advancement in any enterprise has, however, objective limits. On the managerial level, these limits are approached as opportunities become fewer with movement up the pyramidal structure (Shostak, 1968; Sofer, 1970). Furthermore, not everyone who attempts to move up succeeds, even at lower levels. Disappointment for some is thus inevitable (Bray et al., 1974). It is in this context that status ambiguity serves a constructive purpose, rather than merely causing anxiety (Margolis, 1979). This is because these individuals may be given horizontal moves or special assignments of ambiguous levels so as to prevent them and their colleagues from recognizing the moves as

checks upon upward mobility (Margolis, 1979; Shostak, 1968; Sofer, 1970). In this way, there is little loss of self-esteem, and morale and willingness to participate are kept intact.

Sofer's (1970) findings indicate that when people recognize that their careers have been halted at a point which they consider to be premature, they react largely in terms of their attitudes to work and to the employing organization. He explains that for many people, a career disappointment constitutes a disturbance in self-conception or felt identity because it breaks the line of consistency between what they hoped to become, what they now are, and what they can reasonably still become. When such career disappointments occur early, the young people re-assess and reclassify themselves. While these disappointments are setbacks, early in a career, they are not felt as acutely as when they occur further along. Middle-level executives who have confidently expected to continue to rise will be disturbed if expected promotions cease to come and they will suffer quite profoundly at the point where they realize that they have been proceeding on mistaken assumptions about their own identities (Margolis, 1979; Shostak, 1968; Sofer, 1970).

Career lines grow vague, men become frozen in dead end posts, and individuals come too late to realize how long ago their careers had reached a plateau. (Shostak, 1968, p. 354)

One source of pain is the shock of the realization that one is not going to assume the role which has been expected and rehearsed; a second source is the loss of face that is experienced with colleagues



and the sense of having been betrayed by superiors; a third source of pain is the revision of expectancies one must engage in with family and friends in order to justify the occupational alterations (Sofer, 1970).

#### Dealing with Disappointment

When people fail to reach the level they expected, equity theory postulates that the environment is perceived in terms of the disparity between what they feel they invested in the job and the benefits they reaped (Adams, 1963). The inequity produces cognitive dissonance which the individual seeks to eliminate or reduce by means of changes in the amount or quality of productions, changes in cognitions, or withdrawal from the exchange situation.

Festinger (1961) discussed insufficient rewards within the context of the theory of cognitive dissonance and suggested that individuals may come to value activities for which they have been inadequately rewarded. He analyzed the situation in which people have voluntarily done something for which the reward obtained is inadequate. The dissonance created between these two cognitions may be reduced if the individuals can persuade themselves that they really like the behavior in which they are engaged or if they enhance for themselves the value of what they obtained as a result of their actions. Alternatively, the individuals can change their behavior, as Adams (1963) noted above. This is the most common resolution of dissonance. An individual obtains information which is dissonant with his behavior and modifies the behavior to better fit the environment. But what about the situation in which this means

of reducing dissonance is unavailable and the individual believes that behavior cannot be altered, despite the discomfort it engenders? It is in this situation that the individual, according to Festinger, resorts to one of the previously mentioned means of reducing the dissonance.

The middle-aged man will find it difficult to divest himself of his occupational identity. Unlike the younger man, he cannot regard this as provisional, tentative, experimental. His career and identity commitments are, for practical purposes, irreversible and there is in reality less time for him to change himself. He has committed himself to an occupational identity in his own eyes and those of others. Since any occupational role involves relations with others, commitment to an occupation is simultaneously commitment to an image of himself that he feels obligated to sustain. His occupational identity has been built up over a period of years during which his image of what he is and what he may legitimately expect to become has coincided with the perceptions of others who are significant to him. A disruption of this coincidence is likely to cause internal stress in his whole framework for judging himself, especially in relation to others. (Sofer, 1970, p. 70)

It is to this individual that Weiner and Vardi (1980) refer when they ask how the highly committed person copes with and reacts to prolonged personal disappointment with the organization; and it is to this kind of individual that Festinger (1961) refers when he alludes to people who feel insufficiently rewarded who cannot leave the situation to reduce the dissonance engendered by it and therefore must modify behavior or change cognitions.

Morse (1953) found that new employees were very satisfied with their jobs and chances of advancement until the "rosy glow" wore off. Those who had been with the company a number of years, and had not advanced as expected were the most dissatisfied, but those who were

there the longest were found to be satisfied. She concluded that:

The employee with many years of service is generally doing sufficiently varied and skilled work to be quite satisfied with it and, in addition, security has probably become an important need for him. It is likely that the very high type of security that the company offers is one of his reasons for liking the company. His job content and job security are probably sufficiently important to take precedence over his feelings of dissatisfaction at not receiving a higher salary and a higher job status in the company. (pp. 77-78)

Staw's (1976) analysis of intrinsic and extrinsic sources of motivation provides theoretical clarity to these issues. He defined extrinsic motivation as action due to environmental force and intrinsic motivation as action due to personal force. Changes in cognitions are explained by incorporating these concepts with Rotter's variables of "internal and external control", which characterize the degree to which people feel they are in control of their own lives or are controlled by their environments, and with Bem's (1967a,b) extrapolation of self-perception theory from attribution theory. Self-perception theory suggests that people work backward from their own actions in inferring sources of causation. They seek out the probable cause of action. Thus, if external pressures are so high that they would ordinarily cause individuals to perform a given task regardless of the internal characteristics of the activity itself, the individuals might infer that their behavior is extrinsically motivated. Alternatively, they might infer that they are intrinsically motivated if external reward contingencies are extremely low or nonsalient. The theory suggests that in situations in which there is insufficient justification for continued

behavior by virtue of the fact that the task has neither great intrinsic nor extrinsic compensation, individuals may cognitively reevaluate the intrinsic characteristics of the task by deciding that they have more merit than was originally believed, in order to justify or explain their own behavior (Staw, 1976). As a result, the dependence upon extrinsic rewards is reduced and satisfaction is derived from the task itself. This may be especially useful in situations in which there is a limited supply of extrinsic inducements or when individuals do not value those that are readily available (Katz, 1964; Staw, 1976).

Staw related this analysis to organizational commitment by using it to distinguish between attitudinal commitment and behavioral commitment. Attitudinal commitment is viewed in terms of the extent to which employees identify with an organization and wish to remain a member. This definition is similar to the one developed by Scanzoni (1979) relating commitment to interdependence. Behavioral commitment, on the other hand, coincides more to Becker's (1960) description of "side-bets". Employees are behaviorally rather than attitudinally committed to an organization when they feel unable to leave because they would lose too much. It is behavioral commitment that keeps an employee in an exchange in which the organization is perceived as inequitable. In this situation, Staw suggests that in order for employees to maintain a high level of performance, they must justify their behavior to reduce the anxiety of dissonance; it is for this reason that they change their cognitions to accentuate the value of intrinsic rather than extrinsic rewards.

Although the distinction between attitudinal and behavioral commitment has been noted by others (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972; Stevens, Beyer & Trice, 1978) in the literature, little attention has been paid to its implications (Salancik, 1977). Most of the studies treat commitment as the desire to remain with an organization because one is attitudinally tied to it (Buchanan, 1974; Lee, 1971; March & Simon, 1958; Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979; Porter, Steers, Mowday & Boulian, 1974; Steers, 1977) and neglect the possibility that necessity rather than sincerity may be the basis for this attitude. This assumption has been basic to the findings that commitment increases with both age and job satisfaction (See Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972) as well as the report of a weak relationship between commitment and subsequent job performance (Steers, 1977). In light of Staw's (1976) contributions, one may re-interpret the relationship of age and job satisfaction to commitment by considering the ramifications of behavioral commitment, as noted above. Similarly, Steers' results cannot be accepted without noting that they are based upon attitudinal commitment with no control for behavioral commitment. In this instance, the distinction is critical, as one would expect differential performance from an individual who was strongly identified with an organization and an individual who only remained with the organization because it was too costly to leave.

The literature suggests that individuals who find themselves behaviorally committed when they feel there are insufficient extrinsic rewards will either change their cognitions, as noted, focusing upon intrinsic rewards, or change their behavior to perform at a minimal

normative level (Adams, 1963,1965; Festinger, 1961; Staw, 1976). In the first instance, the individual has become attitudinally committed by readjusting cognitions. It is in the second instance that the individual remains behaviorally committed. One cannot expect the same level of performance from individuals who are psychologically involved in their jobs and individuals who are only interested in doing what is necessary to maintain job security.

There is far too little empirical work on the nature of commitment to jobs, and how features of the work situation lead to or detract from feelings of personal responsibility for work. (Salancik, 1977)

#### Objectives of the Study

This study was designed to answer the questions posed by Weiner and Vardi (1980) regarding the response of the committed but disappointed worker and to address Buchanan's (1974) observation that there is a need to understand how commitment is maintained at mature career stages; it was additionally designed to bring the study of response to inequity out of the laboratory and into the practical world, as Katzell (1980) indicates needs to be done; and lastly, it was designed to consider the dynamics of the interaction of the individual and the work organization, as Schein (1972) has suggested.

The literature cited suggests that the individuals most frequently subjected to the stresses and strains of the industrial organization are the managers. Managers are the ones oriented toward rising within the hierarchy; they are vulnerable to status ambiguity and its associated

anxieties; they are the ones for whom work is central to the development of identity and a sense of self-worth; they are the ones uprooted and moved around most often, increasing their dependency upon the company; and they are the ones for whom the societal pressures associated with age norms for success are highly relevant and strongly sensed.

It is suggested that for this group of people, it is not the job, per se, but rather how the job relates to the career that is of importance. The job is but one step in the hierarchy of promotions which comprise the career. As such, it is suggested that for the manager, the perception of the company as an equitable source of appropriate rewards is of greater significance than the rewards inherent within the tasks of a specific job.

It is further suggested that how individuals cope with the reality of career disappointments is related to societal age norm pressures. Young people who are managers may feel free to move from one organization to another, should they find themselves in an organization perceived to be inequitable with respect to rewards. The older manager, however, will handle disappointment differently. According to Margolis (1979) and Shostak (1968), such individuals will initially not recognize their failure to move up, in an effort, perhaps, to ward off the disappointment associated with such a realization. When, however, such recognition inevitably comes, these individuals will find themselves with too much invested in their organizational commitments to look for other jobs. As Staw (1976) noted, they are behaviorally committed; or

as Becker (1960) points out, they have too many side-bets.

Weiner and Vardi (1980) further asked how the highly committed individual deals with repeated career disappointments. It was the aim of this study to investigate whether older individuals, who have been committed and hard working all of their lives, in their efforts to move up in the company, deal with such disappointments by altering their cognitions. It was expected that instead of focusing upon the extrinsic benefits associated with promotions, these individuals would focus upon the intrinsic benefits associated with the importance of their particular jobs. They would decide that what they do is really valuable and that in doing it they derive a high degree of satisfaction. They are at a stage of adult development when they are more accepting of themselves and reconciled to the reality of their achievements. They have, as Gould (1972,1975) and Levinson (1977) suggested, reevaluated their assets and rationalized their limitations and are anxious to get on with their lives.

#### Hypotheses

The following hypotheses, implicit in the above discussion, were tested in this study:

Hypothesis 1. The work effort of the manager in an organizational setting, as it is reflected in occupational involvement, will increase as both specific job satisfaction and perception of the equity of the company increase.



Hypothesis 2. For young managers, the perception of equity will contribute more than job satisfaction to the explained variability of job involvement.

Hypothesis 3. For older managers, specific job satisfaction will contribute more than equity to the explained variability of job involvement.

Hypothesis 4. For older managers who indicate average or less than average job involvement, perceived equity will contribute more than job satisfaction to the explained variability of job involvement.

### CHAPTER III

#### METHODOLOGY

Research in the area of work motivation has traditionally compared work effort to job satisfaction. This study adds to the existing body of knowledge by (a) distinguishing between intrinsic rewards derived from job-task satisfaction and extrinsic rewards derived from equitable treatment by the organization, (b) utilizing managers rather than nonmanagers as subjects, since the literature indicates that managers have more psychological involvement in their jobs than nonmanagers, and (c) looking at work effort as it relates to age.

#### Procedure

This study was based upon survey research in which a questionnaire was administered to a group of 477 middle-level managers from five organizations. Three of the organizations were industrial in nature and two of them were governmental agencies composed of civil servants. The questionnaire investigated attitudes toward the company, with respect to the equity of treatment received, toward satisfactions derived from the job, and toward the amount of effort the individual customarily exerted in performing his or her job. The independent variables used were job satisfaction, age, and perceived organizational equity. The dependent variable was work effort, as it was reflected in occupational involvement.

A preliminary letter was sent to all subjects ten days prior to the distribution of the questionnaire, indicating that the survey was to be conducted with the company's endorsement. The questionnaires were then distributed through interoffice mail procedures. Each packet contained a cover letter from the investigator, the questionnaire, and an addressed, stamped envelope in which to return it, once completed. See Appendix A for copies of the preliminary letter, the cover letter, and the questionnaire.

#### The Sample

Middle managers were delineated as people who were at least second-level supervisors. At the upper end of the continuum, they were individuals who had moved to high level positions but still had enough potential mobility to be able to hope realistically for promotions. In general, an effort was made to include employees who considered themselves to be middle-level managers with the potential for advancement. The possibility of disappointment implicit in such potential provided the degree of uncertainty essential to the area of investigation.

Prior to the selection of subjects, the investigator discussed these criteria with a liaison person in each organization. Appropriate adaptations were made in order to tailor the study to the structure of the organization (e.g., as when a middle manager held a particular position in which he or she supervised no one). Although the literature cited was specific to the organizational and societal stresses exerted

upon men, women were included in the survey. Each company then selected its own subjects, based upon the criteria agreed upon, and sent them the preliminary letter. The investigator subsequently provided the required number of survey packets to be distributed. In this way, the anonymity of the subjects was complete. The investigator had no knowledge of the identities of those solicited, and because the participants responded directly to the investigator, the company had no information about those electing to participate.

There were 560 questionnaires distributed and 477 returned, providing a response rate of 85%. Only 331 of the subjects who participated in the survey were asked about their sex. Of these, 63 were female and 268 were male. It is believed that there were no female participants among the 146 subjects who were not asked to indicate sex. The average age of the group was 42.8 years and they indicated an average of 14.9 years of service with their respective organizations.

Of the 468 subjects who responded to the question about educational level, only 137 of them had earned less than a college degree. Of the rest, 77 held Master's degrees and 31 held Ph.D. degrees. The most frequently indicated area of specialty was scientific (157 participants) with business/management indicated next in frequency (110 participants). This was consistent with the nature of the organizations involved.

### Research Instruments

Work Effort. This variable was the dependent variable. It was measured by the Lodahl and Kejner (1965) Job Involvement Scale which consists of 20 items designed to reflect an individual's psychological identification with his or her work, as well as the degree to which the job is central to a sense of identity (Lawler & Hall, 1970). Rabinowitz and Hall, in their 1977 review, described the job-involved person as one for whom work is a "central life interest" (Dubin, 1956), who is very much personally affected by the entire job situation, including the work itself, the peer group, and the company. They characterized the non-job-involved people as those who do the majority of their living off the job, for whom work is not as important a part of psychological life; their interests are in other areas and their sense of identity is not greatly affected by the kind of work they do or how well they do it. It should be noted, however, that job-involved workers have not been found to be necessarily happy with their jobs (Guion, 1958); in fact, very angry people may be just as involved in their jobs as very happy ones (Lodahl & Kajner, 1965).

Such a definition captures an individual's motivation to perform effectively in that only good performance is instrumental in obtaining the rewards which increase the individual's self-esteem (Lodahl & Kejner, 1965; Vroom, 1962). It also captures the reciprocity of the "psychological contract" (Levinson, 1965) and the interdependency basic to commitment (Porter et al., 1974; Scanzoni, 1979), because although it is based upon stable values brought to the job, it is also based upon

attitudes which are socialized and influenced by the job situation itself (Lawler & Hall, 1970; Lodahl & Kejner, 1965; Vroom, 1962).

Noting that Schwyhart and Smith (1972) and others found job involvement to increase with age, Rabinowitz and Hall (1977) pointed out that still others (Gurin, Veroff, & Feld, 1960; Mannheim, 1975) found no significant age difference. They concluded by suggesting, as was suggested in the design of this study, that the critical factor in involvement may not be age or time, per se, but the kinds of work rewards and satisfactions the person receives over time. While this touches upon the role of equity relative to job involvement, the research fails to recognize and consider the effects of variations in the availability of viable alternatives.

Job involvement has also been found to be associated with job satisfaction when job satisfaction is measured by the Job Description Index (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969). Although the correlations are not high, four of the five satisfaction variables which are measured by the JDI were associated at the .01 level: satisfaction with the work itself ( $r=.29$ ), promotions ( $r=.38$ ), supervision ( $r=.38$ ), and people ( $r=.37$ ) (Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977). Furthermore, Lodahl and Kejner (1965) found that, for a sample of engineers, job involvement loaded on the same factors as the Job Description Index items. Rabinowitz and Hall pointed out that the relationships noted are only of moderate strength and agreed with Lodahl and Kejner's comment that "it would not be justified to conclude from these findings that job involvement is the same as job satisfaction, although for engineers they appear to have

some of the same determinants" (1965, p.32).

Despite the relationship noted, the scale was used for a variety of reasons. First of all, it has established measures of validity and reliability. The scale was able to differentiate between students who had high and low job involvement ( $F= 4.84, p<.01$ ) (Lodahl & Kejner, 1965). It has already been pointed out that the scale correlates significantly with other, better understood variables related to job satisfaction. Lodahl and Kejner (1965) discussed various findings which establish the fact that while correlations are not extremely high, there is evidence that the Job Involvement Scale has concurrent validity with other related scales. The reliability figures are similarly of adequate rather than high caliber, ranging from a corrected (Spearman-Brown formula) split half correlation of .72 for a sample of 137 nurses to .80 for a sample of 70 engineers to a high of .89 for a sample of 46 students (Lodahl & Kejner, 1965).

Of equal importance was the fact that the scale had substantive value for this study in that it was conceptually in accordance with the theoretical rationale of the study. The fact that it was related to job satisfaction for engineers and it was correlated with age for nurses ( $r=.26, p<.01$ ) established its relationship to two of the independent variables selected for study; it was conceptually related, by definition, to commitment, which is dependent upon a high level of perceived equity. At the same time, the noted relationships were of such small magnitude, despite their significance, that none accounted for more than 15% of the variation in the dependent variable. In

addition, job satisfaction, as measured by the Job Description Index (Smith et al., 1969), is an ambiguous term since it does not distinguish between intrinsic and extrinsic sources of satisfaction.

Operationally, job involvement was measured on the questionnaire by question 10 which included the entire Lodahl and Kejner scale. The measurement scale was reversed for all of the statements except 10(j), (m), (n), (p), (q), (r), and (s) so that an increase in the magnitude of the response would reflect a higher degree of job involvement. The individual responses were summed to obtain the Job Involvement score.

Age. Age was included as an independent variable to determine whether young managers, who presumably feel able to leave an exchange, would behave differently from older managers, who might not feel able to leave. The choice of age categories (when age was not treated as a continuous variable), 38 or younger and 48 and older, was based upon the stages outlined in the adult development literature. This literature suggested that as a man approaches 38, he feels increasing pressure to attain and advance. Later, in the middle to late 40's, there is another transition which is characterized by greater self-acceptance and an attempt to resolve issues and move on with life. It was assumed that women within an organizational setting were subject to similar pressures. Concurrently, Becker (1960) pointed out that the young man has fewer benefits to lose if he leaves an organization than an older man who has accrued too many "side bets" to make job changes practical.



Job Satisfaction. The measurement of this variable was drawn mainly from the scale used by the Survey of Working Conditions (1971) because its focus is strictly upon the intrinsic qualities inherent in the specific job-task, not to be confused with the extrinsic rewards that job performance may be instrumental in obtaining. While the wording of the questions selected for inclusion was maintained for the most part, the scale of measurement was changed to a Likert scale and additional questions were added to address the concerns of this study more specifically.

The statements relating to job satisfaction were incorporated in question 9 on the questionnaire. Responses to 9(a), (c), (d), (h), (i), and (j) were reversed so that a high score indicated a high level of job satisfaction. The individual responses were summed to obtain the Job Satisfaction score.

Perception of Organizational Equity. The questions addressed to the measurement of this variable were formulated by the researcher, based upon Scanzoni's (1981) questionnaire and the Occupational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) of Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979). The aim was to determine whether an individual perceived his organization to be equitable with respect to providing adequate and appropriate rewards or perceived it to be exploitive in its failure to do so.

The statements measuring the perception of equity were incorporated in questions 4, 5, 6, and 7 on the questionnaire. Of these, the responses to all but 4(d), (g), (h), and (j) and 6(b), (c), (d), (f),

and (g) were reversed so that their increasing magnitude represented an increasing level of perceived equity. The scores were summed to obtain the Equity score.

#### Methods of Data Analysis

Multiple regression techniques were the primary methods of analysis, as they were the best suited to the data and concerns of the study. They were augmented by t-test comparisons and product moment correlation coefficients, where appropriate.

Hypothesis 1 was tested by a multiple regression analysis to determine the degree to which the model utilized explained the variability of the dependent variable and whether the independent variables selected had the predicted effects. Hypotheses 2 and 3 were tested by separate multiple regression analyses for each age group to determine how variations in age contributed to the explained variability of the dependent variable. Hypothesis 4 was tested by using a multiple regression analysis which controlled both age and work effort level in order to examine the relative influence of the independent variables upon the dependent variable for that portion of the sample addressed by the hypothesis.

It was the additional analyses performed to examine all relevant information provided by the data which utilized the other statistical procedures discussed above.

## CHAPTER IV

## RESULTS

This chapter presents the results of the statistical analyses of the data and interprets these findings in relation to the hypotheses which were tested. The hypotheses will be discussed consecutively; some additional analyses are also presented at the end of the chapter.

The statistical programs used to analyze these data were the SPSS and the SAS packages. The procedures performed were product moment correlations, multiple regression analyses, analysis of variance, and t-test comparisons.

Hypothesis 1: The work effort of the manager in an organizational setting, as it is reflected in occupational involvement, will increase as both specific job satisfaction and perception of organizational equity increase.

A multiple regression analysis was performed to test this hypothesis. The independent variables were perceived equity, job satisfaction, and age. The dependent variable was job involvement. As shown in Table 1, the results indicate that a model which contained these predictor variables obtained an F value of 19.88, accounting for a significant portion of the variability of the job involvement scores ( $p < .0001$ ).

Table 1  
Multiple Regression Analysis of the Influence  
of Job Satisfaction, Perceived Equity,  
and Age Upon Job Involvement

Source of variation	Degrees of Freedom	Sums of Squares	Mean Square	F	p	R <sup>2</sup>
Model	3	2098.44	699.44	19.88	.0001	.114
Error	462	16256.99	35.19			
Corrected Total	465	18355.44				

The actual percentage of variability explained was 11.4% ( $R^2=.114$ ) which is not unusual for social science data in which an attempt was made to predict the behavior of 477 subjects with 3 independent variables.

By examining the contribution of each of the independent variables to the model (See Table 2), it was found that, for the overall sample of organizational managers, only job satisfaction provided a significant contribution ( $p<.0001$ ) to the explained variability of job involvement. The direction of the regression coefficient associated with this variable was positive, indicating that the strongest relationship characterized by this model was positive in direction. Both equity and age were nonsignificant ( $p<.98$  and  $p<.99$  respectively) in terms of explaining the variability of job involvement within this model. Based upon these findings, hypothesis 1 was accepted.

Table 2  
Relative Importance of the Independent  
Variables to the Model

Source of Variation	Type IV			Regression	
	<u>df</u>	Sums of Squares	F	Coefficients	<u>p</u>
Job Satisfaction	1	1030.12	29.27	.31	.0001
Equity	1	.02	0.00	.0006	.98
Age	1	.005	0.00	-.0004	.99

Note. The Type IV Sums of Squares refer to the variability unique to each of the independent variables within the model.

It was further hypothesized that equity and job satisfaction would be age related to job involvement in the following ways:

Hypothesis 2: For young managers, the perception of equity will contribute more than job satisfaction to the explained variability of job involvement.

In order to test this hypothesis, 169 managers who were 38 or younger were selected and their scores utilized. The average age of members of this group was 33.9. As can be seen in Table 3, the results of this multiple regression analysis were not very different from the overall analysis shown in Table 1. The model was significant ( $F=7.28$ ;  $p<.001$ ) in explaining variability in job involvement scores, and, as can be seen in Table 4, job satisfaction had a significant effect ( $p<.01$ )

Table 3  
Multiple Regression Analysis of the Influence  
of Job Satisfaction and Perceived Equity Upon  
the Job Involvement of Younger Managers

Source of Variation	Degrees of Freedom	Sums of Squares	Mean Square	F	p	R <sup>2</sup>
Model	2	514.56	257.28	7.28	.001	.08
Error	166	5867.44	35.35			
Corrected Total	168	6382.00				

Table 4  
Relative Contributions of the Independent Variables  
in Explaining the Job Involvement of the Younger Managers

Source of Variation	<u>df</u>	Type IV Sums of Squares	F	p
Job Satisfaction	1	232.76	6.59	.01
Equity	1	2.17	0.06	.80

upon job involvement while the influence of perceived equity was not significant. These findings indicate that the young managers did not respond differently from the larger group of managers with respect to the factors which affected their level of job involvement.

It was thought that the results may have been due to the relatively young age of the managers. Therefore, in order to further refine the testing of this hypothesis, another multiple regression analysis was performed using the responses of the 62 managers who were 36 to 38 years old. Neither job satisfaction ( $p < .11$ ) nor equity ( $p < .84$ ) was significant in explaining the variability of job involvement for this latter group. Hypothesis 2 was therefore rejected.

Hypothesis 3: For older managers, specific job satisfaction will contribute more than equity to the explained variability of job involvement.

There were 126 managers who were 48 and older. The average age of this group was 53.8. A multiple regression analysis of the scores of these managers (See Table 5) once again confirmed the significance of the model using job satisfaction and the perception of organizational equity to understand the variability of job involvement scores. For this group, the  $F$  value was 9.68; this was significant at the .0001 probability level and the percentage of variability accounted for was 14 ( $R^2 = .14$ ). Table 6 indicates that job satisfaction, as predicted, had a more significant effect ( $p < .0001$ ) upon job involvement than the perception of organizational equity ( $p < .056$ ). Based upon these

Table 5  
Multiple Regression Analysis of the Influence  
of Job Satisfaction and Perceived Equity Upon  
the Job Involvement of Older Managers

Source of Variation	Degrees of Freedom	Sums of Squares	Mean Square	F	p	R <sup>2</sup>
Model	2	631.10	315.52	9.68	.0001	.14
Error	123	4009.71	32.60			
Corrected Total	125	4640.80				

Table 6  
Relative Contributions of the Independent Variables  
in Explaining the Job Involvement of the Older Managers

Source of Variation	<u>df</u>	Type IV Sums of Squares	F	p
Job Satisfaction	1	582.29	17.86	.0001
Perceived Equity	1	120.98	3.71	.056



findings, hypothesis 3 was accepted. Its acceptance, however, reflects the greater importance of job satisfaction in the total model rather than the expectation that equity and job satisfaction would be age related.

Hypothesis 4: For older managers who indicate average or less than average job involvement, perceived equity will contribute more than job satisfaction to the explained variability of job involvement.

Managers who were 48 years old and older and who had obtained job involvement scores of 54 or less (placing them in the lowest third of the distribution of job involvement scores) were selected. There were 36 people in this group of older managers with low levels of work effort. As can be seen in Table 7, the model accounted for 16% of the variability of the job involvement scores ( $R^2=.16$ ) with an  $F$  value of 3.02 which was significant at the .06 probability level. Both of the independent variables were equally important ( $p<.03$ ) to the understanding of the variability of the dependent variable (See Table 8). As a result of these findings, hypothesis 4 was rejected. It must be noted, however, that the perception of organizational equity was far more important in explaining the variability of job involvement for the older managers than it was in any of the other analyses (See Tables 6 and 8).

Table 7

Multiple Regression Analysis of the Influence of Job Satisfaction  
and Perceived Equity Upon the Job Involvement of Older Managers  
Indicating Low Levels of Work Effort

Source of Variation	Degrees of Freedom	Sums of Squares	Mean Square	F	p	R <sup>2</sup>
Model	2	26.93	13.46	3.02	.06	.16
Error	33	147.15	4.46			
Corrected Total	35	174.08				

Table 8

Relative Contributions of the Independent Variables  
in Explaining the Job Involvement of Older Managers  
Indicating Low Levels of Work Effort

Source of Variation	<u>df</u>	Type IV Sums of Squares	F	p
Job Satisfaction	1	22.67	5.08	.03
Equity	1	22.46	5.04	.03

Additional Analyses

The following analyses are not directly associated with the hypotheses. They were done to gather as much information as possible from the data.

To determine the importance of feedback to the work effort of the manager, responses to question 7 on the questionnaire were reversed and summed. Question 7, on feedback, was one of the components of the overall equity score used earlier. As shown in Table 9, correlations performed indicated that the level of communication individuals felt they were receiving was related to their assessments of job satisfaction ( $r=.56$ ;  $p<.01$ ) and reflected a low but significant correlation with job involvement ( $r=.17$ ;  $p<.05$ ). There was also an indication that communication was more positively evaluated as an individual got older ( $r=.09$ ;  $p<.05$ ).

Table 9

Correlations Between Assessments of Adequacy of Feedback  
and Job Satisfaction, Age, and Job Involvement

Variables	Correlation (r)	p	r <sup>2</sup>	N
Job Satisfaction	.56	.0001	.31	475
Job Involvement	.17	.0003	.03	475
Age	.09	.05	.008	468

Another consideration was the degree to which the dependent variable was related to each of the independent variables. Although zero order correlations indicated that there were statistically significant relationships between job involvement and both job satisfaction ( $p < .01$ ) and equity ( $p < .01$ ) (See Table 10), the magnitudes of the correlations themselves were small ( $r = .34$  and  $r = .24$  respectively). The relationship between job involvement and age was not significant ( $p < .24$ ).

Correlation coefficients between the variables indicated that job satisfaction was highly related to the perception of equity ( $r = .72$ ;  $p < .01$ ), reflecting multicollinearity (Table 11). Path analysis clarified the direction of influence as one in which equity had more of an influence upon job satisfaction (path coefficient = .72) than job satisfaction had upon job involvement (path coefficient = .35) despite the significance of job satisfaction within the multiple regression model. Equity had no direct influence upon job involvement (path coefficient = .01).

The relationship between these variables was again demonstrated when the participants were directly asked about the relative importance (reward priority) of organizational equity and job satisfaction. This measure was obtained from question 8 by computing  $(8a+8c)-(8b+8d)$  which subtracted the ratings for choices relating to job satisfaction from those relating to equity. Since the ranks were not reversed for this question, a low number indicated a higher degree of importance. A positive score was therefore taken to mean that the individual rated job

Table 10  
Correlations Between Job Involvement  
and the Independent Variables

Independent Variables	Correlation (r)	p	r <sup>2</sup>	N
Job Satisfaction	.34	.0001	.12	477
Equity	.24	.0001	.06	473
Age	.05	.24	.002	470

Table 11  
Intercorrelations Between the Independent Variables

Variables	Correlation (r)	p	r <sup>2</sup>	N
Job Satisfaction * Equity	.72	.0001	.52	473
Job Satisfaction * Age	.15	.002	.02	470
Equity * Age	.09	.05	.008	466

satisfaction higher than equity. A negative score indicated that equity was rated higher than job satisfaction. In responding to this, 428 of the 477 people questioned rated job satisfaction as being more important while only 49 expressed more concern about equity (See Table 12). When they were asked whether they felt appropriately placed or disappointed in their attained positions, 329 of the participants evaluated their present placements appropriate, by responding (a) or (b) to question 5, and 148 expressed disappointment, by responding (c) or (d) to question 5. The responses to question 5 were reversed, as before.

Examination of the mean levels of job involvement reflected by these groups indicates that the group believing its attained positions to be appropriate rewards for the work effort exerted obtained a higher mean job involvement score (58.4) than that obtained by the group that expressed disappointment in their attained positions (56.1). Reward priorities with respect to whether equity was more important than job satisfaction or job satisfaction was more important than equity to the manager made little difference to the mean job involvement score obtained (57.4 and 57.1, respectively).

A more refined view of these findings is provided by a two way analysis of variance using the dichotomized responses to questions 5 and 8; it compares the participants' reward priorities to their perceptions of the equity of their present positions with respect to relative influence on work effort (See Table 13). The results corroborate that, regardless of how these participants felt about the importance of organizational equity relative to specific job satisfaction, it was

Table 12  
 Mean Scores for Job Involvement by  
 Reward Priority and Appraisal  
 of Present Position

Reward Priority	<u>Appraisal of Position</u>		Totals
	Appropriate	Disappointing	
Job Satisfaction	57.8	56.3	57.1
More Important	(n=300)	(n=128)	(n=428)
Equity More	58.9	55.9	57.4
Important	(n=29)	(n=20)	(n=49)
Totals	58.4	56.1	
	(n=329)	(n=148)	

their assessments of the appropriateness of their attained positions (with respect to their reward for the labors invested) which had a significant influence ( $p < .02$ ) upon job involvement. The reward priorities themselves were of no predictive importance ( $p < .74$ ) with regard to job involvement and there was no interaction found between reward priorities and the assessments of position ( $p < .43$ ). These findings elucidate, once again, the importance of an individual's assessment of the equity of the rewards received, despite the fact that

Table 13  
 Analysis of Variance of Job Involvement  
 by Reward Priority and Position Appraisal

Source of Variation	Sums of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F	p
<b>Main Effects</b>					
Reward Priority	4.34	1	4.34	.11	.74
Position Appraisal	209.93	1	209.93	5.31	.02
<b>Interactions</b>					
Reward Priority by					
Position Appraisal	25.03	1	25.03	.63	.43
Error	18705.86	473	39.55		
Total	19010.46	476			

the overall analysis has indicated that specific job satisfaction is the more powerful predictor of work effort.

In order to determine whether there were differences based upon organizational identification, a multiple regression analysis was done to investigate the influence of the organization for whom individuals worked upon their level of job involvement. The model therefore included Company as one of the independent variables (Table 14). Each of the five companies was treated as a level of the variable. These



results were consistent with the primary results of the study in that no significant effect was found for company membership; it was the importance of job satisfaction that was reflected ( $p < .01$ ). These findings indicate that employees from the public and private sectors responded similarly.

Table 15 demonstrates that two-tailed  $t$ -tests conducted on demographic data yielded small but significant differences between groups. Males expressed greater job involvement ( $p < .05$ ) than females; college graduates derived greater job satisfaction than noncollege graduates ( $p < .05$ ); and those who elected to obtain additional training were more critical of organizational equity ( $p < .05$ ) than those who did not do so. Again, the actual magnitude of these differences was small, despite their statistical significance, suggesting caution in practical application.

### Discussion of Results

The following section presents an interpretation of the findings as they relate both to the specific hypotheses proposed in this study as well as to previous research. The questions which this study addressed were derived from more general work done in the area of work and family while introducing issues not previously explored. It is this connection which will be emphasized in this section in an effort to extend and enrich our awareness of the substantive areas investigated.

Table 14  
Multiple Regression Analysis of the Influence  
of the Individual Companies Upon the Model

Source of Variation	Type IV Sums of Squares	F	p
Job Satisfaction	1281.87	38.38	.0001
Equity	81.63	2.44	.12
Age	9.32	.28	.60
Company	133.70	1.00	.41
Job Satisfaction * Company	311.52	2.33	.06
Equity * Company	163.70	1.23	.30
Age * Company	44.18	.33	.86
<hr/>			
F(19,446)=5.45	p<.0001		R <sup>2</sup> =.19

Table 15  
 Mean Differences Between Sexes, Education Levels,  
 and Training Levels for Job Satisfaction,  
 Perceived Equity, and Job Involvement

	Job Satisfaction		Perceived Equity		Job Involvement		N
	Mean	t <sup>a</sup>	Mean	t <sup>a</sup>	Mean	t <sup>a</sup>	
Males vs. Females	27.42	-.23	61.96	-1.21	49.26	2.13*	268
College Graduates vs. Non-College Graduates	27.56	2.02*	61.95	.15	48.90	.36	331
Advanced Training vs. No Advanced Training	37.45	-.86	76.21	-1.97*	57.83	1.46	276
	27.52		63.0		47.89		63
	26.97		61.87		48.75		137
	38.01		78.86		56.96		185

<sup>a</sup>Two-tailed t tests

\*Significance at the .05 level.

Hypothesis 1 proposed that the work effort of a manager in an organizational setting, as it is reflected in occupational involvement, would increase as both specific job satisfaction and perception of the equity of the company increased.

The acceptance of the first hypothesis indicated that work effort, as reflected in a measure of job involvement, did increase as both specific job satisfaction and perceived equity increased. It was further found that job satisfaction was more relevant to the manager, as it explained a statistically significant amount of the variability of the job involvement scores. The explanatory power of the perception of equity was found to be no better than chance. In response to the research questions posed, differential levels of job satisfaction made a difference in the work effort exerted while fluctuations in perceived equity did not appear to have the same effect.

At the same time, the level of specific job satisfaction and the degree of equity perceived by the individual were highly correlated with one another, suggesting a relationship in which they were highly interdependent. Further analysis revealed that while job satisfaction had more of an influence than perceived equity upon work effort, it was itself highly dependent upon the individual's assessment of his or her own equitable treatment. In other words, these findings indicate that what individuals may conceptualize as job satisfaction may be based upon underlying, unspoken feelings about the equity of their personal treatment.

For example, these managers were directly asked whether they felt the position they had attained within the hierarchy was an appropriate one in light of the hard work and effort they had exerted. They were also asked how they felt about the importance of organizational equity relative to specific job satisfaction. Regardless of which of these sources of reward was given priority, it was their assessment of the reward sufficiency of their present position, or the equity of their personal treatment, which significantly explained fluctuations in their work effort. This suggests that people may believe and report that they are responding to certain aspects of a situation when in fact they are responding to more basic characteristics which are less obvious. In this situation, regardless of whether they reported equity or job satisfaction to be more important, it was their sense of being sufficiently valued which influenced their motivation to exert work effort. This lends credibility to the finding that the perception of organizational equity may be a basic underlying ingredient in an individual's expressed level of job satisfaction.

It is therefore believed that the perception of equity is a necessary but not sufficient motivator of work effort, while specific task or job satisfaction may be the measurement variable required to predict work effort. Moreover, the assessment of equity in an exchange appears to be an underlying process while the assessment of job satisfaction may be one of which an individual is more aware because it has more objective criteria.

These findings are consistent with the literature in that the cognizance of the "psychological contract" of Menninger (1958) as incorporated into Levinson's (1965) work, the proposals of the exchange theorists regarding the assessment of distributive justice (Homans, 1961) or CL and CLalt (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959), and the tensions associated with cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1961) depend upon the level of psychological awareness of the individual. Those people who are less insightful would not sense the subjective parameters of their assessments of equity as readily as they would the more tangible criteria for job satisfaction. The findings are also consistent with the literature on commitment (Scanzoni, 1979; Buchanan, 1974; Margolis, 1979; Presthus, 1962; Katz, 1964) which is described as an affective response (Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979) resulting from a socialization process (Kanter, 1977a,b; Margolis, 1979; Presthus, 1962) in which individuals are not clearly aware of the pressures exerted (Schein, 1968) to influence their sense of identity (Sofer, 1970; Berlew & Hall, 1966; Buchanan, 1974). This suggests the subtlety with which the desire for extrinsic rewards is inculcated while the individual is overtly encouraged to be devoted to the job at hand.

The importance of job satisfaction to work effort, regardless of the possibility that it may itself be dependent upon the perception of equity, is exemplified in the findings of Howard and Bray (1980), who minimized the attraction of promotions and concluded that many managers welcomed career plateaus. They reported that job challenge, task accomplishment, and a sense of autonomy were major sources of motivation

for middle managers who no longer expected promotions.

While this supports the predictive power of job satisfaction over that of the assessment of equity, it may also be a manifestation of cognitive adjustment to disappointment, since these investigators additionally reported that when promotions were expected, as for those managers definitely slated for upward mobility, they served as primary motivators for hard work.

Since job satisfaction is overtly emphasized in the socialization process of the manager, as noted earlier, such a cognitive adjustment would be relatively easy to accomplish when other avenues of dissonance reduction were unavailable. Moreover, while job satisfaction has been found to have only a negligible relationship to productivity for nonmanagers, for whom jobs are routinized and satisfaction has little influence (Katz, 1964; Locke, 1976), this is not the case for managers whose job performance requires creativity, spontaneity, and the desire and ability to respond to challenge (Katz, 1964). For managers, it is interest and psychological immersion in a role which have been associated with productivity in contributing to organizational goals (Lee, 1971). Work effort, as measured by job involvement, appears to be a measure of this kind of productivity.

The findings of this study therefore suggest that managers who are able to derive satisfaction from their work roles (whether this is because they have always enjoyed them or because they have made cognitive re-evaluations in recognition of career plateaus) will work

harder and thereby be more productive. In this sense, the cognitive adjustment would provide an appropriate avenue for rewards, by virtue of engendering productivity. It is not difficult to envision such a relationship as self-perpetuating.

This contradicts the conclusions of March and Simon (1963) who reported that job satisfaction influenced attendance, "the decision to participate", but not productivity, "the decision to produce". This survey indicates that for managers, job satisfaction has a direct influence upon work effort.

Hypotheses 2 and 3 proposed that there would be age-related differences in the determinants of job involvement between younger managers and older managers, based upon differential concerns about extrinsic and intrinsic rewards. This proposal evolved from the research in adult development as well as the literature on age-appropriate movement in a career.

In accordance with the contributions of Levinson (1977) and his associates (Levinson et al., 1974) as well as Sofer (1970), it was predicted that younger managers would focus upon extrinsic rewards and would want to leave the exchange if they believed these rewards to be insufficient. In other words, job involvement for younger managers (those 38 and younger) was expected to be more dependent upon the perception of equity than upon specific job satisfaction. On the other hand, it was expected that older managers (those who were 48 and older) would be unable to elect to leave an exchange, despite perceived



inequities, because of the loss of accumulated benefits. It was therefore proposed that older managers would focus upon intrinsic rewards, as provided by specific job satisfaction, so as to alleviate the disappointment engendered by the insufficient extrinsic rewards (primarily those associated with recognition of career plateaus).

It was found that the participants did not differ based upon age. The level of job satisfaction, which is an intrinsically based reward, was the statistically significant influence upon work effort. Perceived equity, the extrinsically determined reward, was not reflected as having a significant influence, at least, as noted above, not a directly sensed influence.

The fact that age made no difference in the importance of these variables bears closer scrutiny. The hypotheses were developed in conjunction with the assumption that young managers who were dissatisfied could leave the exchange while older managers could not. While leaving an inequitable exchange is a resolution to the tension associated with disappointment, the literature cited has made note of the present slowdown in expansion and the general recession which our economy was experiencing (Gottschalk, 1981) at the time of the survey. These economic conditions imposed constraints upon employment mobility since fewer positions were available to resolve the dissatisfaction of the disappointed manager who might otherwise move to an expectedly more equitable situation. At the time the study was undertaken, the economic slowdown was experienced in a very real way in the form of layoffs and in budgetary cutbacks in organizations in the geographic area surveyed.

Further, this particular city was late in feeling the ramifications of the recession and so its effects were all the more credible since the residents had been hearing about these problems for a prolonged period before actually experiencing them. Consequently, these results should be interpreted with caution because, although the findings did not support the age-related hypotheses, they may only provide an accurate picture for the time period in which they were measured.

Younger managers indicated that they were motivated by their assessments of job satisfaction, just as older managers were expected to be. If there were feelings about insufficient extrinsic rewards, they did not influence variations in work effort. These younger managers appear to have responded to their disappointment, if it existed, as if neither altering behavior nor leaving the exchange were available alternatives. As would be suggested by the work of Festinger (1961) and Adams (1963, 1965), they altered their cognitions and focused upon job satisfaction rather than equitable treatment. In accordance with Staw (1976), they replaced the expectation of extrinsic rewards with the desire for intrinsic rewards. This was the expected response of older managers who were believed to be unable to leave the exchange.

Regardless of the apparent importance of job satisfaction, borne out by the fact that when directly asked, these managers rated it more important than equity, it must be noted that the most motivated of these managers (in terms of mean job involvement scores), were those who felt they were receiving equitable personal treatment, regardless of the importance they attributed to job satisfaction. The highest job

involvement scores were obtained by those who rated their positions as equitable and valued equity more than job satisfaction.

Whether these findings contradict the literature which proposes that industrial executives are socialized to be upwardly mobile and are therefore preoccupied with advancement is a question which cannot be answered. It appears that the managers who participated in this study cannot be characterized in this way at this time. Nevertheless, as noted above, the economic climate was one which clearly circumscribed alternatives in the form of mobility both within an organization and between organizations. As a result, we are unable to determine whether the findings that do not show age to be an important variable might not be different if we were in a period of economic prosperity. Further inquiry is clearly required.

What these results do reveal is that when there is reduced job mobility, managers who feel that their organizations are treating them equitably will be highly motivated. Those managers who have additionally been able to find their jobs satisfying will be the most highly motivated.

The last hypothesis tested looked at the responses of older managers who believed the organization to be less than equitable. It was proposed that since leaving the exchange would be too costly, those who could not re-evaluate their job satisfaction more positively would reduce their work effort. It was therefore expected that for older managers (48 and older) with low job involvement scores, the perception

of equity would contribute more than the level of job satisfaction to the explained variability of these scores. It was expected that managers who had low levels of work effort were people who could not overcome their disappointment at being insufficiently rewarded; this, regardless of whether they actually liked their jobs, would keep their work effort at an acceptable minimum because they could not shift focus from extrinsic to intrinsic rewards.

The results indicated that the perception of equity and the level of job satisfaction were equally important in understanding fluctuations in work effort for this group. Although the perception of equity was found to be more important to older managers than it was to younger managers, it did not have a more important effect upon work effort than the level of specific task satisfaction. This hypothesis was therefore not supported by the data.

The only way the results corresponded to this last prediction, which was based upon the contributions of Festinger (1961), Adams (1963,1965) and Staw (1976), was in terms of the reported relationship between the levels of job satisfaction and work effort. Individuals who are unable to leave an inequitable exchange and unable to resolve the tension associated with the perceived inequity by altering cognitions are left with a high level of disappointment and a low level of job satisfaction (by virtue of their inability to shift focus). Since job satisfaction is a major influence upon work effort, it follows that those with low levels of job satisfaction are likely to reflect low levels of work effort.

## CHAPTER V

## SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The major purpose of this research was to increase our understanding of the linkages between work and family by performing a baseline study to clarify variables associated with work behavior in preparation for future work/family studies. The immediate purpose of this study was to consider how the work motivation, as it was reflected in the work effort exerted by organizational managers, was influenced by their specific job satisfaction and by their perception of the equitable treatment provided by the organization. The literature indicates that the importance of these variables to work motivation may be age related and so age was included within the design of the study.

The primary questions which were addressed were the following: (1) What is the relative importance of perceived organizational equity and specific job satisfaction to work effort? (2) Is there a difference in work effort based upon differential levels of perceived equity and job satisfaction? and (3) Does the age of the individual interact with the importance of either of these variables in influencing work effort?

Previous studies utilizing the concept of job satisfaction have failed to distinguish it from the perception of organizational equity and have found it to be only negligibly related to performance. Studies considering the response to inequity have been directed primarily to the issue of pay. Those which have been more general in their focus have

been done primarily in the laboratory. Furthermore, most of the research utilizing these variables has been based upon the behavior and job situations of nonmanagement workers.

Nevertheless, past research efforts have indicated that job/task satisfaction is distinguishable from satisfaction with the equity of organizational policies and practices. They further distinguish between the attitudes and job demands of management and nonmanagement workers, pointing out different motivational bases.

The literature indicates that managers undergo a socialization process in which they are taught early in their careers that hard work will eventually be appropriately rewarded. They are encouraged to devote themselves to their jobs and become increasingly dependent upon their organizations.

As time goes by, it becomes difficult for managers to leave their organizations, even if they begin to suspect that they are not being treated equitably with respect to anticipated potential rewards. Eventually, there is recognition of the realistic limitations which exist upon upward mobility and these managers are left to deal with their disappointment. The studies indicate that when individuals feel unable to leave an inequitable exchange, they may resolve their disappointment by reducing behavior or adjusting their cognitions to replace extrinsic rewards with intrinsic rewards.

Despite an awareness of the work history and experiences of organizational managers and despite an understanding of the potential motivational differences between the influence of specific job satisfaction and that of the perception of organizational equity, there have been no studies undertaken which have directly investigated these relationships. Until now, no research has considered the work motivation of management employees as it relates to their perceptions of the equity of their organizations as distinct from their satisfaction with their specific jobs or tasks.

#### Research Procedures

This study is based upon a questionnaire survey of 477 managers from five organizational settings. Three of the organizations were industrial corporations and two were governmental agencies composed of civil servants. Each organization was provided with guidelines to determine which of its managers was appropriate for the study, based upon its criteria for middle-level managers. A preliminary letter was sent by the company to the selected managers 10 days before the questionnaire was distributed. The letter introduced the study and encouraged voluntary, anonymous participation.

The questionnaire was then forwarded through the interoffice mail in a packet which also contained a cover letter and an addressed, stamped envelope in which it was to be returned. Included within the questionnaire were questions aimed at obtaining the individual's assessment of the degree of equity or fairness incorporated in the

policies and practices of the organization, an expression of the individual's level of specific job satisfaction and an indication of the individual's level of work effort.

In accordance with the literature, it was hypothesized that work effort, as it was manifested in occupational involvement, would increase as both job satisfaction and perceived equity increased. It was further hypothesized that the influence of both of these variables upon job involvement would be age related in that equity would be more important to younger managers while job satisfaction would be more important to older managers. The data were primarily analyzed by multiple regression analyses.

#### Strengths and Limitations

##### Strengths

The major strengths of this research consisted of (a) looking specifically at the work motivation of the organizational manager rather than the skilled laborer, (b) clarifying the concept of job satisfaction to distinguish it from satisfaction with organizational policies, (c) considering work effort as the outcome of a conscious decision-making process based upon a number of contributing factors, and (d) introducing the overall importance of perceived organizational equity in the determination of this decision. While these issues have been considered in isolation, they have not been coordinated in the investigation of relevant areas of study. Further, by incorporating adult development propositions, differential age pressures were also considered with



respect to their contribution to the degree of work effort exerted.

Methodologically, this research responded to a need for an interdisciplinary approach using multiple dimensions to predict behavior. Prior research in this area has had a major weakness in that it has been primarily unidimensional and limited in its use of interdisciplinary information. While there have been studies which have attempted to consider multiple dimensions, they have been methodologically weak in their failure to utilize a sufficient number of subjects to support the number of independent variables investigated.

An additional deficiency found in the literature was that randomization of subject selection has been sacrificed too often for samples of convenience. This study attempted to avoid these design errors by utilizing all of the individuals meeting the criteria established for middle managers within each of the participating organizations. In order to assure its credibility and facilitate an optimum response rate, this study obtained the endorsement and cooperation of each organization.

With respect to the instruments employed, there were several advantages related to reliability and validity. While the questions selected to examine the independent variables were tailored to the issues of interest, an effort was made to utilize established scales wherever possible. The job satisfaction questions were based primarily upon the scale used by the Survey of Working Conditions (1971) with additional questions added to consider specific topics. The questions

related to perceived equity were based upon a questionnaire employed by Scanzoni (1981) and on the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire of Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979). The dependent variable, work effort, was measured by the Lodahl and Kejner (1965) Job Involvement Scale which has established measures of validity and reliability and has frequently been used in other research designs.

### Limitations

The primary limitations of this study were (a) that only a limited number of females were included, (b) that only work behavior was investigated in depth, (c) that the data were gathered from traditional organizational settings and therefore are not generalizable to nontraditional environments, and (d) that while the instruments used drew upon and utilized established measures with acceptable levels of validity and reliability, they were not formulated and validated for this particular study and so may have lacked the sensitivity of a specifically designed instrument. Further, this study was based upon a number of assumptions which have their bases in the literature and were accepted without direct empirical testing. Finally, while the endorsement of the organization was considered to be highly beneficial, it is possible that it may have interfered with the credibility of the promised anonymity and, in so doing, contaminated the responses.

### Conclusions

The following conclusions have been drawn from the results described above:

1. A model containing the independent variables of job satisfaction, perceived equity, and age data was able to account for a statistically significant portion of the variability of job involvement scores. The most parsimonious form of this model indicates that if there is knowledge of the level of job satisfaction of an organizational manager, it is possible to formulate expectations about the amount of work effort this individual may exert. This was a positive linear relationship in which job involvement increased as the level of job satisfaction increased.

2. Perceived equity was not found to have a statistically significant influence upon job involvement. It was job satisfaction that accounted for a significant amount of the variability in job involvement. At the same time, there was also a statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction and the perception of equity wherein the perception of equity was found to be an important component of the assessment of job satisfaction. Consequently, these findings suggest that the perception of equity, while an insignificant predictor in and of itself, influences work effort in an indirect way, by virtue of its contribution to job satisfaction.

3. The age of the managers was not a statistically significant influence upon their job involvement levels. Neither was it a statistically significant influence upon the level of perceived equity. In other words, the managers did not differ as a result of their age groups with respect to the factors which influenced their levels of work effort. In general, it was job satisfaction which contributed most to work effort. Equitable treatment, in and of itself, was not a significant influence upon work effort, regardless of the age of the individual.

These findings suggest that the productivity of organizational managers is related to their assessments of job satisfaction and that job satisfaction is dependent, to a large extent, upon the perception of equitable treatment. While these results have statistical significance, their interpretation requires caution, as in most social science research, with respect to practical applications because the actual percentage of explained variability is not high, despite significance levels. Nevertheless, these findings suggest the potential importance of enhancing both the perception of equity and specific task satisfaction as a means of influencing the productivity of the organizational manager.

#### Implications

The basic aim of this study was to clarify the factors within the work setting which contribute to the psychological well-being and productivity of the manager. The underlying premise was that such

clarification was essential to future investigations of how the perception and resolution of inequity at the workplace influences interaction within the family. It was believed that although job satisfaction had a bearing upon work behavior, its primary value would be as a surrogate for the more desired reward of equitable treatment (primarily in the form of upward mobility) when that was found to be unattainable. It was also expected that younger managers would feel more mobile, with respect to leaving a company believed to be inequitable, than older managers whose mobility would be circumscribed by the loss of accrued benefits.

Contrary to these expectations, the perception of equity was not found to have a statistically significant influence upon work behavior. Apparently, if inequity was experienced, it was quickly resolved. Instead of the perception of equity having a bearing upon job involvement, it was the level of job satisfaction which had a statistically significant effect upon job involvement. Whether this was the result of cognitive adjustment wherein the disappointed manager re-evaluated the merits of the tasks at hand and decided they were more rewarding and important than they were previously believed to be, or whether job satisfaction was a valid basis for job involvement without cognitive re-evaluations was not clear. What was clear was that the assessment of organizational equity was highly related to the level of job satisfaction; job satisfaction appears to have been based, to a large extent, upon the equity of personal treatment.

The issue of the relationship of work and family has recently taken on new interest as appreciation of its importance has grown. While the literature recognizes that occupations are a primary indicator of placing the family within the social system (Aldous et al., 1979), the major emphases of the studies to date have revolved around the influence of family patterns upon attitudes toward work (Osherson & Dill, 1983), the influence of occupational position upon values (Kohn, 1969; Rapoport & Rapoport, 1969), and the conflicts between time and energy demands of work and family roles (Becerra, 1975; Boss, McCubbin, & Lester, 1979; Clark, Nye, & Gecas, 1978; Pleck, 1983; Pleck, Staines & Lang, 1980; Renshaw, 1976; Ridley, 1973). There is little in the way of understanding the relationship between an individual's occupational adjustment as it relates to behavior within the family.

For example, there is no research which considers how the individual who feels insufficiently valued at work deals with family stress; nor is there research which considers how such feelings contribute to family stress. While there is an awareness of the importance of the worker/earner role and the difficulties encountered by the family when it is lost, as in unemployment (Voydanoff, 1983), there have been no studies which have considered the consequences of situations in which it has been weakened or "damaged" (Rodman & Safilios-Rothschild, 1983) by the loss of self-esteem.

Sofer (1970) described the occupational identity of the manager as an almost immutable commitment which has guided and shaped a lifetime. A disruption in this self-perception, such as failure to achieve a realistically expected occupational level, is described as having consequences which affect the individual's entire basis of self-judgement and assessment of others. It is not unforeseeable that until this high level of dissonance is resolved, such an individual would have a very low level of stress tolerance. We might then ask how such an individual might relate to others within a family setting.

The results reported in this study therefore suggest a number of implications for future research and practice. In the first place, it is suggested that measurement techniques be developed to more clearly assess the variables influencing work effort. While this study clarified the relationship between job satisfaction and work effort, it utilized measures which were the best available but still not considered optimal for the purpose. Therefore, the development of new scales of measurement which are valid and reliable is a definite research need.

In the development of these scales, particular attention should be addressed to the measurement of organizational equity. The scale used in this study was designed to measure an individual's assessment of both the equity of general policies and practices as well as that of his or her personal treatment. The results suggest, however, that an individual responds to organizational equity in a very personal way. Consequently, there is an implication that a more accurate measure of an individual's perception of the equity of an organization may be derived

from a scale which is more personalized in its approach than this one was.

Another research implication which should be pursued is the study of the relationship between work attitudes and family attitudes. Since this study was only done in an effort to determine whether there were relationships worthy of follow-up, the measures are not as refined as they could be, as has already been noted. Research should be done which considers the quality of family life relative to the quality of occupational adjustments. In other words, occupational attitudes and levels of stress resolution should be considered in terms of their effect upon family behavior. It is suspected that there is a reciprocal relationship between these two spheres; it is hoped that such a study would shed light upon an appropriate entry point, whether at the occupational or family level, from which to influence and improve functionality in both spheres.

For industry, the implications of this study offer a great deal of information. First of all, these results document the influence of specific job satisfaction, as it is distinct from the perception of organizational equity, upon the work effort of the organizational manager. Since work effort is directly related to productivity for a manager, this study clarifies the value of enhancing managerial job satisfaction. Furthermore, the magnitude of the correlation between the perception of organizational equity and the level of job satisfaction reported emphasizes the importance of equitable treatment in the assessment of job satisfaction.



While it is difficult to distinguish between individuals who were satisfied with their jobs regardless of their feelings about equitable treatment and those who became satisfied with their jobs as a result of rationalizing their career disappointments, such a distinction really has little practical importance. In other words, why someone has focused upon job satisfaction rather than upward mobility is not important; what matters is that such an emphasis serves to maintain work effort, which is a primary concern within an organizational setting.

These findings suggest that it is necessary for managers to perceive a basic level of equitable treatment from their organizations; it is even more important for them to find a means of deriving a sense of satisfaction from their jobs. Organizations must therefore take the time to develop personnel programs and policies which convey a sense of being equitably treated to employees as well as accessible avenues through which the perception of inequitable treatment may be communicated and resolved. Further, these findings document the value of programs which will help management employees re-evaluate their organizational positions so as to understand how important their roles are and how valuable they, as individuals, are in fulfilling them.

This study was conducted during a period of economic recession during which employment mobility was severely curtailed. As a result, it is suspected that some of these findings are a reflection of the economic situation. Nevertheless, they do characterize the behavior of managerial employees who may have felt unable to leave a setting and

perhaps feared reducing work effort out of concern over job security. In this situation, these employees focused upon the intrinsic rewards associated with their jobs as a source of motivation for work effort. Whether these managers felt insufficiently rewarded or not had no bearing upon their willingness to work hard if they could convince themselves that their jobs were satisfying. Those who could not derive high levels of job satisfaction did not indicate high levels of work effort.

It is suspected that the main effect of the economic constraints on employment mobility upon these findings was the absence of differential age-related responses to perceived inequity. It was in this area that the results may have been a reflection of the economic circumstances. Nevertheless, they lend themselves to application in organizations concerned about managers whose careers have plateaued. Where the expectation of upward mobility can no longer serve to motivate work effort, organizations must seek alternative means of maintaining high levels of psychological involvement in their managers.

Perhaps the major impact of this research is its contribution to and extension of the literature relating job satisfaction to work effort or productivity in the organizational manager. It clearly documents the merits of establishing the perception of personal equity and enhancing managerial job satisfaction; it implies that such a plan of action on the part of the organization may be a primary means of aiding productivity in response to motivational plateaus.

## BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Adams, J.S. Toward a cognitive theory of inequity. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1963, 67, 422-436.
- Adams, J.S. Inequity in social exchange. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), Advances in experimental social psychology(Vol. 2). New York: Academic Press, 1965.
- Aldous, J., Osmond, M.W., & Hicks, M.W. Men's work and men's families. In W.R. Burr, R. Hill, F.I. Nye, & I.L. Rubin (Eds.), Contemporary theories about the family (Vol. 1, pp. 227-256). New York: The Free Press, 1979.
- Becerra, M. Marriage and the corporation. Nation's Business, March, 1975, pp. 82-85.
- Becker, H.S. Notes on the concept of commitment. American Journal of Sociology, 1960, 66, 32-42.
- Beckhard, R. Managerial careers in transition: Dilemmas and directions. In J. Van Maanen (Ed.), Organizational careers: Some new perspectives (pp. 149-160). New York: John Wiley & Sons, Ltd., 1977.
- Bem, D.J. Self-perception: An alternative interpretation of cognitive dissonance phenomena. Psychological Review, 1967, 74, 183-200 (a).
- Bem, D.J. Self-perception: The dependent variable in human performance. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance. 1967, 2, 105-121 (b).
- Berlew, D.E., & Hall, D.T. The socialization of managers: Effects of expectations on performance. Administrative Science Quarterly, 1966, 2, 207-223.
- Blau, P.M. Exchange and power in social life. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1964.
- Blaylock, H.M., & Wilkin, P.H. Intergroup processes: A micro-macro perspective. New York: Free Press, 1979.
- Boss, P.G., McCubbin, H.I., & Lester, G. The corporate executive wife's coping patterns in response to routine husband-father absence. Family Process, 1979, 18, 79-86.
- Bott, E. The concept of class as a reference group. Human Relations, 1954, 7, 259-285.

- Bray, D.W., Campbell, R.J., & Grant, D.L. Formative years in business: A long-term AT&T study of managerial lives. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1974.
- Brayfield, A.H., & Crockett, W.H. Employee attitudes and employee performance. Psychological Bulletin, 1955, 52, 396-424.
- Buchanan, B. Building organizational commitment: The socialization of managers in work organizations. Administrative Science Quarterly, 1974, 19, 533-546.
- Buckley, W. Sociology and modern systems theory. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1967.
- Buhler, C. The curve of life as studied in biographies. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1935, 19, 405-409.
- Cain, L.D., Jr. Life course and social structure. In R.E.L. Faris (Ed.), Handbook of modern sociology. Chicago: Rand-McNally, 1964.
- Campbell, J.P., & Pritchard, R.D. Motivation theory in industrial and organizational psychology. In M.D. Dunnette (Ed.), Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology. Chicago: Rand-McNally, 1976.
- Campbell, J.P., Dunnette, M.D., Lawler, E.E., III, & Weick, K.E., Jr. Managerial behavior, performance, and effectiveness. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1970.
- Chinoy, E. The automobile worker and the American dream. Garden City, N.J.: Doubleday, 1955.
- Clark, R.A., Nye, F.I., & Gecas, V. Husbands' work involvement and marital role performance. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 1978, 40, 9-21.
- Coser, L.M. Greedy institutions. New York: Free Press, 1974.
- De Grazia, S. Of time, work and leisure. New York: Twentieth Century Fund, 1962.
- Dubin, R. Industrial workers' worlds: A study of the central life interests of industrial workers. Social Problems, 1956, 3, 131-142.
- Etzioni, A. A comparative analysis of complex organizations. Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1961.
- Festinger, L. A theory of social comparison processes. Human Relations, 1954, 1, 117-140.

- Festinger, L. A theory of cognitive dissonance. Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1957.
- Festinger, L. The psychological effects of insufficient rewards. American Psychologist, 1961, 16, 1-11.
- Fox, A. Beyond contract: Work, power and trust relations. London: Faber & Faber, Ltd., 1974.
- Georgopoulos, B.S., Mahony, G.M., & Jones, N.W. A path-goal approach to productivity. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1957, 41, 345-353.
- Gottschalk, E.G., Jr. Blocked paths: Promotions grow few as 'baby boom' group eyes managers' jobs. The Wall Street Journal, October 22, 1981, p. 1 and p. 22.
- Gould, R.L. The phases of adult life: A study of developmental psychology. The American Journal of Psychiatry, 1972, 129, 33-43.
- Gould, R.L. Adult life stages: Growth toward self-tolerance. Psychology Today, February 1975, pp. 74-78.
- Gouldner, A.W. The norm of reciprocity: A preliminary statement. American Sociological Review, 1960, 25, 161-178.
- Graen, G. Instrumentality theory of work motivation: Some experimental results and suggested modifications. Journal of Applied Psychology Monographs, 1969, 53, 1-25.
- Green, T.F. Work, leisure and the American schools. New York: Random House, 1968.
- Guion, R.M. Industrial morale: The problem of terminology. Personnel Psychology, 1958, 11, 59-61.
- Gurin, G., Veroff, J., & Feld, S. Americans view their mental health. New York: Basic Books, 1960.
- Hartson, M. Survey: Americans not working to full potential. Greensboro Daily News, September 5, 1983, p. 1 and p. 7.
- Heath, A. Rational choice and social exchange. New York: Cambridge University Press, 1976.
- Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., Peterson, R.O., & Capwell, D.F. Job attitudes: Review of research and opinion. Pittsburgh: Psychological Services of Pittsburgh, 1957.
- Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., & Snyderman, B. The motivation to work. New York: Wiley, 1959.

- Homans, G.C. Social behavior: Its elementary forms. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Javonovitch, 1961 (Revised, 1974).
- Howard, A., & Bray, D.W. Career motivation in mid-life managers. Paper presented at the American Psychological Association convention in Montreal, Canada, 1980.
- Howard, A. & Bray, D.W. Job satisfaction: AT&T: The hopes of middle management. The New York Times, March 21, 1982, p. 2F.
- Hrebiniak, L.G., & Alutto, J.A. Personal and role related factors in the development of organizational commitment. Administrative Science Quarterly, 1972, 18, 555-573.
- Jones, M.R. (Ed.), Nebraska symposium on motivation. Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1955.
- Kanter, R.M. Work and the family in the United States: A critical review and agenda for research and policy. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1977 (a).
- Kanter, R.M. Men and women of the corporation. New York: Basic Books, 1977 (b).
- Katz, D. The motivational basis of organizational behavior. Behavioral Science, 1964, 9, 131-146.
- Katz, D., & Kahn, R.L. The social psychology of organizations. New York: Wiley & Sons, 1966.
- Katzell, R.A. Work attitudes, motivation and performance. Professional Psychology, 1980, 11, 409-420.
- Katzell, R.A., Yankelovitch, D., and others. Work, productivity, and job satisfaction. New York: The Psychological Corp., 1975.
- Kohn, M.L. Class and conformity: A study of values. Homewood, Ill.: Dorsey Press, 1969.
- Kuhn, A. Unified social science: A system based introduction. Homewood, Ill: Dorsey Press, 1975.
- Lawler, E.E. Pay and organizational effectiveness: A psychological view. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1971.
- Lawler, E.E. Motivation in work organizations. Belmont, Cal.: Brooks/Cole, 1973.
- Lawler, E.E., & Hall, D.T. Relationship of job characteristics to job involvement, satisfaction and intrinsic motivation. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1970, 54, 305-312.

- Lawler, E.E., & Porter, L. Antecedent attitudes of effective managerial performance. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 1967, 2, 122-142.
- Lee, S.M. An empirical analysis of organizational identification. Academy of Management Journal, 1971, 14, 213-226.
- Levinson, D.J. The mid-life transition: A period of adult psychological development. Psychiatry, 1977, 40, 99-112.
- Levinson, D.J., Darrow, C.M., Klein, E.B., Levinson, M.H., & McKee, B. The psychosocial development of men in early adulthood and the mid-life transition. In D.F. Ricks et al. (Eds.), Life history research in psychopathology (pp. 243-258). Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1974.
- Levinson, H. Reciprocation: The relationship between man and organization. Administrative Science Quarterly, 1965, 9, 370-390.
- Lewin, K. The conceptual representation and measurement of psychological forces. Durham, N.C.: Duke University Press, 1938.
- Litwak, E. Geographic mobility and extended family cohesion. American Sociological Review, 1960, 25, 385-394.
- Litwin, G., & Stringer, R. Motivation and organizational climate. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1968.
- Locke, E.A. The nature and causes of job satisfaction. In M.D. Dunnette (Ed.), Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology. Chicago: Rand-McNally, 1976.
- Lodahl, T.M. Patterns of job attitudes in two assembly technologies. Administrative Science Quarterly, 1964, 9, 482-519.
- Lodahl, T.M., & Kejner, M. The definition and measurement of job involvement. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1965, 49, 24-33.
- Mannheim, B. A comparative study of work centrality, job rewards and satisfaction. Sociology of Work and Occupations, 1975, 2, 79-102.
- March, J.G., & Olsen, J.P. Ambiguity and choice in organizations. Bergen, Norway: Universitetsforlaget, 1976.
- March, J.G., & Simon, H.A. Organizations. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1963.
- Margolis, D.R. The managers: Corporate life in America. New York: William Morrow & Co., 1979.
- McCall, G.J., & Simmons, J.L. Identities and interactions. New York:

- The Free Press, 1978.
- Menninger, K. Theory of psychoanalytic technique. New York: Basic Books, 1958.
- Miller, D.C. & Form, W. Industrial sociology: An introduction to the sociology of work relations. New York: Harper, 1951.
- Morse, N.C. Satisfaction in the white collar jobs. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1953.
- Mowday, R.T., Steers, R.M., & Porter, L.W. The measurement of organizational climate. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 1979, 14, 224-247.
- Osherson, S., & Dill, D. Varying work and family choices: Their impact on men's work satisfaction. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 1983, 45, 339-346.
- Patchen, M. Participation, achievement and involvement on the job. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, 1970.
- Pleck, J.H. Husbands' paid work and family roles: Current research issues. In H. Lopata & J. Pleck (Eds.), Research in the interweave of social roles: Jobs and families (Vol. 3, pp. 251-333). Greenwich, Ct: JAI Press, Inc., 1983.
- Pleck, J.H., Staines, G.L., & Lang, L. Conflict between work and family. Monthly Labor Review, March 1980, pp. 29-32.
- Porter, L.W., & Lawler, E.E. Managerial attitudes and performance. Homewood, Ill.: Dorsey Press, 1968.
- Porter, L.W., Steers, R.M., Mowday, R.T., & Boulian, P.V. Organizational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover among psychiatric technicians. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1974, 59, 603-609.
- Presthus, R. The organizational society. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1962.
- Pritchard, R.D., & Karasick, B.W. The effects of organizational climate on managerial job performance and job satisfaction. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 1973, 9, 126-146.
- Rabinowitz, S., & Hall, D.T. Organizational research on job involvement. Psychological Bulletin, 1977, 84, 265-288.
- Rapoport, R. & Rapoport, R.N. The dual career family: A variant pattern and social change. Human Relations, 1969, 22, 3-30.



- Renshaw, J.R. An exploration of the dynamics of the overlapping worlds of work and family. Family Process, 1976, 15, 143-165.
- Ridley, C.A. Exploring the impact of work satisfaction and involvement on marital interaction when both partners are employed. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 1973, 35, 229-237.
- Rodman, H. & Safilios-Rothchild, C. Weak links in men's worker-earner roles: A descriptive model. In H. Lopata & J. Pleck (Eds.), Research in the interweave of social roles: Jobs and families (Vol. 3, pp. 219-238). Greenwich, Ct: JAI Press, Inc., 1983.
- Roethlisberger, F.J., & Dickson, W.J. Management and the worker. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1939.
- Rotter, J.B. Generalized expectancies for internal versus external control of reinforcement. Psychological Monographs, 1966, 80, 1-28.
- Salancik, G.R. Commitment and the control of organizational behavior and belief. In R.M. Steers & L.W. Porter (Eds.), Motivation and work behavior (pp. 318-325). New York: McGraw-Hill, 1979.
- Scanzoni, J. Social exchange and behavioral interdependence. In R.L. Burgess & T.L. Huston (Eds.), Social exchange in developing relationships (pp. 61-98). New York: Academic Press, 1979.
- Scanzoni, J. Confidential Questionnaire. Unpublished material, 1981.
- Scanzoni, J., & Szinovacz, M. Family decision making: A developmental sex role model. Beverly Hill, Cal.: Sage Publications, 1980.
- Schein, E.H. Organizational socialization and the profession of management. Industrial Management Review, 1968, 9, 1-16.
- Schein, E.H. Organizational psychology. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1972.
- Schneider, B. Organizational climate: An essay. Personnel Psychology, 1975, 28, 447-479.
- Schwyhart, W.P., & Smith, P.C. Factors in the job involvement of middle managers. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1972, 56, 227-233.
- Shibutani, T. Reference groups as perspectives. American Journal of Sociology, 1955, 60, 562-569.
- Shostak, A.B. The impact of business on the meaning of work. In I. Berg (Ed.), The business of America (pp. 338-360). New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 1968.

- Smith, P.C., Kendall, L.M., & Hulin, C.L. The measurement of satisfaction in work and retirement. Chicago: Rand-McNally, 1969.
- Sofer, C. Men in mid-career: A study of British managers and technical specialists. London: Cambridge University Press, 1970.
- Staw, B. Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Morristown, N.J.: General Learning Press, 1976.
- Steers, R.M. Antecedents and outcomes of organizational commitment. Administrative Science Quarterly, 1977, 22, 46-56.
- Stevens, J.M., Beyer, J.M., & Trice, H.M. Assessing personal, role and organizational predictors of managerial commitment. Academy of Management Journal, 1978, 21, 380-396.
- Strauss, A. Negotiations: Varieties, contexts, processes and social order. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1978.
- Stryker, S. Symbolic interaction as an approach to family research. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 1959, 21, 111-119.
- Stryker, S. Identity salience and role performance: The relevance of symbolic interaction theory for family research. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 1968, 30, 558-564.
- Survey of working conditions (GPO No. 2916-0001). Ann Arbor, Michigan: University of Michigan, Survey Research Center, August, 1971.
- Taguiri, R. The concept of organizational climate. In R. Taguiri & G. Litwin (Eds.), Organizational climate: Explorations of a concept (pp. 9-32). Boston: Harvard University Press, 1968.
- Thibaut, J.W., & Kelley, H.H. The social psychology of groups. New York: Wiley, 1959.
- Tolman, E.C. Purposive behavior in animals and men. New York: Century (By permission of the University of California Press), 1932.
- Vaillant, G.E. Adaptations to life. Boston: Little & Brown, 1977.
- Van Maanen, J. Organizational careers: Some new perspectives. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1977.
- Voydanoff, P. Unemployment and family stress. In H. Lopata & J. Pleck (Eds.), Research in the interweave of social roles: Jobs and families (Vol. 3, pp. 239-250). Greenwich, Ct: JAI Press, Inc., 1983.
- Vroom, V.H. Ego involvement, job satisfaction and job performance. Personnel Psychology, 1962, 15, 159-177.

- Vroom, V.H. Work and motivation. New York: Wiley Press, 1964.
- Waller, W., & Hill, R. The family. New York: Dryden Press, 1951  
(Originally published in 1939).
- Walster, E., Walster, G.W., & Berscheid, E. Equity: Theory and research. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1978.
- Weiner, Y., & Vardi, Y. Relationship between job, organization and career commitments and work outcomes: An integrative approach. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 1980, 26, 81-96.
- Wilensky, H.L. Orderly careers and social participation: The impact of work history on social integration in the middle mass. American Sociological Review, 1961, 26, 521-539.
- Zablocki, B.D., & Kanter, R.M. The differentiation of life-styles. Annual Review of Sociology, 1976, 2, 269-298.
- Zartman, I.W. The analysis of negotiation. In I.W. Zartman (Ed.), The fifty percent solution. New York: Anchor Books, 1976.

## APPENDIX

	Page
Preliminary Letter . . . . .	120
Cover Letter . . . . .	121
Questionnaire . . . . .	122

### Preliminary Letter

The following is a copy of the preliminary memo which was distributed in one of the participating organizations. Each company composed its own letter, following guidelines suggested by the investigator.

#### UNC-G MANAGEMENT WORK STUDY

(Company Name) has agreed to cooperate with the Family Research Center of the University of North Carolina at Greensboro in its "Management Work Study." This is a research project with the objective of finding out how companies such as ours succeed in satisfying the needs of employees.

You have been included in this study as part of a group of employees who are within your management level. Within the next two weeks, you will receive a short letter from the UNC-G Family Research Center and a questionnaire. In the letter you will be asked to participate in this special study. The decision to participate is yours to make at that time.

The Family Research Center has assured us that it will provide you with complete anonymity, since neither it nor (Company Name) is at all interested in the identity of any particular respondent. The sole concern of the study is with the larger issue of understanding and satisfying employee needs.

# **FAMILY RESEARCH CENTER**

*Department of Child Development and Family Relations*  
University of North Carolina  
GREENSBORO, N. C. 27412

Dear                      Employee:

                    has agreed to cooperate in our Management Work Study. This is a research project we are conducting to find out how well organizations succeed in satisfying the needs of employees.

Your response is vital to the success of this survey. The enclosed questionnaire is designed to capture your opinions about your work situation. Your answers are very important, whether or not you have strong feelings on an issue.

We have agreed with                      that you are to be provided with complete anonymity. Therefore, it will not be possible to identify any individual respondent. Not even we will know who returned any particular questionnaire and                      will only be provided with general summary data with no access to any completed questionnaires. For these reasons, you may rest assured that you may be as frank and open as possible, whether your answers are favorable or unfavorable. It is simply important for us to know how you feel.

We hope you will fill out the questionnaire in the next few days and return it to us in the enclosed self-addressed and stamped reply envelope. We realize that many of you will be interested in the results of this survey to see how your views corresponded to those of the other respondents. We would be happy to furnish a report of our major findings. To request your copy, please write to us at the above address.

We look forward to receiving your questionnaire. Thank you for your cooperation.

Sincerely yours,

  
Leona Bard,  
Project Director

FAMILY RESEARCH CENTER  
MANAGEMENT WORK STUDY  
1982

ABOUT YOU

1. a) What is your age? \_\_\_\_\_ b) Sex male \_\_\_\_\_ female \_\_\_\_\_
2. How many years have you been with the Company? \_\_\_\_\_
3. What is the highest educational degree or diploma you have earned? \_\_\_\_\_  
In what area of study? \_\_\_\_\_  
Have you done additional coursework? Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_\_  
In what area? \_\_\_\_\_

ABOUT YOUR WORK SITUATION

4. Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements. (Please circle one number for each statement.)

	<u>Strongly Agree</u>	<u>Tend to Agree</u>	<u>Not Sure</u>	<u>Tend to Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly Disagree</u>
a) I feel that I can trust this Company to make policies which are beneficial to the employees .....	1	2	3	4	5
b) I am really proud to work for this Company ...	1	2	3	4	5
c) Hard work and ingenuity are eventually rewarded at this Company .....	1	2	3	4	5
d) The morale of the employees seems to be diminishing .....	1	2	3	4	5
e) The Company seems to try to be fair in choosing people for promotions .....	1	2	3	4	5
f) I think higher management is sincerely concerned about the needs and interests of the employees .....	1	2	3	4	5
g) I would like to leave this Company .....	1	2	3	4	5
h) Promotions seem to depend more upon whom you know than what you know .....	1	2	3	4	5
i) I feel that I am better off at this Company than I would be at any other .....	1	2	3	4	5
j) I am disappointed with this Company but I cannot leave now .....	1	2	3	4	5

5. Please consider your present position within the structure of the Company and indicate how you feel about it. (Please circle one number.)

I find myself presently in a position which is:

- |   |   |
|---|---|
| a) One which I had hoped to achieve ..... | 1 |
| b) Where I think I should be .....        | 2 |
| c) Less than what I had hoped for .....   | 3 |
| d) A real disappointment to me .....      | 4 |

6. Please clarify the above by indicating your agreement or disagreement with the following (Please circle one number for each statement.):

	<u>Strongly Agree</u>	<u>Tend to Agree</u>	<u>Not Sure</u>	<u>Tend to Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly Disagree</u>
a) My present position makes excellent use of my particular abilities .....	1	2	3	4	5
b) I see this position as temporary, a stepping stone in my career development .....	1	2	3	4	5
c) I feel that I have a lot of unrecognized ability which this position does not take advantage of .....	1	2	3	4	5
d) I feel that my opportunities for advancement are dwindling away .....	1	2	3	4	5
e) I believe the Company usually succeeds in assigning people to jobs for which they are best suited .....	1	2	3	4	5
f) I worry about whether my hard work will ever be rewarded .....	1	2	3	4	5
g) Even when my supervisor is sympathetic to my concerns, there seems to be little he can do to help .....	1	2	3	4	5
h) My present position indicates that I am well thought of and have a real "future" at this Company .....	1	2	3	4	5

7. How would you rate your Company in providing information about the following (Please circle one number for each statement.):

	<u>Excellent</u>	<u>Good</u>	<u>Fair</u>	<u>Poor</u>
a) Your value as an individual to the Company ...	1	2	3	4
b) What you need to do to help you advance in your career goals .....	1	2	3	4
c) Your job performance .....	1	2	3	4
d) Clarification for improving areas of weakness .....	1	2	3	4

8. At this particular point in your career, please rank the following statements (using ranks 1 through 4) in order of their importance to you.

- Most important ..... 1
- Next in importance ..... 2
- Not very important ..... 3
- Least important ..... 4

- a) Being able to rely upon the Company to recognize and reward hard work ..... ( )
- b) Being able to take pride in what you do ..... ( )
- c) Being part of a Company that is well thought of ..... ( )
- d) Feeling that your particular job is important to the Company ..... ( )



## ABOUT YOUR PARTICULAR JOB

9. Looking closely at the kinds of things you do in your daily work, how often do you . . .

(Please circle one number for each statement.)

	<u>Very Often</u>	<u>Fairly Often</u>	<u>Once in A While</u>	<u>Rarely</u>	<u>Never</u>
a) Feel satisfied with your particular job . . . . .	1	2	3	4	5
b) Find your job to be tedious or boring . . . . .	1	2	3	4	5
c) Think you would feel able to recommend a job like yours to a friend interested in that kind of work . . . . .	1	2	3	4	5
d) Feel you would take the job you have again, if you had to decide again, knowing what you know now . . . . .	1	2	3	4	5
e) Feel your job doesn't really measure up to what you wanted when you took it . . . . .	1	2	3	4	5
f) Feel disappointed about your job and wish it could be different . . . . .	1	2	3	4	5
g) Feel you would like to transfer to a more fulfilling or interesting job at the Company . . . .	1	2	3	4	5
h) Find that your job makes you feel good about your ability to make a meaningful contribution to the Company . . . . .	1	2	3	4	5
i) Feel that your job really makes a difference in how well the Company does . . . . .	1	2	3	4	5
j) Think you might like to remain exactly where you are . . . . .	1	2	3	4	5

## ABOUT YOUR WORK HABITS

10. Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements.

	<u>Strongly Agree</u>	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly Disagree</u>
a) I'll stay overtime to finish a job, even if I'm not paid for it . . . . .	1	2	3	4
b) You can measure a person pretty well by how good a job he does . . . . .	1	2	3	4
c) The major satisfaction in my life comes from my job . . . . .	1	2	3	4
d) For me, mornings at work really fly by . . . . .	1	2	3	4
e) I usually show up for work a little early, to get things ready . . . . .	1	2	3	4

	<u>Strongly Agree</u>	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly Disagree</u>
f) The most important things that happen to me involve my work .....	1	2	3	4
g) Sometimes I lie awake at night thinking ahead to the next day's work .....	1	2	3	4
h) I'm really a perfectionist about my work .....	1	2	3	4
i) I feel depressed when I fail at something connected with my job .....	1	2	3	4
j) I have other activities more important than my work .....	1	2	3	4
k) I live, eat, and breathe my job .....	1	2	3	4
l) I would probably keep working even if I didn't need the money .....	1	2	3	4
m) Quite often, I feel like staying home from work instead of coming in .....	1	2	3	4
n) To me, my work is only a small part of who I am .....	1	2	3	4
o) I am very much involved personally in my work .....	1	2	3	4
p) I avoid taking on extra duties and responsibilities in my work .....	1	2	3	4
q) I used to be more ambitious about my work than I am now .....	1	2	3	4
r) Most things in life are more important than work .....	1	2	3	4
s) I used to care more about my work, but now other things are more important to me .....	1	2	3	4
t) Sometimes I'd like to kick myself for the mistakes I make in my work .....	1	2	3	4

**THANK YOU FOR YOUR HELP**

Please return the completed questionnaire in the enclosed envelope to:

The Family Research Center  
 University of North Carolina  
 Greensboro, N.C. 27412

Attention: Leona Bard