A Sex Comparison of Job Satisfaction for Middle Management: Individual and Organizational Influences

Lesley J. Harlow

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A SEX COMPARISON OF
JOB SATISFACTION FOR MIDDLE MANAGEMENT:
INDIVIDUAL AND ORGANIZATIONAL INFLUENCES

BY

LESLEY J. HARLOW
B.A., New York University, 1975

THESIS
Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science: Industrial Psychology in the Graduate Studies Program of the College of Social Sciences of University of Central Florida at Orlando, Florida

Spring Quarter 1979
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author would like to thank Drs. Wayne Burroughs, Randy Fisher and Ed Shirkey for counsel and assistance in the planning and writing of this paper.

Special thanks are also due to Mitchell Siegel for his continuous support and assistance in the completion of this project.
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INTRODUCTION

Job satisfaction has long been a popular area of research and theory because of its implications for predicting worker performance and, ultimately, organizational success. It has been used as a predictor of such criteria as turnover, absence rates, lateness, grievance submission, productivity (output) and other performance factors. Theorists (Birchall & Wild, 1977; Boyd, 1975; Glenn, Taylor & Weaver, 1977; Herman, Dunham & Hulin, 1975; Kalanidhi, 1973; Korman, 1968, 1971; MacEachron, 1977; Porter & Lawler, 1965; Prybil, 1973; Ronan, 1970; Suzansky, 1975; Tatro, 1975; Wanous, 1973) have been concerned with the establishment of individual and organizational influences effect on satisfaction with work. That is, they have examined individuals' background influence on job satisfaction and the effects of organization structure, i.e., department and hierarchy structure, influence on job satisfaction.

Recently, there has been an increase in the study of job satisfaction for women as a steady increase of females in the labor market has spurred the demand for such information. The majority of studies that have dealt with female populations have examined those in low-level and

The lack of examination of women in management is regrettable as the 1964 Civil Rights Act and its amendments, along with the increase of Equal Employment Opportunity and Affirmative Action programs have stimulated female participation in many levels of the labor market.
Today, more than ever, women hold jobs that are highly responsible, supervisory and expert in nature. Due to their increases, employers and researchers have recognized the need to understand many aspects of their leadership behavior. The influence of sex roles (Megaree, 1969), mixed sex competitive groups (Vinacke & Gullickson, 1964), influence on subordinates' attitudes toward them (Bartol, 1974; Denmarke & Diggory, 1966; Rosen & Jerdee, 1973), motivation (Miner, 1974, a,b; Saleh & Lalljee, 1969; Schuler, 1975) and other areas have been investigated. These studies serve an important function in assisting in selection and promotion of women into managerial positions. Job satisfaction studies are needed to provide further implications on the effects of middle management level jobs on women's job satisfaction and, further, on the success of their performance.

In order to understand job satisfaction there is a need to determine the antecedent conditions which lead to high or low satisfaction. Porter and Lawler (1965) established in their review of organizational influences on satisfaction that organizational level, line and staff hierarchies, and departments or subunit size all effect satisfaction. They found that there was a positive relationship between height of the job level within the hierarchy and job satisfaction. MacEachron (1977) and Hulin and Smith (1964) found this factor to have a positive
effect on job satisfaction as well. Hulin and Smith (1964) stated that high job levels and the higher wages that go with these jobs generally contribute to higher job satisfaction. It is, therefore, important to maintain job level as a constant in order to minimize job satisfaction difference that might be incurred from testing those individuals who may be at greatly varying occupational levels. Herman, Dunham and Hulin's (1975) study substantiated the preceding idea. They found that subjects who held similar positions in the organizational structure reported similar satisfaction with their work. These authors state that location in the organization, along with demographic characteristics, is an important influence on subject liking for the work environment. However, Prybil (1973) found evidence that did not substantiate the relationship between satisfaction and occupational level when comparing professional librarians, clerical workers and service personnel.

Other researchers have looked at organizational effects in regard to subunit locations. Wild and Dawson (1973) found few consistent differences when comparing departments of female manual workers. Skvorc (1975) examined males and females in the engineering and technology division of a consumer products corporation. She found that the women experience significantly lower job satisfaction because the division was male-oriented and
dominated in the power structure. This latter study gives food for thought regarding the varying influences that may occur on satisfaction despite the fact that job level would be held constant. Within the present study of the organizational influences on job satisfaction the effects of the different departments in different divisions of a large national corporation will be taken into account.

The total environment and the extent to which it effects satisfaction have been examined. Nahm (1950) found an association between changes in the environmental situation and the extent to which student nurses were satisfied. Tatro (1975) found a significant positive correlation between nurses' perceptions of organizational climate (work position, work unit and tenure) and job satisfaction. The previously stated examination of organizational characteristics' influence on job satisfaction supports the contention that there is a need to look at the structural characteristics as well as the individual's characteristics as they relate to sex comparisons. It is necessary, therefore, to match the male and female subjects in terms of their departments.

The importance of the sex variable cannot be taken as a single variable, but must be considered along with several individual characteristics which serve in combination to influence satisfaction. Researchers have examined several individual characteristics which serve in combination to influence satisfaction. Researchers have examined
several biographical variables including marital status, number of dependents (children), education and tenure. Marital status is often coupled with the influence of children (Boyd, 1975; Gannon & Hendrickson, 1973; Glatt, 1966; Hall, 1975; Hall & Gordon, 1973; Haller & Rosenmayer, 1971; Herman, Dunham & Hulin, 1975; Hill, 1969; Kalanidhi, 1973; Montano, 1974; Nichols, 1971; Wild, 1969). Montano's (1974) study demonstrated that satisfaction was affected by the moderating influences of family variables of married nurses. Nichols' (1971) study found no differences in satisfaction of male and female nurses, married and unmarried. In his study of female manual workers, Wild (1969) noted a higher dissatisfaction rate among those who were single. Boyd (1975) found no significant difference between marital status and three areas of job satisfaction. These areas included intrinsic (factors inherent in the work) job satisfaction, extrinsic (environmental factors) job satisfaction, and total job satisfaction. For all the groups examined in Hall and Gordon's (1973) research, home pressures were the most important contributors to experienced conflict, low satisfaction and low happiness. Professional men and women were found to be somewhat similar (Glatt, 1966), but differences were mostly attributable to marital status. It is difficult to reach general conclusions regarding the influence of marital status with such contradictory evidence based on extremely different occupational groups.
The effects of a family on a woman's satisfaction with her job and career cannot be easily ignored. A lifestyle which demands different roles as a wife, mother and successful career woman serve to add conflicts and pressures that are not found for single women in middle management positions. Yet, single career women must sacrifice these roles which create pressures from societal norms and conflict with their own desires in order to sustain complete mobility and dedication toward their work. However, Gannon and Hendrickson (1973) found that working wives with a strong family orientation were just as likely to be committed to the job as those with a relatively small degree of family orientation. When examining the work commitment of clothing workers and saleswomen, Haller and Rosenmayer (1971) found an increase in work commitment after they had children. They base this result, partially, on the fact that their work role served as a vehicle for carrying out traditionally assigned responsibilities. The subject populations in the above stated studies came from occupations which were low in responsibility and from female-dominated occupations, i.e., clerks, office workers, and saleswomen. Different results may arise from a female population in a male-dominated field.

In order to be considered for management positions, women are likely to be different from men with regards to education, tenure, and frequency of promotion. Educational
attainment has been examined for its influences on adjustment, job involvement, motivation, and especially, satisfaction (Boyd, 1975; Hall & Gordon, 1973; Herman, Dunham & Hulin, 1975; Hill, 1971; Nahm, 1948; Ronan, 1970; Tatro, 1975; Wild, 1969). In her study mentioned above which compared educational attainment to the three kinds of job satisfaction, i.e., internal, external and overall job satisfaction, Boyd (1975), overall, did not find any degree of relationship between educational attainment and any of the three satisfactions. Hall and Gordon (1973) drew their sample from alumnae clubs in a large college town for which they related the factor of being college-educated as being related to greater adjustment and satisfaction. Their study, however, failed to control for occupational level or differing occupations. In their studies of nurses, Hill (1971) and Nahm (1948) had similar findings. In Nahm's (1948) study of student nurses, freshmen subjects scored significantly higher in satisfaction than upperclassmen. Hill's (1971) study compared satisfaction levels of nurses with baccalaureate degrees, diplomas and associate degrees. He found that those nurses with baccalaureate degrees to be the least satisfied with their jobs while the nurses holding only an associate degree were the most satisfied. In his review of individual and situational variables as they effect job satisfaction, Ronan (1970) concluded that education and age
are important influences on determining the level of job satisfaction.

As a result of governmental pressures to hire women at all levels of the organization, there is likely to be found a larger percentage of women than men holding advanced business degrees and with greater success in college (grade point average and honor societies). In order for women to be regarded as potential successes in middle management positions, they must be exceptionally competent (Amir, 1969). Along with their greater academic accomplishments it is predicted that they would have shorter lengths of service (tenure) and faster promotions than those of men at the same job level. Studies have examined tenure's influence on satisfaction in previous years. Those which involve women include Haun (1975), Hill (1969), Hopkins (1977), Hulin and Smith (1964), Suzansky (1975) and Wild (1969). Hill (1969) and Hopkins (1977) had contradictory results as to the significance of tenure to job satisfaction. Hill's (1966) study dealt with a population of factory workers and found a significant positive relationship between the tenure variable and job satisfaction. Hopkins (1977) drew his sample of women from what he termed a male-dominated job, i.e., sales. In his study of female manual workers, Wild (1969) found greater dissatisfaction for those women with shorter lengths of service. Haun's (1975) study of work satisfaction of
women leaders in higher education established that recency of appointment was attributable to satisfaction in over half the sample.

The Haun (1975) study lays the groundwork for the influence of tenure for women in positions of leadership where they had not had power before. It is predicted, therefore, that women in management positions will have higher satisfaction levels because of the recency of their being hired and promoted into higher levels of management more quickly. Where once a woman achieved such occupational levels after years of hard work and dedication, the pressure from outside sources, i.e., the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, to make all organizational levels more sexually homogeneous has sped up the process of advancement.

Farley's (1974) comprehensive survey of male and female workers on Cornell's campus sheds light on the influence of occupations in fields that are not traditional to a particular sex group's work satisfaction. She found that women in "men's fields" were likely to be less satisfied than women in occupations traditional to their sex. She also noted that 7 percent of the women with Masters degrees held professional jobs while 33 percent of the men with Masters degrees held professional jobs. It might be concluded from this result that women managers would also have lower levels of job satisfaction because they are in
a field considered to be male-dominated. On the other hand, Hulin and Smith (1964) concluded that women are less satisfied than men in their jobs because they are usually placed in lower level jobs which have a lower pay scale and which offer fewer promotional opportunities. It would, therefore, seem likely that women who have achieved mid-management level which offers greater pay and more promotional opportunities would derive more satisfaction from these variables. Female managers would view their occupational level as an achievement to be proud of and for which their efforts are highly rewarded.

When looking at organizational and demographic influences on job satisfaction there is a need to consider individual personality or psychological characteristics. Maslow's (1954) theory of need hierarchy is often coupled with job satisfaction in order to examine the effects of organizational level and occupation on the degree to which levels of the hierarchy are satisfied.

Briefly, Maslow's model uses as its framework the assumption that man is need-oriented. These needs are arranged in a hierarchy from lowest to highest with man attempting to satisfy the lower needs first. After the lower needs are satisfied, one looks for methods to fulfill the higher needs. Following the fulfillment of the physiological, safety, and belongingness or social needs, man is oriented toward his esteem needs and, finally, the
need for self-actualization. Esteem needs represent the needs for self-respect, the respect of other people and for a stable, positive self-evaluation. One who has attained these needs would be considered, and would consider himself to be confident, knowledgeable, competent and independent.

The state of these needs' fulfillment may vary between individuals holding the same job depending upon the psychological assessment of the importance of these needs to their overall satisfaction. Hence, many moderators can come into play to affect the relationship between job satisfaction and individual needs. In recent years there has been an increase in the attention placed on situations which maximize cognitive balance. For example, low-self-esteem individuals may not view situations in which they have been rewarded as balanced. Thus, situations in which low-self-esteem individuals are competent can create cognitive imbalance. Korman (1971) views self-esteem levels as an important psychological variable that acts as a moderator on a worker's job satisfaction.

Several authors have considered the moderating effects of self-esteem (Bass, Krusell & Alexander, 1971; Jacobs & Solomon, 1977; Korman, 1968, 1971). Korman (1971) postulated that a person who has low self-esteem is more strongly influenced by a reference group's conception of that individual for what is proper and which
equates with the group's perception of what makes up the individual. He theorizes that "there should be a positive relationship between need fulfillment and overall job satisfaction for high-self-esteem individuals but not for low" (p. 152). This means that a low-self-esteem individual may not be happy with rewards because he does not believe that he has earned them. Hence, the situation creates cognitive dissonance between the negative perceptions he has of himself and the positive rewards he receives from those with positive perceptions of him. This might lead to feelings of unhappiness or uneasiness.

Jacobs and Solomon (1977) found self-esteem to have a positive moderating effect on the satisfaction and performance relationship. It is, however, Korman's (1971) belief that high-self-esteem individuals' job satisfaction is greatly determined by the extent that a situation meets an individual's conception of himself in "terms of his ability to satisfy his needs and be competent in terms of being in balance with these cognitions" (p. 154).

Bass, Krusell, and Alexander (1971) conjecture that it is possible that male managers may experience loss of esteem when women are given positions comparable to their own. This concept, along with the idea that individuals (especially women) must have a high self-esteem in order to take on supervisory positions, leads to the prediction that women will have higher self-esteem levels than their
male counterparts.

In view of the findings discussed above this study was designed to investigate the following hypotheses:

1. With job level held constant women experience higher levels of job satisfaction than men when occupying middle management positions.

2. Certain demographic variables lead to significant mean differences between male and female middle managers.
   a. Significantly fewer women than men will be married.
   b. Male managers will have significantly more children than female managers.
   c. Tenure and amount of time spent at each level will be significantly shorter for women than for men occupying middle management positions.
   d. Women in middle management positions will have a significantly greater amount of education than male managers.

3. Certain demographic variables have a stronger influence on the satisfaction of female managers than the male managers.
   a. Marital status has more of a negative influence on satisfaction of women than on the satisfaction of men.
   b. The influence of children on job
15

satisfaction will be significantly greater for women than on the satisfaction of men.

c. Tenure and amount of time spent at each level will have a significantly greater influence on the job satisfaction for women than for men.

d. Education level attainment will have significantly more of a negative influence on female managers' job satisfaction than male managers' satisfaction.

4. There will be no significant difference in the influence of subunit size on satisfaction for men or women.

5. Women will have significantly higher self-esteem levels than men occupying similar positions.

6. Self-esteem accounts for significantly more of the variance of job satisfaction for women than for men.
METHODOLOGY

Sample

The workers included in this analysis were given a guarantee of complete anonymity in all cases. It was stressed that their individual results would never be known to the company officials.

They were drawn by taking those who had been participants in a managerial assessment center held by a large southeastern corporation. All the women who had participated were contacted as they were much fewer in number than the males. The male participants were selected randomly although department was considered in order to match the females in organizational influences.

The sampling procedure used yielded a population of 13 women and 24 men.

Measure of Job Satisfaction

The device used to measure job satisfaction in this study was developed by Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969). The Job Description Index (JDI) (Appendix A) is an adjective checklist on which each worker is asked to describe several aspects of his job by means of a "yes," "?,” or "no" response to each of the adjectives. The aspects of the job which the workers describe are their work, pay
promotional opportunities, supervision, and co-workers.

Each response to each adjective in the final form of the JDI has been item analyzed against total scale scores to determine the proper scoring direction. Items were retained which discriminated significantly for both male and female workers separately. Each of these satisfaction dimensions has been shown to have high convergent and discriminant validity (Smith, Kendall & Hulin, 1969). The test designers recommend that each dimension should be analyzed separately. This recommendation was followed because the five subscales are unrelated.

Measure of Self-Esteem

The Texas Social Behavior Inventory (Helmreich, Strapp & Ervin, 1974) is a measure of self-esteem and social competence which contains 32 items (Appendix B). Each item has five response alternatives ranging from "not at all characteristic of me" to "very characteristic of me." Each item is given a score from 0 to 4 with 0 representing the response associated with lower self-esteem and 4 associated with highest self-esteem.

Demographic Data Sheet—Individual and Organizational

A demographic data sheet (Appendix C) was distributed to the individuals which covered the areas of sex, marital status, number of dependents or children, educational level attained, tenure, length of time in each
level of management held within the company, and the number of employees which reported to the manager (directly or indirectly) or subunit size.

Procedure

A list of the past participants of the annual managerial assessment center was acquired and the measures were mailed out to them. All the women in the group were contacted while the men were selected on a random basis with the only restriction being that they match the women on department and occupational level. Four males for every female were contacted since it was thought that the men would be less enthusiastic and expedient in returning the measures promptly. That is, the nature of the study would be of more interest to the female participants because of the assistance they might provide in supplying information that is useful for women in middle management positions in the future.

Statistical Analysis

In order to investigate the difference between male and female managers' job satisfaction, comparison of the mean scores for the five JDI subscales was performed using $t$ tests. The $t$ test method was also used for examining the differences between the sexes' tenure, amount of time at each level (pattern of promotion), number of children, marital status, and education level attainment. Marital
status was assigned code numbers with 0 representing single and 1 representing married. Education level attainment was also assigned a number code with 0 representing no high school diploma and 5 representing graduate school diploma.

Ten step-wise multiple regression analyses were used in order to examine the influence of the demographic and organizational variables on each satisfaction subscale for each sex. A total of 11 predictors was examined in order to determine their influence on job satisfaction. In addition, a correction for shrinkage was performed on the female $R^2$'s.

Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated in order to examine the influence of self-esteem and educational attainment on each of the five satisfaction subscales. The standard error of the difference for these correlations was calculated in order to rest for the significance of differences between correlations for the two sexes.
RESULTS

Hypothesis 1 stated that women experience higher levels of job satisfaction than men when both groups are at the same management level. As can be seen in Table 1 none of the comparisons of means on the five JDI subscales was found to be significantly different.

Hypothesis 2 was that certain demographic variables lead to significant mean differences between male and female middle managers:

a. Significantly fewer women than men will be married.

b. Male managers will have significantly more children than female managers.

c. Tenure and amount of time spent at each level will be significantly shorter for women than for men occupying middle management positions.

d. Women in middle management positions will have a significantly greater amount of education than male managers.

Data relevant to hypothesis 2 are presented in Table 2. This table displays the demographic predictor's means, standard deviations and the results of t tests between males and females.
TABLE 1
MEAN DIFFERENCE ANALYSIS RESULTS FOR MALE AND FEMALE MANAGERS' JOB SATISFACTION SCORES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Satisfaction Subscale</th>
<th>Men (n=24)</th>
<th>Women (n=13)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work</td>
<td>42.58</td>
<td>4.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pay</td>
<td>41.17</td>
<td>9.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>35.33</td>
<td>15.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervision</td>
<td>44.38</td>
<td>9.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-workers</td>
<td>46.58</td>
<td>4.47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE 2
MEAN DIFFERENCE ANALYSIS RESULTS FOR THE DEMOGRAPHIC, ORGANIZATIONAL, AND SELF-ESTEEM VARIABLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictors</th>
<th>Men (n=24)</th>
<th>Women (n=13)</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital Status</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Children</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenure</td>
<td>14.44</td>
<td>4.55</td>
<td>13.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Years at Nonmanagement</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>2.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Years at First Level Management</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>2.70</td>
<td>3.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Years at Second Level Management</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td>3.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Years at Third and Fourth Level Management</td>
<td>7.75</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>3.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amount of Education</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>3.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subunit Size</td>
<td>179.33</td>
<td>269.69</td>
<td>49.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-esteem</td>
<td>98.88</td>
<td>10.01</td>
<td>106.08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

p < .05
In order to test hypothesis 2a a t test was computed comparing the marital status scores for men and women. Significantly more men than women were married \((t=1.72, p<.05)\). Therefore, this hypothesis was supported. Also, male managers had significantly more children than the female managers \((t=5.13, p<.05)\), thereby confirming hypothesis 2b.

Table 2 illustrates that there was no significant difference between men and women's tenure. However, the t test showed a significant difference between the males and females for number of years spent at nonmanagement positions \((t=2.98, p<.05)\). Women, therefore, spent a significantly greater amount of time at this level. There were no significant differences between the men and women for the amount of time spent at first or second level management positions. There was, however, a significant difference between the groups for time spent at third and fourth level management positions \((t=3.35, p<.05)\). In this case, men spent a significantly longer period of time at these positions than did women. The great differences of the women's promotion patterns, in addition to the significantly longer period at nonmanagement level, indicate partial support for hypothesis 2c. In addition, the nonsignificant differences at first and second level management along with the nonsignificant differences in tenure also provide the basis for the partial support of
Male managers were found to have significantly greater amounts of educational attainment than did female managers \( (t=2.77, p<0.05) \). Therefore, the data did not support hypothesis 2d.

Hypothesis 3 was that certain demographic variables have a stronger influence on the satisfaction of female managers than the male managers:

a. Marital status has more of a negative influence on satisfaction of women than on the satisfaction of men.

b. The influence of children on job satisfaction will be significantly greater for women than on the satisfaction of men.

c. Tenure and amount of time spent at each level will have a significantly greater influence on the job satisfaction for women than for men.

d. Education level attainment will have significantly more of a negative influence on female managers' job satisfaction than male managers' job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3a could not be analyzed in the step-wise multiple regression analyses because all the men were married. Since there was no variability in the male sample, the influence of marital status on job satisfaction between the two samples could not be analyzed.

Table 3 contains the results of the multiple regression analyses for men and women on the five criterion


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criterion Variable</th>
<th>Significant Predictor Variables</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>W</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>W</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Work</td>
<td>No predictor variables reached significance at the .10 level (N.S.)</td>
<td>1. Tenure</td>
<td>N.S.</td>
<td>2. Subunit size</td>
<td>N.S.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.76**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pay</td>
<td>1. Number of years at third and fourth level management</td>
<td>N.S.</td>
<td>.22**</td>
<td>N.S.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>N.S.</td>
<td>N.S.</td>
<td>N.S.</td>
<td>N.S.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervision</td>
<td>1. Number of children</td>
<td>1. Number of years at second level management</td>
<td>.34**</td>
<td>.18*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-workers</td>
<td>1. Number of children</td>
<td>2. Subunit size</td>
<td>N.S.</td>
<td>.26*</td>
<td>N.S.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Number of years at third and fourth level management</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**p < .05  
*p < .10
subscales. The variable, number of children, was found to influence satisfaction with supervision and co-workers to a greater extent for male managers than for female managers. This variable was retained in the regression equation for men but dropped out of the equation for women. Therefore, hypothesis 3b was not supported.

Tenure was found to have a greater influence on women's satisfaction with work than for the men. This variable was retained in the regression equation for women but dropped out of the equation for men. The second half of this hypothesis, that amount of time spent at each level would have a greater influence on the job satisfaction of women than for men, was not generally supported. For example, number of years spent at third and fourth level management was retained in the regression equation of satisfaction with pay and co-workers for male managers, but not for women. Meanwhile, number of years spent at second level management was found to influence satisfaction with supervision to a greater extent for female managers than for male managers. Number of years spent at nonmanagement and first level management positions was not retained in the regression equations for men or women. Therefore, women were not found to be consistently influenced by the number of years spent at each level.

Table 4 contains the statistical tests of the differences in correlations between education level
TABLE 4

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND EDUCATION LEVEL ATTAINMENT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Satisfaction</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>W</th>
<th>z-score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Work</td>
<td>.23</td>
<td>-.51</td>
<td>+2.07*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pay</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>-.35</td>
<td>1.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>-.18</td>
<td>+.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervision</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>-.33</td>
<td>+1.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-workers</td>
<td>-.12</td>
<td>-.42</td>
<td>+.85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05
attainment and job satisfaction for men and women. The difference tests (z tests) were not significant (p<.05) for satisfaction with pay, promotion, supervision and co-workers. However, a significant difference was found between males and females for satisfaction with work (z=2.07). Therefore, this hypothesis was partially supported.

Hypothesis 4 was that there would be no significant difference in the influence of subunit size on satisfaction for men or women. Table 3 illustrates that this variable was retained in the equation for the prediction of satisfaction with work for women. It was also a useful factor for predicting the satisfaction with supervision for men. This variable was not retained, however, in the equations for either men's or women's satisfaction with pay, promotion or co-workers. Therefore, this hypothesis was not generally supported.

Hypothesis 5 stated that women will have higher self-esteem levels than men occupying similar positions. In order to test this hypothesis T.S.B.I. scores were compared. Mean scores for men and women were 98.88 and 106.08, respectively (Table 2). A comparison of these means yielded a t of 1.84 (p<.05). Thus, women scored significantly higher on the T.S.B.I.

The sixth hypothesis stated that self-esteem accounts for more of the variance in job satisfaction
women than for men. This predictor did not reach significance for any of the subscales of the JDI when it was entered into the step-wise multiple regression analyses (see Table 3). The results of the statistical tests of the differences in correlations between self-esteem and job satisfaction for men and women are shown in Table 5. The correlations of self-esteem and satisfaction with pay, promotion, supervision and co-workers were found not to be significantly different between men and women. The difference in the correlation of satisfaction with work and self-esteem between men and women was significant ($z=2.32, p<.05$). In addition, only the male managers' correlation between satisfaction with work and self-esteem was significantly different from zero ($r=-.45), p<.05$). Therefore, hypothesis 6 was not supported.


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Satisfaction</th>
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<th>W</th>
<th>z-score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Work</td>
<td>-.45†</td>
<td>.39</td>
<td>+2.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pay</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>-.23</td>
<td>+1.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>-.36</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>+ .95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervision</td>
<td>-.36</td>
<td>-.32</td>
<td>- .12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-workers</td>
<td>-.30</td>
<td>-.37</td>
<td>+1.81</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

†p < .05
* p < .05

TABLE 5
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND SELF-ESTEEM
DISCUSSION

The results of the research demonstrate that a sample of male and female managers do not differ significantly in job satisfaction. Although hypothesis 1 was not supported several factors may have influenced these results. First, because of an Affirmative Action program many women were promoted from within the company after many years of service while others were hired directly into management soon after graduation from college. This situation created two different groups within the sample of women.

Some of the women were young, unmarried and had recently received their degree from a graduate school. These women were hired at management level. There were other female managers who did not hold any college degree (one did not even have a high school diploma) and who were married and middle-aged. These women had worked many years in nonmanagement and first level management positions.

The above description of the two diverse groups of women is supported by the results of statistical tests relevant to the second hypothesis. These results are as follows:
a. Significantly more men than women were married.
b. Male managers had significantly more children.
c. The amount of time spent at third and fourth level management was significantly shorter for women. Meanwhile, women spent significantly longer amounts of time at nonmanagement level. Tenure and amount of time spent at first and second level management were not significantly different for the two samples.
d. Men had significantly higher levels of educational attainment than did women.

The inconsistent results of the statistical tests of hypothesis 2c were potentially influenced by the differences within the female sample. This may account for the means for women being higher than the means for men for number of years spent at nonmanagement first level management positions. The standard deviations for the female sample (Table 2) were, for all but number of children and years spent at third and fourth level, higher than those of the male sample. This demonstrates that the men in middle management positions tend to be more similar than the women in their personal and work backgrounds.

The same argument may also hold for the results of hypothesis 2d. Within the sample of women there were those with no college degree and then there were those with college and graduate degrees. Therefore, even though the mean for women (Table 2) was lower than the mean for
men, women evidenced a higher standard deviation than men.

The largely different backgrounds of the female managers may have potentially influenced the results of their satisfaction scores. An examination of the standard deviations for the two samples (Table 1) indicated that there was greater variability in the responses of the women than of the men for all of the five subscales. The male sample can, thus, be considered to be more similar, in terms of their satisfaction scores.

Another affect on the satisfaction results may be the small sample size for women. This general problem of small sample size may have affected other statistical results as well.

Hypothesis 3b dealt with the influence of the number of children on job satisfaction. As shown in Table 3, this variable reached significance as a predictor of men's satisfaction with supervision and co-workers at the .10 level but only was retained as a predictor for satisfaction with supervision at the .05 level. The number of children was not retained as a significant predictor of women's job satisfaction.

Women striving to have a successful career in positions formerly dominated by men may have to adopt lifestyles different from those of nonworking women and women in careers that are female-dominated. These women in management may need to work harder to prove that they are
capable of handling the duties of middle management positions. These positions require more than "putting in time" and because the jobs are salaried, work accomplished in the evenings and on weekends provides no additional income. Traveling might be an important part of some jobs. These women, therefore, may not feel that they have sufficient amounts of time and energy to successfully raise a family of even average size.

A possible reason for the fact that number of children affects the job satisfaction of male managers may be due to the liking for people. This result indicates a kind of general affiliative tendency because the number of children was retained in the regression analysis for satisfaction with supervision and co-workers. These are the only two satisfaction areas that deal directly with interpersonal relationships. This may indicate, therefore, that those male managers who like a lot of children have a tendency to like people in general.

Tenure was retained in the regression analysis for women's satisfaction with work. Possibly, this result can be attributed to women having the option of being "working women" or homemakers. Because of this option, women less satisfied with their jobs can turn to either becoming homemakers or finding new jobs. Those who remain on the job, and, thusly, accumulate many years with the company, may choose to do so because they like their jobs.
Another potential explanation for this result might be that women who stay longer and have less education may be more satisfied.

Number of years spent at second level management was retained in the regression analysis for women's satisfaction with supervision. This predictor was not significant at any level for any satisfaction subscale for men. The retention of this predictor may be due to the pattern of promotion for women which was different from that of the male managers. The older group of women have spent more years at nonmanagement and first level management than have the male managers. Meanwhile, the younger women have been hired at the management level and have been promoted more rapidly than the men. This pattern of promotion for women may cause them to be greatly influenced by their supervision at second level management which served as an example of successful third and fourth level management behavior.

The reason the variable number of years spent at third and fourth level was retained in the regression analysis for satisfaction with pay for male managers may be due to the usually high salaries paid at these positions. Higher salaries permit the male manager to provide for his family's needs and probably some luxuries as well. Being able to provide well for his family would, therefore, increase his self-esteem.
The significance of the same variable for the male managers' satisfaction with co-workers may be due to the similarities of these co-workers to the men when they are in third and fourth level management positions. Those people that the male managers come into contact with and work with may have the same needs and goals they do. These co-workers may also be successful in their fields and, thus, the male managers have more respect for them.

Hypothesis 3d was only partially supported. Only the correlations between work satisfaction and educational attainment were significantly different for the male and female samples (see Table 4). The large negative correlation for the female sample may indicate that women are less satisfied with their work as their education increases. Also, this result may be due to the more observed variability in the educational attainment for the women than for the men. This result may be due to the high standards of the well educated women for more challenging duties. This negative correlation is opposite from the male sample's positive correlation, thus, creating a significant difference.

None of the correlations between educational attainment and the five satisfaction subscales was significant for either men or women. The pattern of negative correlations for women (Table 4) may indicate that women with high levels of education are less satisfied with their jobs.
than are women with lower levels of education. Future studies might be warranted to examine this trend.

The variable subunit size was included in the regression analysis for satisfaction with work for the female managers. This result may be due to the uniqueness of the women's positions and, possibly, because for most of them this is the first opportunity to be responsible for a large number of subordinates. Subunit size was included in the regression analysis for satisfaction with supervision for the male managers. This result may be related to the large number of people ($\bar{x}=179.33$) that the male managers are responsible for. Therefore, they are probably under the supervision of someone with, perhaps, two or three times as many people reporting directly or indirectly to them. These superiors may have earned their subordinates' respect. In addition, the male managers in the sample may have high self-esteem because of the large number of people who must report to them.

The influence of other organizational variables, such as whether the employees were in line or staff positions, needs to be examined. In their review of organizational structure's influence on job attitude, Porter and Lawler (1963) emphasize the importance of the influence of these variables and expressed a need for investigation into this area.

In this study questionnaires were sent to all of the
women and to three men for every woman (matched by depart-
ment). In the female mailing list 41 percent occupied
staff positions and 59 percent held jobs in line areas of
the company. The overall mailing list of male managers
showed only 24 percent occupying staff positions and 76
percent in line positions. These percentages indicate
that 17 percent more women occupied staff positions than
did men. Because it was infeasible to ask the subjects to
identify their department without their fearing loss of
anonymity (hence, a loss of cooperation), the influence
of this variable could not be observed in the present
study. This variable could possibly account for a portion
of the satisfaction with the opportunities for promotion
and perhaps other areas of job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 5 which stated that women will have
higher self-esteem levels than men occupying similar
positions was supported. This result may be related to
the notion that women possess personality characteristics
different from those of men. A new group of individuals
who are promoted into a position traditionally occupied by
another group may need to be more dynamic and confident
in order to be considered capable of handling a super-

Another explanation for this result may be due to
women perceiving themselves as being different. Their
level of self-esteem may, therefore, increase because they
are aware that they are in a unique group of women. This idea is the opposite of social deprivation and might be considered social gratification (Harvey & Smith, 1977).

The argument that women may gain self-esteem because of their unique position may be relevant to the moderately positive correlation between self-esteem and satisfaction with work for women \((r=.39, p<.05)\). Although this correlation was not significantly different from zero, it was not significantly different from the correlation between self-esteem and satisfaction with work for the male sample.

The significant negative correlation of self-esteem and satisfaction with work for male managers may be due to the men's needs for challenge. As their self-esteem increases they consider themselves to be more knowledgeable and competent, thus, their jobs may not provide them with the opportunities to prove to themselves and others just how proficient they are in their work.

Perhaps most interesting of the findings were the opposite influences of self-esteem and education level attainments for the two samples. Male managers who evidenced high self-esteem also showed low satisfaction with their work. On the other hand, female managers who showed high self-esteem also evidenced high satisfaction with their work. Meanwhile, male managers showed higher levels of satisfaction with work as their education level
increased (see Tables 4 and 5). The reason these are listed is because the pattern is very different for the two samples.

A correlation between the variables—educational attainment and self-esteem—was \( r = .09 \) (\( p < .05 \)) for the male managers and \( r = -.37 \) (\( p < .05 \)) for the female managers. The difference in these correlations is not significant at the .05 level. Although these correlations were not significantly different from zero, the negative correlation for women is close to significance which may warrant explanation.

A possible explanation for the negative correlation between self-esteem and educational attainment for women may be due to the difference in the standards of achievement for the two different groups in the female sample. Those women who had started their careers at nonmanagement level and had been promoted, gradually, to third and fourth level management also had less education than the women hired at management level. Their self-esteem may tend to be high because they may view their success as a result of their own expertise and abilities. On the other hand, those women who had been hired at first and second level management, after completing college or graduate school, may have viewed their success as less pronounced and, perhaps, due to their degree rather than their good skills. They may, also, have viewed these duties as less
challenging than what they had been taught to handle. These unusual results definitely warrant further investigation.

The results of the influence of the self-esteem variable on job satisfaction (Table 5) indicate that other moderating variables may be involved in determining job satisfaction. The sex variable may moderate the effects of self-esteem on job satisfaction. The male and female samples both had high levels of self-esteem. Korman (1971) explains that for high self-esteem individuals job satisfaction is determined by the job situation. If the job situation provides the individual with the ability to meet his needs and keep his self-concept in balance, then his job satisfaction may increase. Therefore, the situation may be influencing the job satisfaction for these high self-esteem subjects rather than the self-esteem variable.

Future endeavors to examine the difference of satisfaction between sexes must have more control over the female sample. It would prove beneficial to such a study to separate the distinctly different groups of women. One would have the women who are older and who have longer tenure and the other group would consist of young women with a college education who have recently joined the organization. Perhaps when more women have been promoted and have entered the job market there would be a large
enough sample size to permit an examination in the differences between these two groups of female managers.

In light of these results, future investigations should examine the influence of staff versus line positions on job satisfaction. The differences between those female managers with a great deal of tenure and male managers should be examined. In addition, the differences between those female managers with only a few years with the company and male managers should be investigated. These two comparisons may prove to be quite different. As stated above, a comparison between the two groups of female managers may shed some light on the above results. Perhaps, most interesting would be an investigation of the contradictory correlations for self-esteem and educational attainment influence on work satisfaction for men and women. If this research has not answered many of the questions regarding the differences between men and women at middle management, it has undoubtedly raised quite a few.
APPENDIX A

JOB DESCRIPTION INDEX
THE JOB DESCRIPTIVE INDEX

CODE NUMBER

Company

City

Please fill in the above blanks and then turn the page.

Bowling Green State University, 1975
Think of your present work. What is it like most of the time? In the blank beside each word given below, write

\[ \checkmark \] for “Yes” if it describes your work

\[ X \] for “No” if it does NOT describe it

? if you cannot decide

**WORK ON PRESENT JOB**

- Fascinating
- Routine
- Satisfying
- Boring
- Good
- Creative
- Respected
- Hot
- Pleasant
- Useful
- Tiresome
- Healthful
- Challenging
- On your feet
- Frustrating
- Simple
- Endless
- Gives sense of accomplishment

*Go on to the next page*
Think of the opportunities for promotion that you have now. How well does each of the following words describe these? In the blank beside each word put

\( Y \) for "Yes" if it describes your opportunities for promotion

\( N \) for "No" if it does NOT describe them

\( ? \) if you cannot decide

**OPPORTUNITIES FOR PROMOTION**

- Good opportunities for promotion
- Opportunity somewhat limited
- Promotion on ability
- Dead-end job
- Good chance for promotion
- Unfair promotion policy
- Infrequent promotions
- Regular promotions
- Fairly good chance for promotion

*Go on to the next page*
Think of the pay you get now. How well does each of the following words describe your present pay? In the blank beside each word, put

\( \checkmark \) if it describes your pay

\( N \) if it does NOT describe it

? if you cannot decide

-------------------------------

**PRESENT PAY**

- Income adequate for normal expenses
- Satisfactory profit sharing
- Barely live on income
- Bad
- Income provides luxuries
- Insecure
- Less than I deserve
- Highly paid
- Underpaid

*Now please turn to the next page*
Think of the kind of supervision that you get on your job. How well does each of the following words describe this supervision? In the blank beside each word below, put 
\( \bigcirc \) if it describes the supervision you get on your job
\( \times \) if it does NOT describe it
\( ? \) if you cannot decide.

**SUPERVISION ON PRESENT JOB**

\( \bigcirc \) Asks my advice
\( \bigcirc \) Hard to please
\( \times \) Impolite
\( \bigcirc \) Praises good work
\( \bigcirc \) Tactful
\( \times \) Influential
\( \bigcirc \) Up-to-date
\( \times \) Doesn't supervise enough
\( \bigcirc \) Quick tempered
\( \bigcirc \) Tells me where I stand
\( \times \) Annoying
\( \times \) Stubborn
\( \bigcirc \) Knows job well
\( \times \) Bad
\( \bigcirc \) Intelligent
\( \bigcirc \) Leaves me on my own
\( \bigcirc \) Around when needed
\( \bigcirc \) Lazy

Please go on to the next page.
Think of the majority of the people that you work with now or the people you meet in connection with your work. How well does each of the following words describe these people? In the blank beside each word below, put

\[ \begin{align*} \text{U} & \text{ if it describes the people you work with} \\
\text{N} & \text{ if it does NOT describe them} \\
? & \text{ if you cannot decide} \end{align*} \]

\[ \begin{align*} \text{PEOPLE ON YOUR PRESENT JOB} \\
\_ & \text{Stimulating} \\
\_ & \text{Boring} \\
\_ & \text{Slow} \\
\_ & \text{Ambitious} \\
\_ & \text{Stupid} \\
\_ & \text{Responsible} \\
\_ & \text{Fast} \\
\_ & \text{Intelligent} \\
\_ & \text{Easy to make enemies} \\
\_ & \text{Talk too much} \\
\_ & \text{Smart} \\
\_ & \text{Lazy} \\
\_ & \text{Unpleasant} \\
\_ & \text{No privacy} \\
\_ & \text{Active} \\
\_ & \text{Narrow interests} \\
\_ & \text{Loyal} \\
\_ & \text{Hard to meet} \end{align*} \]
APPENDIX B
TEXAS SOCIAL BEHAVIOR INVENTORY
TEXAS SOCIAL BEHAVIOR INVENTORY

The Texas Social Behavior Inventory is designed to gather background and social behavior data. Please answer on the accompanying answer sheet. Be sure to fill in your name and sex. Fill in the blank next to each number that corresponds with the statement's number on this questionnaire.

1. I am not likely to speak to people until they speak to me.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>a</th>
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<th>d</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>Slightly characteristic of me</td>
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<td>Very much characteristic of me</td>
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</table>

2. I would describe myself as socially unskilled.

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<th></th>
<th>a</th>
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</table>

3. I frequently find it difficult to defend my point of view when confronted with the opinions of others.

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<td>Very much characteristic of me</td>
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</table>

4. I would be willing to describe myself as a pretty "strong" personality.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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</table>

5. When I work on a committee I like to take charge of things.

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<thead>
<tr>
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</table>
6. I would describe myself as self-confident.

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7. I usually expect to succeed in the things I do.

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</table>

8. I feel confident of my appearance.

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</table>

9. I feel comfortable approaching someone in a position of authority over me.

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<tr>
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10. I am a good mixer.

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</table>

11. I enjoy being around other people, and seek out social encounters frequently.

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12. When in a group of people, I have trouble thinking of the right things to say.

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</table>
13. When in a group of people, I usually do what the others want rather than make suggestions.

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14. When I am in disagreement with other people, my opinion usually prevails.

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15. I feel confident of my social behavior.

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16. I feel I can confidently approach and deal with anyone I meet.

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17. I would describe myself as one who attempts to master situations.

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18. I would describe myself as happy.

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19. Other people look up to me.

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20. I enjoy being in front of large audiences.

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21. When I meet a stranger, I often think that he is better than I am.

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22. I enjoy social gatherings just to be with people.

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23. It is hard for me to start a conversation with strangers.

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24. People seem naturally to turn to me when decisions have to be made.

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25. I make a point of looking other people in the eye.

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26. I feel secure in social situations.

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27. I like to exert my influence over other people.

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28. I cannot seem to get others to notice me.

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29. I would rather not have very much responsibility for other people.

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30. I feel comfortable being approached by someone in a position of authority.

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31. I would describe myself as indecisive.

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32. I have no doubts about my social competence.

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APPENDIX C

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA SHEET--INDIVIDUAL AND ORGANIZATIONAL
SEX: M _____ F _____

MARITAL STATUS: Single _____ Married _____ Divorced _____
Widowed _____ Separated _____

LEVEL OF EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT:
High School Diploma _____
Some College ______
College Diploma _____
Some Graduate Training ______
Graduate Diploma _____

NUMBER OF CHILDREN: _____

NUMBER OF YEARS WITH THE COMPANY: _____

How long were you working in nonmanagement level positions? _____

How long did you work in first level management position(s)? _____

How long did you work in second level management position(s)? _____

How long did you work in third and fourth level positions? _____

How many employees are you responsible for? (Those that report to you directly and indirectly) _____
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