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Differences in job expectations, satisfactions, and rewards between White and Black middle managers in urban health care organizations.

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DIFFERENCES IN JOB EXPECTATIONS, SATISFACTIONS, AND REWARDS

BETWEEN WHITE AND BLACK MIDDLE MANAGERS

IN URBAN HEALTH CARE ORGANIZATIONS

A Dissertation Presented

by

CAROLE F. HYSMITH

Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

May, 1991

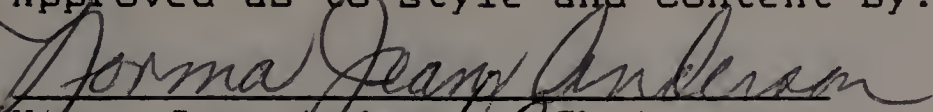School of Education

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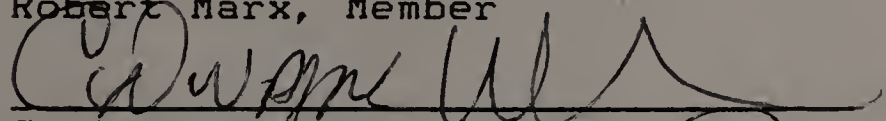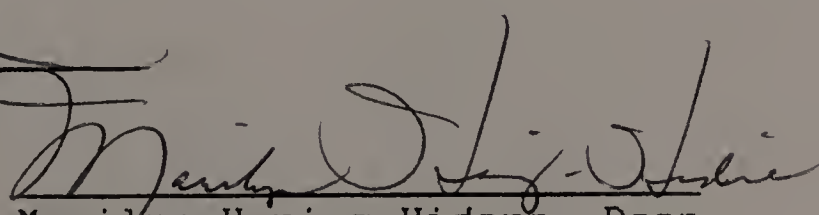
A Dissertation Presented

by

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

iv

ABSTRACT

DIFFERENCES IN JOB EXPECTATIONS, SATISFACTIONS, AND REWARDS

BETWEEN WHITE AND BLACK MIDDLE MANAGERS

IN URBAN HEALTH CARE ORGANIZATIONS

MAY, 1991

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The problem that was addressed in this study were
differences in job expectations, rewards, perceived criteria
for promotion, and relations with supervisors and staff
among black and white middle-level managers in health care.
Assessments on the influences of perceived expectations on
job satisfaction, satisfaction with rewards, and self-
perceived job performance were conducted.

The sample included 153 middle-level managers from
hospitals and health agencies in the United States. The
sample consisted of 104 (68.0%) females and 49 (32.0%)
males. Ninety-one (59.5%) respondents were white, 51
(33.3%) were African-American, and 11 (7.2%) were of other
racial or ethnic origins.

The hypotheses of the study were:

1. The variables of expectation of rewards, perceived criteria for promotion, and relations with supervisors and staff, will differentiate between black and white middle managers.

2. The greater perceived expectations the greater the job satisfaction.

3. The greater the perceived expectations the greater the satisfaction with rewards.

4. The greater the perceived expectations the greater the self-perceived job performance.

The four hypotheses were confirmed by the data. Black managers tended to view management's behavior relative to perceived expectations as less inclusive of staff, less fair, less concerned, and less competent than did white managers. Job satisfaction, extrinsic, intrinsic, social, and influence reward satisfactions were all related to perceived job-related expectations, with the sole variable of reward expectations being constant in each instance.

The similarities among extrinsic, intrinsic, and influence reward satisfactions were their relationship to management allowance of staff involvement. Extrinsic and social rewards were related to management fairness; intrinsic and influence rewards were related to the perception that promotion was based on performance, and social and influence rewards were related to staff

productivity. Social reward satisfactions were related to staff problem solving and staff concern. Job satisfaction was related to staff competence and staff problem solving behavior. Intrinsic reward satisfactions were related to staff participation, staff competence, management competence, management control and management orientation.

Quality of work as perceived by the respondent was not strongly related to the perceived job-related expectation variables. However, it was related to the perception that promotion was based on performance.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

As the United States shifts from white Protestant-dominated society to a multicultural multiethnic social order, the labor force is changing as well. Thomas (1990) reported that more than half the United States work force consists of minorities, immigrants, and women. White native-born males, though undoubtedly still dominant, are themselves a statistical minority. Thomas reported that white males will make up only 15% of the increase in the work force over the next ten years. The so-called "mainstream" is now almost as diverse as the society at large.

According to Kim (1989), between 1977 and 1982 alone, the Bureau of Labor Statistics report that the proportion of minority managers rose from 3.6% to 5.2%, an increase of nearly 45%. Also, EEO data from 1982 show that of all "officials and managers," 4.3% were blacks, including 1.6% black females. The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission Report in 1989 illustrated that blacks, Hispanics, Asians, and American Indians filled 27% of technical and clerical positions and 10.7% of managerial positions at hospitals. By today's standards, these numbers are considered large

because as late as three decades ago there were very few minorities in these positions.

As a result of this shifting composition of the labor force, organizations are changing from homogeneous and white male dominated to heterogeneous and multicultural. There is a need for a clearer understanding of cultural differences and how they influence perceived expectations, satisfactions, and rewards that accrue in culturally diverse work environments. The commingling of people from diverse backgrounds, such as white and black managers, the lack of understanding of cultural differences and perceptions can cause counterproductive conflict that underscores a need for concern in the health care environment. Specifically, in the white manager-black employee work relationship, the differences in expectations that are based solely on racial perceptions can effect the black employee's performance, ability to offer and receive honest feedback, level of satisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, and opportunity for growth and advancement.

Today, in urban health care organizations, the disparity between the number of white and black managers in health care, the number of minority and ethnic-American patients, and the rapid influx of minorities in the work force are projected to cause serious problems. Because expectations are one of the primary motivational forces behind the success or failure of any relationship, the level

of awareness of race in white-black manager-employee relationships influences perceptions and the quality of the relationship between racially different supervisors and subordinates. For black managers and employees, because they have not gained acceptance on an equal level with their white peers, feelings of disappointment, dismay, frustration, and anger are being expressed through low morale, quitting, or getting fired.

Although they are small in number, black managers and administrators in the health care system represent a growing population. the infusion of blacks into the managerial ranks in the health field presents a host of questions and problems around the issues generated by the unspoken expectations between employers and employees about roles, rewards, tasks and interpersonal relations based on perceptions. Are expectations of white upper-level managers the same for black middle managers as for white middle managers? Are black middle managers perceived to have achieved their level of authority or have been accorded it on the basis of race? Are black middle managers rewarded as much and on the same basis as their white counterparts? Are black middle managers treated the same by their staff and supervisors as white managers at the same level? Do black middle managers have the same amount of job satisfaction as white middle level managers? At present the answer to these and related questions are unknown.

Statement of the Problem

The problem that will be addressed in this study are the differences in the job expectations, rewards, perceived criteria for promotion, and relations with supervisors and staff among black and white middle-level managers in health care. Additionally, an assessment on the influences of the perceived expectations on job satisfaction, satisfaction with rewards, and self-perceived job performance will be conducted.

Research Questions

This researcher will explore the answers to the following research questions:

1. Among the variables of reward expectations, perceived criteria for promotion, and quality of relations with supervisors and staff that define perceived expectations, which discriminate between black and white middle managers?

2. What is the relationship between perceived expectations and job satisfaction?

3. What is the relationship between perceived expectations and satisfaction with rewards?

4. What is the relationship between perceived expectations and self-perceived job performance?

Definitions of Terms

<u>Blacks</u> refers to members of those ethnic groups that are of sub-Saharan African origin, including Afro-Americans and West Indians.

<u>Expectations of Rewards</u> are the perceived contingencies on which rewards are based. There are three types of good performance contingencies: 1) externally mediated intrinsic rewards, i.e., ability to develop skills, learn new things; 2) internally mediated intrinsic rewards, i.e., feel better about oneself, feeling of accomplishment; 3) extrinsic rewards, i.e., promotion, pay raise. Expectations of rewards are operationalized as the scores on the Good Performance Contingency subscales of the MOAQ.

<u>Job Satisfaction</u> is the affective orientation of job holders to the characteristics of the job they have and the organizational environment in which they work. It is operationalized as the score on the Overall Job Satisfaction and Intention to Turnover subscales on the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (MOAQ).

<u>Middle Level Managers</u> are department heads, assistant heads, administrators, coordinators, associate directors, and assistant directors in hospitals.

<u>Perceived Criteria for Promotion</u> is the basis on which promotions are given. Perceived criteria for promotion is operationalized as the scores on the Promotional Opportunities subscale of the MOAQ.

<u>Perceived Expectations</u> is the set of unspoken expectations between employers and employees concerning roles, rewards, tasks, and interpersonal relations on the job. In this study, perceived expectations are measured by the importance of the various facets of the job, including perceived quality of interpersonal relations, supervisory style, and tasks; expectations of reward; and perceived criteria for promotion.

<u>Perceived Quality of Relations with Staff</u> is the respondents' views of the quality of relations with their staff members. Perceived quality of relations with staff is operationalized as the scores on the Staff Production Orientation, Control of Work, Work Facilitation--Goal Setting, Work Facilitation--Problem Solving, Work Facilitation--Supervisor Relations, Bias, Consideration, Participation, Decision Centralization, and Competence subscales of the MOAQ.

<u>Perceived Quality of Relations with Supervisors</u> is the respondents' views of the quality of relations with their supervisors. Perceived quality of relations with supervisors is operationalized as the scores on the Production Orientation, Control of Work, Work Facilitation--Goal Setting, Work Facilitation--Problem Solving, Work Facilitation--Subordinate Relations, Bias, Consideration, Participation, and Decision Centralization subscales of the MOAQ.

<u>Satisfaction with Rewards Received</u> are the satisfaction with rewards given for job performance. There are four types of rewards: 1) social, e.g., friendliness, respect; 2) intrinsic, e.g., learning new things, feel good about oneself; 3) influence, e.g., chances to make decisions; and 4) extrinsic, e.g., pay, promotions. Amount of rewards received is operationalized as the scores on the Reward Satisfaction subscales of the MOAQ.

<u>Self-Perceived Job Performance</u> is self-reported job involvement, internal work motivation, and work effort. It is operationalized as the scores on the Job Involvement, Internal Work Motivation, and Self-Report of Work Effort subscales of the MOAQ.

<u>Whites</u> refers to members of those ethnic groups that are of European origin. In this study, whites will be self-defined.

Significance of the Study

Researchers in the field of organizational psychology (Schultz, 1987; Schein, 1980) suggest that most managers are not schooled in understanding human behavior and are not comfortable expressing feelings. When racial difference is added to this lack of understanding and discomfort, the perceptions from both sides are likely to become clouded by racial and cultural differences. The lack of understanding of cultural differences and perceptions can cause

counterproductive conflict that underscores a need for concern in the health care environment. Welds (cited in Fernandez, 1981) shared her expert advice on the impact these new and diverse relationships will have if they are not dealt with in an effective and honest manner:

> Many unanticipated conflicts may occur overtly, but there are also more subtle, self-destructive displacements when conflict is ignored altogether. Besides decreasing an organization's potential for an open, creative, and friendly atmosphere, hidden conflict can also be reflected in tardiness and absenteeism; high turnover and production errors; increased accidents, grievances, and transfer requests; plus decreased productivity. In addition, there are stress-related physical symptoms: insomnia; headache; hypertension; asthma and cardiac irregularities; weight changes; ulcers and colitis; uncontrolled use of drugs, cigarettes, or food; anxiety; and depression. These all suggest unresolved conflict in the workplace and add to occupational burnout. (p. 8)

Although the area of race relations is important in urban organizations, very little research has been conducted on racial differences in job satisfaction, reward expectations, perceived criteria for promotion, relations with supervisors and staff, and respect accorded middle managers. There are three studies of black managers reviewed in the next chapter: Dickens and Dickens (1982), Fernandez (1981), and Jones (1973, 1986). All are qualitative and deal primarily with black managers. To this researcher's knowledge, there are no studies comparing black and white managers on these variables.

Theoretical Rationale

The theoretical basis for this study is that of perceived expectations. In this study, perceived expectations are a set of mutual expectations between office holders and their employers. These mutual expectations are implicit and go far beyond the official duties outlined in the job description. They deal with issues of equity, mutual support, loyalty, obligations, taboos, and other unspoken expectations (Levinson, 1962). Levinson wrote that expectancies are contingent, that is, each party participates only because of what it expects to receive in return for participation. This reciprocal relationship is dynamic and changes as the needs of the two parties change.

The influence of perceived expectations on white-black manager-employee relationships is that they raise the issue of racism in the differential expectations placed on black employees in relation to white employees. As Jones (1986) has pointed out, for black managers, acts of overt racism are relatively rare; however, what is more pervasive and oppressive are the unspoken prejudices that pervade the office. Differential perceptions play a major role in the development of the white-black manager-employee relationship. Therefore, studying the differences in the perceived expectations between them can determine whether they further reduce chances of equity relative to high

performance levels, feedback, rewards, and growth
opportunities and advancement.

As Fernandez (1981) wrote, when considering obstacles,
managers are more likely to say that nonability factors such
as race or sex would be obstacles to achieving their future
promotion. Yet 61% said these same factors would be
advantageous to the achievement of future positions. Jones
(1986) argues the point by asking will black managers ever
be allowed to move up the organization and succeed in the
old fashioned way, by earning it?

Even though black managers may have equivalent
educational background, training, and experience to white
managers, the racism that they experience is in the form of
differential expectations or in the projections of
discomfort felt by whites when dealing with black peers
(Jones, 1973, 1986). In the former instance, given equal
credentials, the black manager is still viewed as
unqualified. In the latter instance, racist assumptions on
the part of whites are blamed on the blacks because their
mere presence raises them.

Inequitable expectations are those in which
expectations are low, contributions are unrecognized,
rewards are not given, relations are strained, and those on
the short end of the relationship are confronted with
struggling against the self-fulfilling prophecy. It is
assumed in this study that because blacks as a group are

stigmatized in the larger society, that this stigma is shared by all blacks, regardless of social position, and that their caste-like status increases the probability of an inequitable expectations.

The influence of the inequitable expectations on such factors as performance, feedback, salary, and promotional opportunities have been reported as very costly for black managers. For the new manager who has been subjected to this inequity, the subsequent low self-esteem, self-respect, and self concept is often the consequence.

The problem with racism entering into perceived expectations are that a contradiction exists between professed and actual expectations, placing the job holder in the double bind of dual expectations. While the overt message is that "we expect you to succeed, and we will help," the covert message is "we expect you to fail, and we will help you fail."

In the manager-employee relationship, mutual expectations are a mechanism that promotes feedback. Schultz (1987) describes feedback or more appropriately, the appraisal of one's performance, as the fair way to reward an employee through raises, bonuses, and promotions. Decisions regarding promotional opportunities and salary increases are contingent upon constructive feedback about performance behavior, productivity, and satisfaction. Constructive feedback not only profits both the individual and the

organization, but also is an essential activity for the continued growth and development of the work relationship.

When perceived expectations are formed in the workplace, they are usually implicit and based on unwritten and unspoken messages. When these psychological expectations are transmitted, a contract between the two parties is formed. One of the key ingredients in the contract is the word perception and how perceptions have an impact on the development of a healthy and credible relationship. This concept is therefore called a psychological contract and is the sum of the perceived expectations formed in the relationship. When dealing with the reality of cultural diversity, clear expectations must be established in order to give a basic direction to the life of the work relationship.

Limitations of the Study

The sample will be self-selected on the basis of mailed questionnaires. Generalizations must be limited because of the lack of random sampling.

Assumptions

1. There is a general mistrust between most whites and blacks in a manager-employee relationship.

2.   The power of white people in organizations reflect or have an impact on decisions of black people and their growth and development.

3.   Managers who participate will be honest in their responses.

Hypotheses

The hypotheses presented below are based upon the theoretical insights based upon perceived expectations. It has been speculated that because of racism in society at large and in bureaucracies in particular, black middle-level managers will perceive that they are not subject to the same set of expecatations and rewards as white middle-level managers. Additionally, the perceived quality of perceived expectations will affect various job outcomes, including satisfactions and quality of work.

1.   The variables of expectation of rewards, perceived criteria for promotion, and relations with supervisors and staff, will differentiate between black and white middle managers.

2.   The greater the perceived job-related expectations the greater the job satisfaction.

3.   The greater the perceived job-related expectations the greater the satisfaction with rewards.

4.   The greater the perceived job-related expectations the greater the self-perceived job performance.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

From a preliminary review of the literature, my
interest in this research heightened as it became apparent
that research on the subject of perceived expectations is
limited. Meyer (1978) speculates that perhaps this neglect
is due to the jargon-like terminology such as the term
"psychological contract," but nevertheless believes it is
not given sufficient consideration by the business world.
Her concern is that very few organizations or its employees
consciously acknowledge its presence, even though it is a
cornerstone in the realization of profit and personal
success. Meyer (1978) stresses her position by stating that
there is virtually no situation where a psychological
commitment does not take place. Thus, the notion of the
psychological contract is applicable in business as well as
it is in academia.

Based on this evidence, my interest escalated even
further as I realized that the focus of my research on
perceived expectations was similar to the psychological
contract as a conceptual tool in management today. The
added dimension of cultural differences justifies the study

to be both timely and relevant to changing times in urban health care organizations.

Studies on the topic of the psychological contract were first introduced almost three decades ago by Argyris (1960) and Levinson (1962). The same idea was explored in March & Simon's "inducement-contribution" model (1958) and was researched further by Homans (1961) in his exploration of social-exchange theory. Kotter's (1973) theory on "the joining-up process" examined the notion of assimilating new employees into an organization. Investigations peaked in 1974 with Thomas's (1974) "Note on Managing the Psychological Contract," Mankoff's (1974) theories on motivation, and Dunahee & Wangler's (1974) idea of "Using the Psychological Contract as a Conceptual Structure for Managers/Employee Relations." Little research was conducted on the issue of the psychological contract for almost a decade. The concept of the psychological contract resurfaced in the mid-eighties among behavioral scientists and organizational consultants.

Considering the complexity of my research topic, "differences in job expectations, satisfactions, and rewards between white and black middle managers in urban health care organizations," I shall structure my review of the literature into three parts: 1) The Psychological Contract as a Conceptual Tool; 2) The History of Black Managers in

Organizations; and 3) White-Black Manager-Employee Relationships in Urban Health Care Organizations.

The Psychological Contract as a Conceptual Tool

This section describes the origin of the psychological contract (1950-1974), the contemporary theories of its use (1975- present), and how the contract is violated.

The Beginning. The concept of the psychological contract was first formulated as an extension of the theory of "social contracts." Simply stated, society consists of a union of individuals (Homans, 1950). This does not mean that society once formed does not have, through its sovereign, great power over individuals. It does mean that the character of society is determined by the character of individuals. This is also true in today's organizations as the "organization" is a society in its own right.

Our daily lives are based on organizations and, according to Etzioni, (1964)

> our society is an organizational society. We are born in organizations, educated by organizations, and most of us spend much of our lives working for organizations. We spend much of our leisure time, paying, playing and praying in organizations. Most of us will die in an organization and when the time comes for burial, the largest organization of all - the state - must grant official permission. (p.1)

Etzioni defines organizations as social units (or human groupings) deliberately constructed and reconstructed to seek specific goals.

The Social Contract. During the latter half of the twentieth century, Argyris (1960) was the first behavioral scientist to discuss the "social contract" in detail. Similar to the concept of the psychological contract, most of his research was devoted to integrating individual needs and organizational goals. In the organizational sphere, he theorized that factors such as restrictions, destructive competition, and apathy were barriers that resulted in employees fulfilling personal needs at the expense of organizational goals. Argyris (1964) also hypothesized that "the management in the organization of the future will give much thought to its basic values and planning as to how they may be implemented" Some of his questions include: ". . .What kind of organization does it intend to be? What will its internal make-up look like? How does it intend to adapt to, and become integrated with the environment?"

In the context of cultural diversity in today's organization, Argyris' questions project the very factors that are addressed in this study; i.e., the issues of individual needs and organization goals as it relates to multicultural management and the concept of the psychological contract in urban health care organizations.

The Psychological Contract. Influenced by social contract theory, Levinson (1962) conceived the notion of the psychological contract. He defined it as the unwritten and unspoken expectations in the relationship between the organization and the individual. He expressed his agreement with Argyris' theory regarding the individual-organization relationship by stating, "Once the applicant has taken a job, the complex and often difficult adaptation period begins. The new employee and the manager must learn to adjust to each other." (Nadler, Hackman & Lawler, 1979,p.48).

According to Levinson (1962), most expectations are perceived as so natural and basic that they are taken for granted and left unstated. He also believes that perceived expectations formed in the work relationship are based on their respective socialization. If his assumptions are correct, in the white-black manager-employee relationship, cultural patterns and perspectives are perceived from two different angles, thereby creating inaccuracies in the self-other perceptions of both parties.

The Inducement-Contribution Model. Implicit in the concept of the psychological contract is the procedure of goal setting and decision making. A behavioral model that focuses on these two variables is March & Simon's (1958) Inducement-Contribution Model.

In their highly influential studies, March and Simon's (1958) inducement-contribution Model is relevant to this study because it focused on the realization that an organization is, in reality, a complex coalition of individuals and groups with different goals, needs, desires, talents, and orientations. The research stressed how organizations actually set goals and make decisions within such a complex system. March and Simon (1958) believed that a process of continuous bargaining for power occurs within organizations. Coalition members use various forms of side payments such as offers of money, status, position, or authority to induce others to join with them in the pursuit of their particular goals. It was from this belief that their concept of the "inducement-contribution model" took shape.

In essence, one can think of a "managerial coalition" bargaining with an "employee coalition" to induce the latter to join and work for the organization through the offer of wages and benefits of various sorts. This concept crystallizes the level of power that any coalition as a whole possesses when it has the ability to make side payments, to possess money or other scarce resources which are desired by another group.

With this type of power in the upper management levels of the hierarchy, the inducement-contribution model places certain constraints on the possible future actions of the

organization. When commitments of resources as side payments are available for various coalitions (for example, high wages to employees) the manager's point of view is that they reduce the organization's flexibility by limiting its resources. Of course, organizations learn to revise their goals as they interact with their various environments and as coalitions relate to each other and to the organization.

Social-Exchange Theory. It is possible to associate the psychological contract with behaviorism (Wrightman & Deaux, 1981). Although this theory originated in experimental psychology, it deals effectively with many more complex organizational activities than the maze learning of rats or human muscle twitches. For example, the notion of unwritten and unstated expectations was theorized by Homans (1950). In 1961, Homans stated, "If a man takes an action that is followed by a reward, the probability that he will repeat the action increases." In contrast, those actions that are not rewarded tend to be discarded, and actions that are punished may be actively avoided. His theory on social-exchange reflects a strong reliance on the principle of reinforcement (Wrightman & Deaux, 1981).

Homans' idea on social-exchange is described by Wrightman and Deaux (1981) as a theoretical model that conceptualizes relationships in terms of costs and gains to the participants. It is in social behavior where an

exchange of both material and non-material "goods" (such as approval and prestige) is constant. In essence, Homans suggests that those who give to others create pressure in others to reciprocate in an attempt to create an equitable relationship and perhaps a profit. When the environment imposes or specifies certain feelings and sentiments among the people toward each other and the environment, Homans terms this combination of activities, interactions, and sentiments as the "external system." He hypothesizes that with increasing interaction come not only new sentiments, but also new norms and shared frames of reference which generate new activities.

The Hawthorne Effect. Noteworthy as an example of this type of the relationship between stimulus and response is the Hawthorne study which was conducted in the late 1920s and early 30s at the Hawthorne Works of the Western Electric Company in Chicago. The purpose of the study was to determine the effect on worker output of working conditions such as length of day, breaks, lighting, or free lunches. Out of that study came the concept of the Hawthorne Effect. The Hawthorne Effect was discovered when the researchers worsened the job conditions and the employees increased production. The apparent contradiction between poorer work conditions and worker productivity was explained as a result of the workers' responding to the fact that they were being

studied. Because of the extraordinary attention given them by the researchers, apparently regardless of the positive or negative affect the experimental treatment had on their job conditions, they improved their work as a way of "impressing" the researchers. As explained by Quick, the findings revealed how "many employees interviewed enjoyed the mere fact of the interview and experienced increased morale."(p.2)

Quick (1985) added that subsequent researchers have had to take this phenomenon into account in measuring how much temporary change in morale and productivity has taken place as a result of attention and how much substantial permanent modification has occurred as a result of successful efforts to change conditions and relationships.

In summary, both social exchange theory and the Hawthorne Effect clarify the importance of the social factor or personalized attention. Performance depends not only on the individual, but on the network of social relationships within which he or she operates. Within the realm of the black-white work relationship, these concepts clearly reveal the effect of the need for an informal social organization has on work performance.

The Joining-Up Process. Kotter (1973) adds his own theory on this issue. His primary concern is the process of assimilating new employees into an organization, which he

calls the "joining-up" process. Overall, he argues the following points:

1.   Early experiences (the joining-up period) have a major effect on an individual's later career in an organization, i.e., job satisfaction, employee attitude, productivity level, and turnover.

2.   Efficient management of the joining-up process can save an organization a great deal of money by making employees more efficient faster, by increasing job satisfaction, morale, and productivity, by decreasing turnover, by increasing the amount of creativity, by decreasing counterproductive conflict and tension, and by increasing the number of truly effective members within the organization.

3.   Due to a complex of forces, most organizations do a poor job of managing the joining-up process. Often because of a problem of measurement, organizations do not realize this problem exists. (p.91)

Kotter (1973) randomly selected a group of masters graduates and fellows at the Sloan School of Management at MIT. The concept of the psychological contract is at the heart of the model used to gather relevant data. His emphasis was on the degree of mismatches that can take place between the organizational-individual relationship and their expectations of each other. For example, if new managers expect to be given their own office and the organization also expects to give them an office, then it is a "match." If they do not expect to give them their own office, there is a "mismatch." This mismatch can be small (they will share an office with another person) or large (they won't be given an office, desk, or anything). These four sets of

expectations and the matches and mismatches make up the "psychological contract." However, it is important to note that this contract changes as the individual's and the company's changes.

Kotter's (1973) findings confirm his major research hypothesis that psychological contracts are indeed related to greater job satisfaction, productivity, and reduced turnover than are other contracts which have more mismatches and less matches. However, the clearer an individual understands his or her own expectations, the higher the probability of a match. Likewise, the clearer the organization understands its expectations, the higher the probability of a match. Kotter (1973) went on to say,

> ...those people who established a contract that was comprised of more matches in expectations, had a more satisfying and productive first year and remained longer with the company than those people whose contract had fewer matches. (p.92)

Subtle differences in job satisfaction or productivity resulting from a greater or lesser number of matches in the psychological contract are more difficult to observe. When the contract is initially formed, neither the employee nor boss really recognizes or confronts mismatches. After the first year, the employee begins to "feel" those mismatches as disappointments, letdowns, and so on. Thinking that the company has broken their contract, the employee reacts by slowly breaking his part of the bargain.

Kotter's (1973) research also showed a relationship to productivity, satisfaction, and turnover was "matching," not getting more or less than was expected. In short, organizations or individuals who approach the psychological contract by trying to get "a fit" or "a match" instead of "the most" or "the best" are usually more productive and satisfied with the organization.

It was also determined by Kotter the importance clarity plays in the success in a manager-employee relationship. He stated that "the clearer an individual understood his own expectation on an item, the higher the probability of a match. Likewise, the clearer an expectation was to the organization, the higher the probability of a match."(p.15) Unfortunately, neither a new employee nor the organization is not always clear as to what they expect from each other. As a result, mismatches can occur by accident or out of neglect. Therefore, carefully considering all areas of expectations are necessary in order to overcome the problem of clarity.

Listed below are thirteen items that are examples of areas in which individuals have expectations of receiving and an organization will offer them or give them in that area. Likewise, the organization has an expectation about what it will offer or give the individuals in that area:

TYPES OF EXPECTATIONS:

    1. A sense of meaning or purpose in the job.
    2   Personal development opportunities.

3. The amount of interesting work.
4. The challenge in the work.
5. The power and responsibility in the job.
6. Recognition and approval for good work.
7. The status and prestige in the job.
8. The friendliness of the people, the congeniality of the work group.
9. Salary
10. The amount of structure in the environment.
11. The amount of security in the job.
12. Advancement opportunities.
13. The amount and frequency of feedback and evaluation. (p.93)

Kotter (1973) further theorized that expectations are not usually explicitly discussed because of the "norms surrounding the interview and the initial work period which define some items as not legitimate to talk about."(p.94) On the other hand, when expectations are clearly discussed, there are times when there is an unwillingness or inability to find a commonality of expectations in an area which is important to both of them.

The second list of seventeen items are examples of areas in which an individual has expectations of giving and the organization has expectations of receiving as follows:

Types of Expectations:

1. The ability to perform nonsocial job related tasks requiring some degree of technical knowledge and skill.

2. The ability to learn the various aspects of a position while on a job.

3. The ability to discover new methods of performing tasks; the ability to solve novel problems.

4. The ability to present a point of view effectively and convincingly.

5. The ability to work productively with groups of people.

6. The ability to make well-organized, clear presentations both orally and written.

7. The ability to supervise and direct the work of others.

8. The ability to make responsible decisions well without assistance from others.

9. The ability to plan and organize work efforts for oneself or others.

10. The ability to utilize time and energy for the benefit of the company.

11. The ability to accept company demands which conflict with personal prerogatives.

12. Social relationships with other members of the company off the job.

13. Conforming to the folkways of the organization or work group on the job in areas not directly related to job performance.

14. Further education pursued off-company time.

15. Maintaining a good public image of the company.

16. Taking on company values and goals as one's own.

17. The ability to see what should or must be done, and to initiate appropriate activity. (p.93)

These twenty-nine types of expectations were adapted from earlier research by Berlew and Hall. (1966)

In conclusion, Kotter (1973) states that the concept of the psychological contract can be used as a yardstick to measure whether a person is getting more or less than they

had expected. Mismatches that give more than one expected

causes as many problems as those which gave less than one

expected.

Note On Managing the Psychological Contract. Thomas

(1974) prepared a note on managing the psychological

contract as a basis for a class discussion. The relevance

of his note to the "Origins of the Psychological Contract"

is that it captures what has been theorized thus far by

Argyris, Levinson, March & Simon, Homans, and Kotter, and

also serves as a catalyst to contemporary theories of the

psychological contract. He places an emphasis on the need

to consider the complexity of the individual-organization

relationship and its implications for the manager of a

functional unit. He further explained by stating:

> Since most business organizations are built on
> functional units, managers at this level are
> centrally involved in managing the interface
> between the work of the organization and the
> skills of the employee. Managers are responsible
> not only for insuring that the technical resources
> for performing tasks are available but also for
> managing the motivation of their employees. They
> must facilitate a relationship between employees
> and the firm that encourages their subordinates to
> willingly expend energy on organizational tasks.
> (p.5)

The relationship between an individual and the

organization is termed psychological when much of the needs

are unwritten and unspoken. Thomas discusses this

association by explaining that the organization employs the

individual because his or her services are essential for the

achievement of its goals; similarly, the individual contributes services only when it leads to the fulfillment of his or her personal needs. The basis of this reciprocal relationship is the psychological contract.

Thomas (1974) gives several reasons why this may be so:

1. Both parties may not be entirely clear about their expectations and how they wish them to be fulfilled.

2. Employees and the organization's representative may not be aware of some of their expectations.

3. Some expectations may be perceived as so natural and basic that they are taken for granted and left unstated.

4. Connected to the above, cultural norms may inhibit verbalization.

The psychological contract is also dynamic and changes as the needs of the two parties in the relationship change. However, the type of psychological contract an individual may find attractive depends on the needs embedded in his or her personality. Thomas (1974) also noted that management has had assumptions for decades regarding the fulfillment of important needs that would motivate employees to work. He elaborates on these individual needs by discussing Schein's (1970) concept of the "organizational man and the process of management" as follows:

> The rational-economic view of the individual, popular since the turn of the century, assumed that the individual's basic motivation was economic. Operating on a rational basis, human beings would do whatever resulted in the greatest economic gain. Individuals had feelings (emotions), however, that were largely irrational and had to be neutralized. The implied managerial strategy was one of reward and control.

Workers were rewarded with economic gains and controlled so that they would not fall victim to irrational feelings.

The social-man model was advocated In the 1940s and 1950s. Here, the individual was motivated primarily by a desire for social contact at work and performed at work according to how well this need was met. The employee was viewed as being more responsible to social forces than to management's incentives and controls. An effective manager had to meet the social needs of employees.

In the self-actualization model, next to come into vogue, the individual was seen as having a hierarchy of needs:

    1) survival needs
    2) social needs
    3) self-esteem needs
    4) needs for autonomy
    5) need for self-actualization

Individuals were considered to be self-motivated and self-controlled and capable of voluntarily meshing their goals with those of the organization. Here, the role of the manager was to make the work challenging, interesting, and attractive enough to provide self-discipline. In exchange for good performance, the organization was to provide opportunities for self-actualizing. (p.4)

Each of the schools of thought were summarized by

Thomas (1974) as attempts to set forth a universal model of

the individual. However, he believed that the complex-man

model was the only one of the four that recognizes that the

individual may have a variety of needs with a variety of

strengths. It was the only model that suggests that

universal approaches to the individual are much too simple

and that a person is much more complex than implied in any

of the above perspectives. This is because each individual

has a history of different developmental experiences and

genetic configurations. Therefore, to use this model, a manager must have a diagnostic perspective and must be sensitive to differences among employees.

Thomas (1974) reminds the reader that the manager of functional units is frequently the person most responsible for representing the organization and implementing the psychological contract. The manager's task therefore is that of fulfilling the organization's end of the contract. To do this, Thomas (1974) suggests that fulfillment of the psychological contract is based on the following factors: measurement practices, rewards, structure, and selection and development.

MEASUREMENT PRACTICES

Regardless of the measurement used, it must be congruent with task requirements and the individual's expectations and predispositions; otherwise, unit effectiveness and individual motivation will suffer. (p.6)

REWARDS

The rewards that managers have available as tools for implementing the psychological contract may be categorized as intrinsic (inherent in the job) and extrinsic (external to the job). Examples of intrinsic rewards are challenge, responsibility, and a sense of doing something worthwhile. Included in the extrinsic category are pay, promotional opportunities, fringe benefits, office space, and similar manifestations of status and prestige. The psychological contract is considered healthy once the manager develops from all reward possibilities the combination that will best satisfy the employee's perceived expectations. (p.7)

STRUCTURE

Structure as a principal concern at the functional level focuses on job design. Job design may be altered by modifying hierarchical agreements, providing rules, and by developing standard operating procedures. With respect to the psychological contract, the functional

manager may use job design to insure that tasks requirements and/or the employees' expectations are met. (p.9)

SELECTION AND DEVELOPMENT
Selection and Development tools are among the functional manager's most important instruments for securing good task-individual fits. In the context of the concepts of fit and the psychological contract, the selection process is really a matching process between the employee and the organization. (p.10)

Thomas (1974) concluded his note on the management of the psychological contract by stating that no one tool is a panacea for all situations, but the ideas presented in his note suggest only a broad framework for thinking about these issues and are viewed as a means of implementing the tacitly accepted psychological contract.

Contemporary Theories of the Psychological Contract

Today, the psychological contract is used in innumerable management functions including recruiting, training, delegating, resolving problems, and conflicts, conducting meetings, appraising performance, setting job objectives, and motivating a workforce. Goddard (1984) explains, "In each of these activities, the final result depends on the degree to which human expectations are met."(p.12)

During my research of the literature, most of the theorists (Schein, 1970; Thomas, 1974; Peters, 1975; Mack, 1976; Meyer, 1978; Goddard, 1984; Baker, 1985; Rousseau, 1987; Marks, 1988) made reference to the fact that few

people are aware of the concept of the psychological contract or acknowledge its existence. But, in the real world, the psychological contract is the sum of all written and unwritten, spoken and unspoken, expectations of the employer and employee and can evoke strong feelings when these expectations are not met. In fact, Rousseau (1987) argues that workings of a psychological contract can be understood best by examining what happens when the contract is violated. When a relationship is damaged to the extent that trust and good faith have been undermined, it is not easily restored.

Because the process of the psychological contract goes to the heart of motivation, productivity, job satisfaction, and involvement, many theorists believe it to be the management tool of human resources. Therefore, as an extension of its concept, today's contemporary theorists and noted behavioral scientists have personalized their thoughts and descriptions regarding motivational and morale issues within the organization and are expressed in the following pages. Answers to questions such as, "What does the psychological contract mean today as it exists between the organization and the employee?" "What causes and cures motivation?" and "Is the changing employment relationship redesigning the contract?" are being addressed. Again, a common denominator in each instance is the focus it places on the organizational-individual relationship.

<u>The Psychological Contract As A Conceptual Structure</u>

<u>For Manager/Employee Relations</u>. Dunahee and Wangler's

(1974) interest in the subject of human behavior stems from

the difficulty front-line management historically have

encountered that evolve around the following questions:

1. Which management style should be used? Theory X or
    Theory Y?
2. Should opportunities be provided for each employee
    to be enriched and self-actualized?
3. Is there a need to appeal to the employee's social
    needs or play on his/her ego?
4. More importantly, can the managers themselves act
    any differently than their own personality
    dictates?
5. How can current schools of thought on motivation
    and management be maintained?
6. When do Employee Relation programs reach the point
    of diminishing returns?
7. Finally, how can management feel confident that
    any effects have some impact on the bottom line?
    (p.519)

Dunahee and Wangler (1974) believe what is needed to

help managers obtain a systematic understanding of the

application of the concepts and the implications of their

dynamics is some sort of structure or communication vehicle

which provides a common ground to make one's self heard and

understood. Such a device is the psychological contract.

Dunahee and Wangler (1974) informally described the

psychological contract as ". . .a contract of sorts that

binds every employee and employer together. However, it is

not written. Rather, it is a psychological agreement

between the parties and is a much broader concept than the

traditional use of the word contract in industrial
relations." (p.519)

The contract is dynamic. Dunahee and Wangler (1974)
elaborate on its dynamic quality by stating that the
individual and organization's expectations and the
individual and the organization's contributions mutually
influence one another. In other words, the relationships
between the manager and the managed is interactive,
unfolding through mutual influence and mutual bargaining to
establish and maintain a workable psychological contract.

At any given time, the contract could change as the
needs of the parties change. Since the psychological
contract is largely unstated and unsupported by legal
sanctions, then another question that surfaces is "How is it
brought into existence?" Simply stated, its life is formed
as soon as a relationship is established. Dunahee and
Wangler (1974) unravelled any mystery by emphasizing the
point that its survival is contingent upon the following key
elements:

1. A well structured job with clear job
    responsibilities.
2. Continuous feedback between the two parties.
3. Continuous emphasis or "bargaining power" between
    the employee and the job.
4. Relevance to the bottom line; that is, the
    compensation received for a job must have a
    relationship to the psychological contract that is
    in existence. (p.518)

A concern that continuously revolves around the
psychological contract is the question of renegotiating the

contract so that there will never be more than one contract. As explained by Dunahee and Wangler (1974), more often than not, a continuing negotiation is an exception rather than the rule. However, when neither party has adequately verbalized his understanding of the provisions of the contract, a separate contract begins to evolve. Consequently, as time passes, these two contracts are likely to become quite dissimilar.

In summary, Dunahee and Wangler (1974) suggest that maintenance of the contract's equitability is usually attempted when one party senses that the other has in some why altered the contract. Thus, the employer who senses that his employees are not returning a fair day's work for fair pay may attempt to bring equitability to the relationship by instituting a work measurement program or stringent supervisory practices. A beginning point for a "correcting" cycle is by each party making adjustments to the contract in order to maintain his/her sense of "equitability."

What Employees Expect Of Managers. Peters (1975) formulates the existence of the psychological contract as a many-faceted unspoken bargain that begins the day a person first seeks employment. He stresses its necessity because organizations today are so complex that they cannot function

unless the members of the organization agree on how they will relate and work together.

Most managers have faced all the problems posed by motivation and morale issues. Peters (1975) defines the terms of the psychological contract as those that are based on how the employee views the organization and what he perceives to be organizational expectations. He believes that the key idea is the employees' perception, which is shaped by the attitudes and actions of their manager and others in the company.

Basically, each new employee makes a decision about how hard he will work. Whether consciously or not, Peters (1975) says that the employee sizes up the job and the manager to determine whether the organization wants a pair of trained hands with no demands or opportunities for the use of other human abilities or whether he wants a thinking, creative worker. Every employee brings his attitudes, perceptions, and intelligence to work along with his/her hands. Making a decision on how hard to work, how creative and loyal to be, and how long to remain are based on the degree to which the expectations of the individual match the expectations of the organization. A mismatch results in a frustrated worker, a frustrated manager, or both.

Peters recommends that only a continuing two-way flow of communication can keep the psychological contract up to date. He says that managers need to realize that if they

have structured an environment in which only passive

behavior is rewarded, they must not be surprised at childish

behavior. Therefore, better ways to find good workers and

use their talents more effectively is important. Peters

(1975) explains this by stating, "This means improving

personnel procedures, particularly orientation of new

employees. It means treating prospective employees in a

human and dignified manner. It means alleviating the fears

that new employees naturally feel in a new and strange

situation - fears of making mistakes, of not being able to

make the grade, of not "hitting it off" with supervisors and

higher management." (p.29)

Values, Attitudes, and Motivation. Mankoff (1974),

Mack (1976), and Meyer (1978) all had a strong interest in

the subject of motivation, asserting that authors have

produced an endless flow of books about the "motivation

problem." Mankoff (1974) made reference to the many

consultants who have taken advantage of this market of

frustration and, as a result, channeled his research in the

direction of attitude survey instruments that are often used

to determine the causes of demotivation. Mankoff (1974)

identified three reasons why this method usually fails:

1. Management may refuse to accept the findings.
2. Management, although "accepting" may refuse to
   risk his or her position or ego by dealing openly
   and honestly with the data.
3. Attitude surveys do not always measure the
   appropriate thing in the first place. (p.23-24)

Based on the complex informational field that attitudinal data is gathered from, it is Mankoff's theory that instead of using attitudes as the motivation variable, values should be the key to measurement as they determine who we are, what we are, where we're going, what kind of job will we do, and how we relate to the rest of the world.

Rokeach differentiates attitudes and values as follows:

ATTITUDES

An attitude is an organization of several beliefs focused on a specific physical, social, concrete, or abstract object, predisposing one to respond in some preferential manner.

VALUES

Values have more to do with modes of conduct and end states of existence, and are thus more enduring as standards or criteria for guiding action. While an adult has tens or hundreds of thousands of beliefs and thousands of attitudes, that person will possess only a few basic values. (p.24)

According to Rokeach, organizational development techniques have demonstrated that permanent attitude change can be brought about in a matter of half an hour or less, when the discrepancies are in an individual's value system - the difference between what he says he is and what he really knows himself to be - can be shown to him.

In summary, the issues that Mankoff addressed stress that values and value systems play a central role in human motivation and communication, commitment, and productivity.

But he asks, "How can organizations use these facts in bringing about change?" With the appreciation and understanding of values, plus a little imagination, Mankoff (1974) contends that business executives concerned enough to look beyond the profit and loss statement may be able to help American organizations overcome the prevalent cynicism and distrust of business.

Mack (1976) also refers to motivation as an intriguing subject. He says,

> Motivation is a very individual thing. It takes place between two people, that it is not something that is simply prescribed by the manager or the organization; and that it is not a list of methods from which a manager can select the one he or she thinks will work best. (p.2-3)

Mack (1976) also challenges the question, "How is motivation measured?" Contrary to Mankoff's theory on values, Mack equates measurement with the investment of time, energy, and other personal resources that people are willing to make in their jobs and their organizations. In short, motivation is what determines the amount that each person is willing to invest. Three phenomena that are described by Mack as the hows and whys of motivation are:

CRISIS MOTIVATION

The first phenomenon identifies some of the forces at work in times of disaster that motivate people to higher levels of performance. Eight conditions common to most disasters or crises that seem to sponsor superlative performance are:

1. GOAL CLARITY - The goal is absolutely clear in the minds of the people responsible for doing the job.

2.   RULES AND POLICIES - Normal policies and procedures are suspended for the sake of expediency.
3.   FOCAL POINT - There is a clearly defined focal point identifying where the action is.
4.   PERSONAL RESPONSIBILITY - Each person's contribution is meaningful and will make a difference.
5.   SENSE OF URGENCY - The task cannot be put off or postponed because it calls for immediate attention.
6.   ATTENTION BY OTHERS - They and the job they are working on are the main attraction.
7.   TEMPORARY SITUATION - The emergency is temporary and will end soon.
8.   REWARDS - Satisfaction in a job well done and heightened self-esteem may be the most important of the rewards.

ENTREPRENEURSHIP

The second phenomenon focuses on the motivation of owners of relatively small enterprises. The forces at work that make people do their utmost to keep it all together are as follows:
1.   POTENTIAL FOR HIGH REWARDS - The opportunity to earn large sums of money and become financially secure.
2.   CONTROL AND DECISION MAKING - The choice of making all, some, or none of the decisions that have to be made.
3.   INDEPENDENCE - A strong sense of independence.
4.   SUCCESS OR ACHIEVEMENT - An output or achievement that can be seen and felt.
5.   OWNERSHIP - A feeling of "It's all mine."
6.   MONUMENT SYNDROME - A desire to build something that lasts, something to be remembered by, and a feeling of something to fall back on.

THE PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACT

The third phenomenon is something that takes place between two people that formulates a healthy relationship through a process that encourages trust to grow and develop. The ultimate goal of this process is what is called the psychological contract.

The psychological contract is defined as an agreement between a boss and a subordinate that describes the work to be done, assigns responsibility, establishes goals, and contains some information on how results are to be measured. As with other contracts between people,

the contents of the contract should be discussed
openly. (p.3-6)

Mack (1976) fits these three phenomena in one mold by
discussing several significant areas of commonality. He
illuminates the clarity in the message that both owners and
managers work harder when they know where they are going.
Also, when people are genuinely in charge, they are more apt
to involve themselves fully and work harder to achieve
goals. Another comparison was made by looking at the
rewards or expected rewards. In both cases, the
entrepreneur and the crisis worker, the extrinsic and
intrinsic rewards were related directly to performance.
Mack (1976) closes his discussion by stating that these
principles of motivation can be applied in everyday business
relationships through the concept of the psychological
contract.

Further research conducted on the topic of demotivation
was completed by Meyer (1978). She suggests that the theory
of demotivation is founded on the principle that employees
come motivated for many reasons, many of which are not
expressed to employers. So, it is entirely feasible that
the demotivation process is an outgrowth of underestimating
profit and product potential.

It was also of Meyer's opinion that the business world
is not capitalizing on all available resources and that as a
result, the counterproductive process of demotivation takes
place, undermining the best intentions of the employer and

the employee. She therefore contends that, in order to address this dilemma, it is necessary to examine three factors affecting productivity and resulting profitability: psychological contracts, employment orientation, and motivation.

The psychological contract is defined by Meyer (1978) as a commitment, a mutual agreement, silently defined by the expectations of the employer and the employee. Very few organizations or employees consciously acknowledge its presence, even though it is a cornerstone in the realization of profit and personal success. Meyer contends that the psychological contract is founded on both organizational and individual need fulfillment. However, she warns that "what remains unsaid provides the initial impetus for the dissolution of the psychological contract and thus initiates the demotivation process. This process is further encouraged by weak orientation programs."(p.262)

The Employment Orientation Program is described by Meyer as having the ability to negate the original psychological contract. This can happen simply by putting the program off until a later date; i.e., it runs the risk of the employee gaining information from other sources without the appropriate organizational interpretation and it encourages demotivation when it doesn't take place within the first day a new person reports to work.

Meyer reports that between 68 and 70% of all employee orientations are carried out in a manner that briefs the employee on the various benefits programs and options, advises the employee of rules and regulations, provides them with a folder filled with impersonal information, and then escorted to an alien environment and expected to produce. Needless to say, the motivating factors which would strengthen the employee's commitment - recognition, responsibility, the opportunity to accomplish and achieve - are overlooked. In short, the new employee has a general knowledge of expectations, a general knowledge of the company, and many unknowns to deal with in her first few hours, let alone days.

The final factor that addresses demotivation is motivation itself. Motivating factors such as responsibility, recognition, achievement opportunity and accomplishment opportunity are profit-producing and cost-effective and, according to Meyer (1978) can be implemented through attitude changes. Meyer looks at implementing this change by reviewing several factors that lead to loss of motivation. These factors are either individual or organizational in nature and include:

1. Lack of constructive feedback
2. Inconsistent behavior by those who directly affect success.
3. Lack of sensitivity to individual needs.
4. Denial of sufficient information.
5. Lack of behavioral and psychological support
6. Intrusion into predefined psychological and actual job space. (p.261)

The approaches to motivation addressed by Manhoff (1974), Mack (1976), and Meyer (1978) do not require retraining so much as it does refocusing. Meyer capsulized all three theories by suggesting that the entire motivation/demotivation process from the interview through to retirement be considered when implementing programs to enhance performance, satisfactory levels, and productivity as it relates to organization goals.

A Poorly Defined Psychological Contract. Scanlan (1980) prescribes to maintaining organizational effectiveness by asking the question, "Is your organization a sound mind in a sound body, or is it tottering toward senility? . . .Like job performance and benefits, the psychological contract needs a yearly 'maintenance check.'"

Defining the psychological contract as "the mutual set of expectations shared by the organization and its individual employees," (p.381) Scanlon (1980) focused his research on how to prevent a break in the psychological contract. About the organization, he raises the point that in order to prevent dissatisfaction, frustration, demotivation and eventual separation, early in the recruitment process the following must be done:

1)   Find out what it is that is important to individual applicants and what their job expectations are.

2)	Explain some of the generalities about work life, especially to young applicants.

3)	Present openly and honestly the realities of what they can expect from the jobs for which they are being considered.

4)	Explain and perhaps "sell" the pros and cons of your own position, including possible career paths and typical time spans involved in moving through them. (p.385)

In order to maintain the health of the psychological contract, a "maintenance check" at least once and preferably twice a year is strongly suggested by Scanlon (1980). This is in addition to the annual or semi-annual performance review. Its purpose is to find out where employees are in terms of overall and specific job satisfaction, commitment, and motivation. At the same time, the chosen manager should also communicate the organization's view of the employee. Using this "maintenance check" process creates a very real and significant recruitment advantage.

The Organization-Individual Relationship. Under the context of the organization-individual relationship, the importance of understanding the definition of an organization is also discussed by Schein (1980). Schein's (1980) premise is that organizations are the "rational coordination of the activities of a number of people for the achievement of some common, explicit purpose, through division of labor and a hierarchy of authority." To bring the point home, he describes the pressures from the various

environments within which organizations exist. Schein

continues his argument by stating that the internal dynamics

of organizations that result from human needs and desires

that change over time and make the classical definition

unrealistic and misleading. This also is symptomatic in

today's black-white work relationship. What is needed is a

more dynamic definition of the organization; one that

reflects the realities of human motivation, of group

dynamics, and of intergroup phenomena.

Although most studies show that good psychological

contracts contribute to long-term productivity by reducing

turnover, absenteeism, sabotage, theft, and worker

alienation, Goddard (1984) says that the effect on

short-range productivity is unclear. High employee

satisfaction may or may not lead to higher short-run

productivity.

As Baker (1985) describes it, the psychological

contract's components are shared expectations that include:

work role, social, economic and cultural. He combines these

components by stating that individuals have role

expectations when they choose a particular occupation: If

experience fails to confirm these expectations,

dissatisfaction may result.

Baker's (1985) research focuses on recruitment methods.

Unskilled labor has largely been abolished by

specialization, and frequent changes of jobs - and even

careers - is no longer unusual. Therefore, Baker (1985) contends that young job seekers need the means with which to create accurate expectations, e.g., self-assessment of interest, values, and aptitudes, plus sufficient occupational information. He says that wrong expectations need eradication; correct expectations need instilling.

A recommendation by Baker (1985) is for employers to acquire the means to measure adaptability and overall potential so that organizational expectations lead to appropriate employment decisions. Since evidence has shown that hasty contracting based on partial data, and presumably fueling career dissatisfaction lead to subsequent attrition, Baker (1985) makes the following recruitment suggestions:

> BIODATA - Biodata (biographical data) can help indicate probable tenure. Identifying individuals with a history of attrition facilitates assigning them to counterattrition programs.
>
> REALISTIC JOB PREVIEWS - Realistic job previews are one form of counterattrition education. By providing applicants with realistic, detailed accounts of training and job requirements, research indicates that the system reduces new employee turnover.
>
> VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE - In matching people to jobs, vocational guidance is a bridging mechanism linking the job-seeker and self-knowledge, the job-seeker and available jobs or career opportunities, and the job exploration and placement processes. (1985,p.41)

Baker (1985) emphasizes that clarification of expectations during the recruiting process should at least start the individual-organization relationship on a sound

basis of understanding. For the recruit, there will be many psychological contracts. But Baker (1985) says that ". . .the initial contract should not doom others that will be negotiated later."(p.41)

In summary, Schein's (1980) primary argument stresses the importance of treating organizations as open, complex systems. His position is that the organization is in constant interaction with all its environments, taking in raw materials, people, energy, and information which make the organization very complex. In order to reinforce his position, Schein (1980) compared his thinking with March and Simon's "inducement-contribution Model" and similar models by concluding that one of the great advantages that have evolved from this line of thinking is that it provides a clearer understanding of the composition of organizations and the complexity of coalitions that continuously bargain for power. Since rationality is always limited or bounded, a crucial insight of the model is Simon's concept of the manager and how he reaches a workable decision rather than how he maximizes. In essence, the total goal setting process can therefore be seen as a process of bargaining, limited by prior commitments and influenced by organizational learning.

The New Psychological Contract. Since 1987, new schools of thought have been generated regarding the

expectations that employees have of their organization and the organization's expectations of them. This result of the waves of mergers, acquisitions and downsizing that have occurred over the last decade, effecting a shift in the expectations and responsibilities of both employer and employee.

Rousseau (1987) defines the psychological contract in terms of a "reciprocal obligation" and emphasizes the emotional trauma violation causes. Kietchel (1987) conceptualizes his thoughts on the subject by introducing the "new employment contract" theory. Marks (1988) compares the psychological contract with "then" and "now" through his article entitled "the disappearing man." Tornow (1988) speaks out on the "changing employment contract" through his article entitled "Contract Redesign."

Each of these theorists and behavioral scientists form a common bond in their contention that there is a changing relationship with employees in today's organizations. The effect that this transition would have on the psychological contract is described by Rousseau (Tornow, 1988) who suggested that organizations with strong cultures, characterized by high consensus on norms and values are more likely to have firm psychological contracts than organizations with weaker cultures. However, she claims that the psychological contract can be best understood and measured by examining what happens when the contract is

violated. The violation subjects the relationship to a form of trauma, causing an intense emotional reaction such as outrage, shock, resentment and anger.

Kietchel (1987) believes that corporations, particularly those that have been downsized, maintain that the new employment contract already exists. Employees today assume full responsibility for their own career, for keeping their qualifications up to date, for getting themselves moved to the next position at the right time, for putting away funds for retirement, and for achieving job satisfaction. Kietchel (1987) acknowledged that "Paternalism and job security are out these days. Taking responsibility for your own career is in."

Kietchel (1987) cautions that if the company wants to hold on to their good people, they must learn to communicate more openly with them. They must ensure that each employee knows what's going on as well as how he or she is doing. Salaries must be up to market rates and, more importantly, the company must give the newly empowered employees the opportunity to do their jobs differently, more latitude to do it the way they think the work can best be done.

Both Tornow (1988) and Marks (1988) make reference to the changing employment relationship as the outcome of objective events such as mergers and cutbacks that ultimately change the relationship between the individual and the organization. Some of Tornow's examples include

restructuring, workforce demographics, tenure, or turnover.
Marks (1988) explains the changing employment relationship
by saying ". . .a new breed of workers, professionals and
executives has shed the traditional gray flannel suits and
put on their personal running shoes. They are not company
men or women but entrepreneurs whose business is
themselves."(p.97) Consequently, there is a major change in
the psychological contract between employer and employee.
This organizational restructuring has created a new
employer-employee relationship that will change traditional
approaches to human resource management as follows:

THE CHANGING EMPLOYMENT CONTRACT

FROM	TO
1. Stability & Predictability	Change and Uncertainty
2. Growth in Population	Population Downsizing
3. Permanence	Temporariness
4. Permanent Work Force	Flexible Work Force
5. Full-Time Employees	Part-Time Employees
6. Standard Work Patterns	Flexible Work Patterns
7. All-or-None Employment/Retirement	Gradual Retirement
8. Employee Retention	Targeted Turnover
9. "Build" Employees	"Buy" Employees
10. Valuing Loyalty & Tenure	Valuing Performance/Skills
11. Paternalism	Self-Reliance/Responsibility
12. Commitment to Company	Commitment to Self
13. Company-Defined Benefits	Company-Defined Contributions
14. Job Security	Employee Development
15. Advancement	Plateauing
16. Linear Career Growth	Multiple Careers
17. One-Time Learning	Life-Long Learning

(p.38)

Based on the above "then" and "now" transition model of expectations between the organization and the employee, Marks (1988) reiterates that the rules of the games have changed, changing the psychological contract with them. Tornow (1988) concludes by recommending to psychologists that they must understand better how personality and individual differences affect employees' understanding of changes and their ability to adjust and continue to contribute effectively. Such variables as locus of control, tolerance for ambiguity, and self-esteem may play key roles in the future success of employees and organizations. Tornow (1988) also projects that major organizational transformations redefine the psychological contract characterizing the employment relationship between employee and employer. He continues by stressing that the changing employment contract is an important phenomenon worthy of attention by scientists and practitioners alike.

The Violation of the Psychological Contract. When trust develops from a belief that good performance will be reciprocated and that a relationship exists, the psychological contract is considered healthy. When this element of trust and a sense of relationship deteriorates because of feelings of betrayal and deep psychological distress, the psychological contract has been violated. However, Tornow (1988) suggests that one factor that plays an important part in the existence,

nature, and health of the psychological contract is the organizational culture. Consider for example, what can happen to a psychological contract when there is a manager-employee relationship and fair treatment as well as supportive environment is not provided by the organization. According to Meyer (1978), some of the indicators of unfair treatment and nonsupportive environment are:

1. Lack of constructive feedback.
2. Inconsistent behavior by those who directly affect success.
3. Lack of sensitivity to individual needs.
4. Lack of behavioral and psychological support.
5. Intrusion into predefined and actual job space.

Demotivation, which is a product of the violated contract, also has been conceptualized by Meyer (1978) into a six-phase process so that it can be more specifically examined.

PHASE I - CONFUSION
     The new employee's introduction to the realities of the company provides the first mixed messages and often conflicts with original expectations.
Behavior - Lower than expected productivity.

PHASE 2 - ANGER
     The anger is at first self-directed because the new employee sees him/herself as an early failure in the new position and is naturally disappointed.
Behavior - Stress symptoms will surface.

PHASE 3 - SUBCONSCIOUS HOPE
     Anger from Phase 2 is now re-directed at supervisor. Employee feels betrayed that no action was taken by supervisor up to this point.
Behavior - Defensiveness, internalized stress, and
               uncommunicative.

PHASE 4 - DISILLUSIONMENT

If no action or attention has been given to the situation, the new employee will become disillusioned.

Behavior – Productivity goes down and whole physical appearance – dress, facial expression and body movements – reflects internal conflict and diminishing commitment to the company.

PHASE 5 – UNCOOPERATIVENESS

Job is defined in language such as "It's not my job... If you wanted me to do this, you should have told me when you hired me."

Behavior – Productivity now reaches its lowest acceptable minimum.

PHASE 6 – DEPARTURE

Departure can mean physically leaving or mental absence.

Behavior – If self-motivating, the person will physically depart. If they choose to stay, they appear not to care if the work gets done, but plod along just in case someone requests justification of what they are doing.

When the manager-employee relationship concludes that the fulfillment of their needs and expectations are below minimum, they resort to specific actions. As Dunahee and Wangler (1974) expressed it, the working relationship becomes less and less acceptable resulting in more serious actions by both parities. For example, either member of the relationship initiate actions to mend the perceived contract violations as follows:

EMPLOYEE PERCEIVED
CONTRACT VIOLATIONS
1. "Gripes": The individual begins to express dissatisfaction: They are asking to renegotiate.
2. Quitting on the Job: Increased absenteeism, frequent tardiness, sloppiness in work, decreased productivity, etc.
3. Retaliation: Grave employee dissatisfaction can take the form of overtly blocking management from reaching its goals, destruction of company property, and concerted

efforts with other employees to thwart organizational success.
4. Termination of Contract: If during the time of employee dissatisfaction, the contract becomes completely unacceptable, the contract is terminated by the employee.

Dunahee & Wangler (1974) continued by describing the actions that the organization can take if they perceive that the psychological contract has been violated.

ORGANIZATION PERCEIVED
CONTRACT VIOLATION
1. Oral Counseling: The organization advises the individual that his actions or job performance is not within acceptable limits. This may result in a job threat.

2. Tightening Work Rules: The organization institutes work rules which prohibit certain non-acceptable employee actions. These may become highly formal (in writing) or informal (oral).
3. Written Warning: The organization may give a written warning to the employee advising that certain perceived job behavior is unacceptable and may result in termination.
4. Disciplinary Layoff: The organization may send an employee home for a few days in hopes that such an action will bring about the required behavior.
5. Termination of the Contract: The organization may become so dissatisfied with the employee that it feels termination of employment is the only course of action.

When violation of the psychological contract occurs, according to Thomas (1974), there are three options available to the dissatisfied party:

1) Attempt to renegotiate the contract.

2) Continue the relationship in an alienated state, or

3) Sever the relationship.

The state of alienation usually happens only if renegotiation fails. It may persist for years if neither

party makes a move to correct it by either a second attempt at renegotiation or to ultimately sever the relationship.

Behavioral theorists think that the psychological contract is the heart of human resource management. However, unless more emphasis is placed on its implementation in the work place, many employee morale and management development programs will be abandoned by the new generation of chief executives in corporate America.

The History of Black Managers in Organizations

Introduction. Today, equal opportunity laws have brought blacks in large numbers into white America's corporate managerial hierarchy. Jones (1986) is ominous about this advancement. He believes there is another side that has not been considered. He reflects on conversations with black managers who have revealed discontent through expressions of disappointment, dismay, frustration, and anger. Their inability to gain acceptance on a par with their white counterparts is causing emotional setbacks. Consequently, they have expressed feelings about stymied careers and lack of opportunity for ultimate success.

To validate these feelings of discrimination, Jones' (1986) revealed that two recent surveys of Fortune "1000" companies show that in 1979 and 1985, businesses have not moved minorities and women into senior ranks. Fernandez (Moskal 1976) explains, "We have a basic racist and sexist

society.   White people have long had attitudes that are difficult to change.   Power is the ultimate question; white people don't want to share that power." (p.41)

Senn (1986) expressed his concern with the values, methods and styles that filter down and influence much of what goes on in the organization. In order to combat these forces, he suggests that efforts to reshape a culture must begin at the top, with long-term, solid commitment. Lip service to the new values has almost no impact.

The implications involved in the shaping of black managers of the eighties, and the effect of the organizational culture has on their development, the history of blacks in the labor force must be discussed.   Therefore, excerpts from various studies have been extracted which the writer believes to be important aspects of this study.

In the Beginning. Bennett (1978) wrote that during the first World War, thousands of black immigrants were employed for the first time in factories.   Thousands more - in the North and South - entered the Army. He emphasizes that for black America, World War I was a traumatic experience as black officers and soldiers were repeatedly humiliated. Although black soldiers were trained for combat, they were forced into labor battalions or assigned to menial duties as orderlies. Throughout the war, there were ugly conflicts between black soldiers and white soldiers and civilians.

In France, American authorities spent a large amount of time watching black soldiers of a particular Division who were ordered not to speak to French women. The order was captioned "To the French Military Mission Stationed with the American Army - Secret Information Concerning the Black American Troops," and the following conclusion is excerpted:

1. 1st prevent the rise of any pronounced degree of intimacy between French officers and black officers. We may be courteous and amicable with the last, but we cannot deal with them on the same plane as with the white American officer without deeply wounding the latter. We must not eat with them, must not shake hands or seek to talk to meet with them outside of the requirements of military service.

2. We must not commend too highly the American troops, particularly in the presence of (white) Americans...

3. Make a point of keeping the native cantonment population from spoiling the negroes. (White) Americans become greatly incensed at any public expression if intimacy between white women and black men. (p.292)

The prejudice that is ingrained in U.S. industry today mirrors the socialization process that followed the French order. Although most of our current white managers are two generations removed from the soldiers who fought during World War I, a social distance has nevertheless been maintained between blacks and whites. Consequently, a strain during interaction between the two in a work relationship ultimately reflects in performance evaluations, feedback, rewards, and opportunity for career growth and development.

Periodic Assimilation Surges. After World War I, black Americans made periodic surges toward fuller participation in American life. According to Davis and Watson (1982), it actually began at the turn of the century when the surge was connected to a vigorous concern for the social welfare of black people. Many black schools and institutions such as the NAACP were born during this time.

Davis and Watson (1982) stated that during the 1920s, Harlem took the lead and gained for blacks greater recognition of their contribution to the cultural life of the nation. In the 1940s, blacks fought for equal rights to produce goods and to go into combat to help fight World War II. In the 1960s, America found itself in the midst of a massive movement of black Americans for racial equality, beginning in the South, and spreading to the black ghettos of northern cities. It was as a result of the insurgency of blacks, that President Johnson championed civil rights legislation. "It is the glorious opportunity of this generation to end the one huge wrong of the American nation." Johnson said to a black audience at Howard University in June 1965. "The barriers [to freedom] are tumbling down. Freedom is the right to share, share fully and equally, in American society - to vote, to hold a job, to enter a public place, to go to school. It is the right to be treated in every part of our national life as a person equal in dignity and promise to all others."(p.1-42)

With the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, educational and professional job opportunities were opened in fields previously closed to blacks. The private industrial sector established programs to encourage the hiring of blacks in more varied professional fields. For the first time in history, blacks in relatively large numbers were entering previously all-white universities. They were obtaining degrees and jobs previously available only to whites; however, gross inequities still existed (Dickens & Dickens 1982).

Dickens and Dickens (1982) also described the criteria that companies abided by when they first started hiring this first generation of black professionals. The black professional must be considered "qualifiable" which meant blacks were not supposedly qualified, but could be trained. Many companies felt they were lowering their standards to admit blacks. Regardless of whether this was true or not true, many blacks managed to move into the higher levels of management in these companies. However, in relationship to the white manager, this number is minimal.

In the late 1960s and 1970s, many corporations established affirmative action programs to help identify qualified blacks and to continue to ensure equal employment opportunities. According to Moskal (1976) companies generally set hiring goals by categories, not by specific job group, which creates a loophole that lowers the effectiveness of affirmative action plans.

On June 17, 1974, <u>Newsweek</u> made the following report in their weekly magazine: "Although Richard Nixon had never been regarded as a champion of civil rights, yet in a quiet and highly pragmatic way during the past two years, the Administration's civil right strategists have been waging a tough fight - and a remarkably effective one - on behalf of minorities and women." As a result of this fight, and the implementation of affirmative action programs, many black professionals maintain their positions today.

In the 1980s, Ronald Reagan was elected President and he immediately convinced many people that big government was responsible for many of the nation's troubles. As reported by Davis and Watson (1982), he promised to "take the government off the backs of the American people." To the enemies of affirmative action, this meant that he would put the government out of the business of forcing companies to end racial and sexual discrimination. In fact, he said that he was philosophically opposed to affirmative action. During the first year of his administration the government began putting his philosophy into place; the Administration told corporations with a combined total of more than 7.5 million workers that they had to draw up detailed plans for hiring and promoting women and minorities. It changed the rules under which females and minority workers could sue to collect back pay for jobs or promotions they did not receive.

Davis and Watson (1982) concluded by stating that the Reagan administration reversed Nixon's policies on affirmative action and forbade any employer with a government contract from hiring women and minorities over equally qualified white males. The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission's right to go to court to enforce anti-discrimination was taken away. Jones (1986) poses the question, "What will be the outcome of many of America's best educated and best prepared blacks if they are not allowed to succeed, and if our country's leaders, including those in corporations, no longer care about this issue?" (p.93)

Dickens and Dickens (1982) illustrate how specific grievances varied from area to area, but certain basic issues were held in common. The National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders appointed by President Johnson in 1967 identified at least 12 grievances deeply held by the black population. Only two identified by Dickens and Dickens in a prioritized sequence that are relevant to this study. They are: unemployment and underemployment (rated second in importance), and inadequate education (rated fourth). These elements of institutionalized racism set the black professional back even further. These deficits affect them throughout their professional lives.

In Jones' (1986) study on black managers, he heard corporate executives imply, "We want you to be a number in a seat representing a particular program. Stay in your place."

(p.85) Jones believed that this tone suggested that the psychological contract made by corporations is unfulfilled for high achievers.

A senior level black executive expressed to Jones:

> We can have all the credentials in the world, but that doesn't qualify us in the minds of many white people. They can train the hell out of us and we can do well, but they may still think of us as unqualified. Old biases, attitudes, and beliefs stack the cards against us. (p.85)

Taking into consideration the above account of black managers in organizations and the persistence of racial stereotypes still in the forefront today, Fernandez (1981) explains the effects this distinction has on white-black manager-employee relationships as follows:

> Many minority managers interact effectively with whites every day, but many white managers are unable or unwilling to acknowledge effective interaction. The white managers are not comfortable in these interactions, but they do not identify their own uncertainties as the cause. (p.50)

Based on the results of Jones research on black managers, which were conducted in 1973 and again in 1986, there is evidence that black managers have progressed from almost total exclusion to holding positions of responsibility, prestige, and high income. However, those who strive for senior management positions are the ones who are moving into an arena of subtle but strong resistance. According to Jones (1986), the stakes are higher and the rules are often less well defined, if they exist at all. It is at this juncture where

the issue of stereotypes and prejudice is the most acute. Therefore, the relationship between the white and black manager must be continued to be explored in depth.

White-black Relationships in Urban Health Care Organizations

Urban Health Care Organizations. While great strides have been made in the last thirty years to upgrade the quality of hospital managers, Deegan (1977) affirms the fact that it is still true that the managers of many hospitals are ill prepared for the awesome responsibilities thrust upon them by this still growing, third largest industry in the country. He elaborates by stating:

> The reasons for all this are well known....the problem of intolerable resistance to change, the multitude of professions now to be found in the typical hospital, or similar background information well-enough documented elsewhere.(p.3)

The importance of strong corporate values are described by Senn (1986) as crucial to a relationship because it lets people know what's expected of them. These values clearly spell out how people are to behave most of the time, allowing employees more time and energy to be innovative. He elaborates further by highlighting the increased probability of support and reinforcement when employees understand what the firm stands for and what standards they are to uphold.

With the cultural differences between whites and blacks, it is incumbent upon white supervisors in the relationship to be skilled in hearing and understanding all clues concerning

needs, culture, and personality of their minority employees. Recognizing that the black manager may have been recruited to meet affirmative action quotas of the health care organization, the white manager must adjust his judgement to accept and include this knowledge. One way of accomplishing this is by the organization equating the value of the psychological contract with good management practice.

Schein (1980) suggests that new persons must be enlisted to retrain existing personnel in cultural awareness knowledge and skills. Using a diagnostic perspective, the trained manager must have the ability to make an equitable judgement about the ability of a new black manager to accept the unit's existing psychological contract. This judgement must be made on the quality of the fit in the white-black relationship. Poor judgement here could have a negative effect on the survival of the psychological contract and ultimately on the work relationship.

White-Black Manager-Employee Relationships. In the urban health care organization, cultural norms dictate suppression of overt racial attitudes through the power of policy and procedures regarding equality. Jones (1973) elaborates on this behavior by stressing that the United States norm against being prejudiced precludes an admission of guilt of the prejudiced party. In many instances, naivete hides bigotry to the point that whites often deny their own prejudice.

Unfortunately, this condition is prevalent in U.S. industry today and has an indirect impact upon culturally diverse relationships.

A diagnostic approach by Fernandez (1981) entitled <u>Racism and Sexism in Corporate Life</u> (1981) gave the following account:

> While many similarities exist in the social history of blacks and that of other minorities in the United States, there are some crucial differences. Because of their background in slavery and because their appearance is the most different from whites, blacks started from further behind than any other race group in this country (p.50).

The white-black differences in cultural behaviors and perceived expectations can diminish each member's value at the outset. A diagnostic perspective must therefore be developed to sensitize both parties to the relationship.

Silberman (1978) stated that racism against blacks is more virulent and intractable than is racism against other racial, ethnic, and religious groups. As with other minority groups, "Job competition was a major reason that whites developed racist attitudes toward blacks. The fear that blacks would compete for whites' jobs dates back even to the slavery days" (Fernandez, p.50).

As Jones (1986) describes it, a first step towards enhancing the relationship between the white and black manager is to accept how deeply rooted our feelings are about race and color, then remove the taboo on candor about racial realities.

Recognizing that corporations cannot manage attitudes, Jones (1986) acknowledges that behavior can be managed with accountability, rewards, and punishment. He recommends that corporations must open up communication and not deny or pretend because, "What gets measured in business gets done; what is not measured is ignored."

White-Black Perceptual Differences. The influx of minorities as managers into previously all-white corporations and institutions is causing an informal organizational phenomenon. Companies are faced with one set of managerial problems that is a function of the new value system and the managerial level. A second set of managerial problems, however, stems directly from differences in race.

A testimony by a black vice president of a large insurance company who was interviewed by Jones (1986) had different perceptions from his peers.

> White executives at my level say they don't see race as a factor. This is contrary to my perceptions. When I say race, I refer to what is happening to all blacks. White executives choose to see these situations as issues of personal shortcomings. They say, "We have to look at the possibility of upward mobility of blacks on an individual basis." But when I look at it on an individual basis, I see all blacks being treated the same way. Therefore, I come to the conclusion that black managers are being treated as a group." (p.87)

Fernandez (1981) in his research of Racism and Sexism in Corporate Life indicated that nonblack minorities and whites see blacks as the least-desirable minority with whom to interact. These data suggest that substantial validity exists

to black managers feelings regarding their discomfort. These negative perceptions are usually internalized to some degree by all blacks.

Jones (1973) elaborates on this issue by stating that most white people do not understand or accept the fact that skin color has such a pervasive impact on every black person's life that it subordinates considerations of education or class.

Jones (1986) stated that attempts by black managers to convince white superiors that they are trustworthy, safe and therefore acceptable, manifest themselves in different ways. Blacks encounter difficulty overcoming white executives' feelings about color; but like whites, they will use what tactics they can to get ahead. Unfortunately, for blacks, getting ahead means more than merely changing roles. The adoption of a white value system often means unconsciously devaluing other blacks - and ultimately themselves.

During Fernandez's research (1981), a black first line supervisor comments:

> I came from a black ghetto background. The experience my white peer gained through school activities and through working in his father's store, I didn't receive. Therefore, being behind in this necessitates a more-extensive and -intensive training and development program. (p.48)

A white middle manager makes similar comments:

> Background, family, education, etc. have not given them (blacks) a good basis. They need training to build their confidence and also technical, professional knowledge to adequately do the job. (p.48)

According to Fernandez (1981), these comments contain some truth for some deprived and uneducated minority people. He wrote, however, that many whites as well as minorities make distinctions about poor, uneducated whites versus educated, middle-class whites, but they do not make these same distinctions about minorities. Fernandez explains that this conflicting approach may be embodied in the fact that 97% of the blacks surveyed and 60-90% of the other minority groups believe that most minorities are as qualified as whites, while at the same time 32-43% of them believe that most minorities come from different cultural backgrounds that will interfere with their managerial success. With more and more blacks coming from middle-class backgrounds, a minority person who grew up in deprivation should have no more difficulty than a white person who has overcome an underprivileged status to be an effective manager.

The term "white-black manager-employee relationship" has been used in this study to designate, respectively, the cultural patterns and perspectives of white-managers and black managers who work together in urban health care organizations. Allport's (1958) description of perceptions emphasizes the extreme differences that whites and blacks perceive of each other and the impact these have on their ability to interact professionally and socially.

The White Manager's Responsibility. Kotter (1973) found
that the higher the quality of the match of expectations, the
greater the job satisfaction. For the white-black
manager-employee relationship, this match requires greater
effort than relationships not confounded by race. Goddard
(1984) has suggested,

> The clearer an individual understands his or her
> own expectations, the higher the probability is of
> matching them. This can be accomplished by two or
> more people discussing their expectations with each
> other. The major obstacles to their progress are
> organizational norms which define some items as
> "not legitimate to talk about". (p.13)

Skin color makes black people the most conspicuous
minority in America. All blacks, regardless of status, are
subjected to prejudice. Consequently, the degree of stress
based on perceptions is usually higher than whites. If the
psychological contract is implemented with sensitivity to
these issues, the white-black manager-employee relationship
will have a better chance of reducing this stress factor and
nurturing its survival. Hence, items labeled as "not
legitimate to talk about" can ultimately be talked about.

Schein (1980) was highly concerned about motivation and
human dignity. He wrote that one of the easiest ways to
induce anger in someone is to insult them. It is also easy to
embarrass oneself or one's associates by making a fool of
oneself; i.e., saying the wrong thing at the wrong time. He
noted that people from one culture mismanaged situations

because they did not know the simple rules of interaction in another culture. There are components in the psychological contract that indicate that one cannot really understand what kinds of events will threaten someone's dignity if consideration of the norms and values of the particular people in the group are taken.

Selection and development of staff are among the functional manager's most important instruments for securing good task-individual fit. A matching process between the organization and the employee must take place. For selection to function properly, the white-black manager-employee participants must accurately communicate their expectations at the employment interview. Peters (1975) believes that decision on how hard to work, how creative and loyal to be, and how long to remain, are based on the degree to which the expectations each member in the white-black manager-employee relationship match the other's.

In summary, the commitment toward the development of the white-black manager-employee relationship must come from the top. Jones (1986) says unless the CEO influences the corporate culture to counter the old-boy system by compelling all managers to focus on competence and performance rather than comfort and fit, the in-place majority will merely perpetuate itself and the culture will continue to default to traditional racial etiquette and attitudes. Jones (1986) concludes by stressing that a fair chance means that black

managers can move ahead and still be genuine. Senior corporate executives must make the decision whether we have a nation where competence and character will be the criteria for leadership or whether color will ordain that Americans stay in a place determined by racial castes.

The Black Manager's Responsibility. For the black manager upon acceptance into the urban health care organization, the psychological contract does not emerge in a positive way. Feelings of doubt about succeeding surface immediately. According to Dickins and Dickins (1982), many blacks still must face the fact that they are being hired for reasons other than being the best person available for the job. This doubt is compounded when the black employee realizes that there is truth in the fact that education does not always prepare the newly hired person for the realities of the everyday work environment. For blacks, Jones (1973) determined that this can be a particularly crushing blow. Naivete often cause blacks to assume that racial attitudes within the company will be more positive than those of society.

The psychological contract is a two-way street (Schein 1980). Black managers must look at their expectations and discuss them as well as the organization's expectations in detail. Dickens and Dickens (1982) wrote that since black managers' education and work life has exposed them to

institutional racism, they have been sensitized to it. Therefore, a conscientious effort must be made on the part of the black manager to meet the organization half-way. Their personal biases and experiences with overt racism should be evaluated in a sincere attempt to remove any dysfunctional behavior that can cause barriers to an open relationship. The responsibility for the psychological contract should not be a one-sided affair.

Dickens and Dickens (1982) state that in the first few days of employment, the black manager must look for clues either verbal or non-verbal which will assist them to further solidify provisions of the psychological contract. The level of their desire to feel secure and to maintain their dignity is an important factor in work motivation. Consequently, if they perceive that their dignity may be under attack, their initial motivation may suffer a decline.

The motive to maintain dignity is extremely important because if we cannot trust others to protect ourselves from humiliation, the whole social order becomes unsafe. If black managers are to feel secure in dealing with their white supervisors or employees, they must be able to believe that they will not be taken advantage of and that they can trust the others.

The white-black manager-employee work relationship can be facilitated though the psychological contract. This can be attained through the encouragement of open communication and

the acceptance of not only of the differences in skin color, but also class, personality, levels of sensitivity, and tact. As Jones (1973) concluded,

> The world of white business presents the black manager with an elaborate sociopolitical organization that require unfamiliar codes of behavior. (p.113)

In 1986, Jones said that most managers feel that to satisfy the values and expectations of the white corporate hierarchy, they must smart from the pain of prejudice even as white colleagues deny that the reality of race has any impact.

Upward Mobility. What can the organization do to honor the psychological contract for the black manager for intrinsic rewards? Without a challenge, meaningful responsibility, or feeling like they are doing something worthwhile, black managers are set up for failure. Thomas (1974) stated that the expectation here is that promotions will offer developmental opportunities, greater opportunity to experience the job's intrinsic satisfaction, and increased compensation.

A recent study illustrating the long-term effects of expectations on performance was conducted by two management professors at Yale University and M.I.T. According to Goddard (1984), they reviewed the careers of 62 managers hired as management trainees by the American Telephone and Telegraph Company. They found that early in their careers, managers developed enduring attitudes and expectations that are

important to their future performance and success. These attitudes and expectations are directly related to their organization's early expectations of them. Specifically, the researchers found the following:

> High Performance Standards: New managers assigned to relatively demanding jobs performed better than those assigned to less demanding tasks. Also, new managers who met the challenge of one highly demanding job developed positive job attitudes and high standards leading to strong performance in later years. Subsequently, they were given more demanding jobs, and their level of contribution rose as they responded to the company's growing expectations of them.

> Low Performance Standards: New Managers assigned to an undemanding job, or who failed to meet the challenge of a demanding job in the first year, generally lowered their performance goals or standards, reduced their performance levels, and developed negative attitudes toward the task or the job. Lack of high personal standards of performance let these managers to do only as much as was expected of them.(p.35)

Goddard's (1984) analysis of the results of these findings indicate that people who aren't stretched early in their careers or who are assigned work beyond their skills and abilities may not reach their full potential. As Kotter had theorized, this mismatch of challenges and capabilities, of personal aspirations and company expectations may sharply reduce an employee's long-term productivity.

One way that blacks cope with lack of opportunity for advancement is to disengage. Kanter (1977) suggests that when demotivation is evident, the psychological contract is at the violation point. When the black manager is not provided work that is intrinsically meaningful and challenging and is

characterized by low commitment, non-responsibility, and depressed aspirations, the organization is remiss.

In summary, the significance of the psychological contract in contemporary society is still very forceful. It has the ability to empower the organization to foster the responsibility of each individual manager to maintain a workable contract with each employee under its control. What is equally important is the recognition that the psychological contract is not a new or another managerial style, but a base on which any "managerial style" can be built (Dunahee & Wangler 1974).

Considering the magnitude of its significance together with the influx of black managers in today's organizations, the psychological contract has yet another powerful force. It is the source of a viable communication channel that can facilitate the reciprocal white-black work relationship. Cultural norms may inhibit verbalization. This inhibition inevitably will deter the fulfillment of an open and trusting relationship. Once the psychological contract is understood, accepted, and implemented as a vehicle for fulfilling mutual expectations, the cultural norms of both parties can then be viewed from a diagnostic perspective.

Summary of Literature Review

The literature review revealed that the psychological contract, if managed improperly, can result in demotivated employees who are apathetic about their performance. Goddard (1984) wrote:

> The little heard of psychological contract is causing many organizations and employees' expectations to go unfulfilled. In many instances, these unfulfilled expectations are resulting in high turnover, absenteeism, sabotage, and worker alienation. (p.12)

If managed properly, however, the psychological contract can be used as a viable tool to assist in the development of a healthy relationship. On the positive side of the psychological contract, Goddard (1984) wrote:

> The psychological contract process goes to the heart of motivation, productivity, job satisfaction and involvement, and the management of human resources. (p.12)

Much concern is being expressed regarding issues around human resources in urban health care organizations. Goldsmith (1989) wrote how alert administrators and trustees have learned that hospitals have to be run more like businesses. However, he also suggested that less emphasis should be placed on profits and traditional management issues, and more on human resources and organizational development concerns. Goldsmith (1989) stated, "Scale economies in health care delivery have been confined mainly to supply and capital costs, but they represent only about 15% of total costs.

Personnel represents the biggest cost item, 60% or more of the total." (p.105)

Corporate culture, a subject that has been ignored for many years as a "soft" topic, consists of the norms, values, unwritten rules of conduct, management style, priorities, beliefs, and interpersonal behaviors of an organization (Senn, 1986). Together they create a climate that influences how well people communicate, plan, and make decisions.

In today's organization, the lack of attention given to the corporate culture is evidenced by the lack of attention placed on the launching of a new work relationship. This problem decreases chances for a successful union over a prolonged period of time. The available evidence is nearly unanimous in indicating that "the first few months is crucial to the development of a healthy individual-organizational relationship" (Nadler, p.48).

Despite several decades of improvements in racial desegregation, there still exists a large gap in the occupational distribution of blacks and whites, especially men in urban health care organizations. Alba (1988) reported,

> In 1982, about 30% of the employed black men who worked held white-collar jobs. This is just about the white-collar proportion among white men on the eve of World War II. Thus, there is a four-decade gap separating the occupational attainments of black men and white men. There is an unambiguous trend toward a racial convergence of the occupational distribution but the substantial racial difference which remains will disappear only if there are several more decades of improvement. (p.9)

Ray (1988) reports on this issue by stating the following:

"Discrimination is still very much a reality for blacks," says Linda Bates Parker, President of Black Career Women, Inc., a national networking organization for professional black women. "There's the expectation that black professionals will have only average skills. And their competency is always in question. Blacks have to be truly exceptional, she argues, to be considered just as good and move beyond the limited framework in which they're seen."(p.34)

In conclusion, the socialization process for the black manager in urban health care organizations is usually a painful one, full of anxieties and doubts and wishful thinking. Their perceived expectations of the quality of their jobs and about the people who share their world determine the quality of the psychological contract. Rogers (Schultz, 1987) formulated his optimistic image of human nature by stressing the level of importance that perceptual conditions of worth have on the growth and development of a work relationship.

Senn's (1986) study on corporate culture and its ability to guide employee behavior emphasizes the importance that culture can make in a firm's efforts to adapt to changing economic and social environment. He wrote that few managers consciously recognize what their company's culture is and how it manifests itself because it is a difficult concept to understand. As one manager said, "It's like putting your hand

in a cloud."(p.17)   Senn believes that the more the organization is in touch with its culture, the higher the chances of success in changing strategy.   Kotter (1973) eloquently capsulized the literature review by stating that the "payoff for a particular organization will depend upon its awareness of the importance of the psychological contract process, and upon the creativity with which it systematically examines its unique situation and derives solutions for better management of this process." (p.99)

CHAPTER III

METHODS

Sample

The sample for this study was comprised of 153 middle level managers, of which 51 were black, 91 were white and 11 were from other backgrounds. All were employed in health care facilities in the New York metropolitan area.

Instrumentation

The Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (MOAQ) was used to gather data from the sample about the perceptions and attitudes they have toward unwritten and unspoken expectations within the manager-employee relationship and their levels of satisfaction. The instrument was developed by Lawler, Cammann, Nadler, and Jenkins (1975) and has been tested for reliability and validity.

The scales of the MOAQ were developed through factor analyzing a large pool of items using varimax rotations and principal-component analysis. Scales were developed out of several factor analyses, each one using a smaller pool of

analyses. The final list of items was divided into numerous subscales and tested for internal consistency using coefficient alpha. Subscale alphas ranged from .31 to .93, with a median of .75. Of 58 subscales, only five were below the criterion of .50 for minimum reliability. Concurrent validity checks were made by intercorrelating each set of subscales within each module, from module 1 to 5. Demographic indicators were assumed to have face validity. On module 1, which measures general attitudes, the authors concluded that the relationships were predictable from expectancy theory and were stable. Alpha coefficients ranged from .60-.83. On module 2, which measures job facets, there were predictable relationships based upon expectancy theory. Alpha coefficients ranged from .51-.80. Module 3 assesses task, job, and role characteristics. This area was the most difficult to measure and relationships among subscales were stable. Alpha coefficients ranged from .31-.81. The Task Impact, Task Significance, Responsibility, and Knowledge of Results subscales did not achieve adequate reliability. Module 4 assessed group functioning. Relationships among the subscales were predictable and stable. Alpha coefficients ranged from .61-.79. Module 5 assessed supervision. Although the authors judged the scales to be reliable and valid for the assessment of supervision in an organization, they noted that the intercorrelations among the scales was fairly high,

indicating a great deal of overlap among the scales. Alpha coefficients ranged from .76-.93. Module 6 assessed pay. Although reliabilities are generally high (alphas $\geq$ .47 $\leq$ .89) they lacked discriminant validity and had high intercorrelations, indicating a great deal of overlap. The authors concluded that the ultimate determination of validity had to be made by the researcher about the appropriateness of the scales for the research problem. For this study, the MOAQ seems to be quite sufficient.

Although the MOAQ used six modules, this researcher has narrowed the number of modules to four. The authors themselves suggested that, "the MOAQ should be considered a 'living' instrument. It should be adapted each time it is used to fit the particular circumstances involved. . ." (p. 117). The instrument was adapted in this study to reflect those variables critical to the measurement of variables related to perceived expectations. Because of this, there are five rather than the usual seven modules.

Respondents were assessed on the following background variables: 1) sex, 2) education level, 3) marital status, 4) racial/ethnic category, 5) racial/ethnic category of supervisor, 6) years worked for present employer, 7) years worked at present position, and 8) present job title.

Modules 1 through 4 on the questionnaire (Appendix A) use five-point Likert-type response modes. For general attitudes the categories are: 1) strongly disagree, 2)

disagree, 3) neither agree or disagree, 4) agree, and 5) strongly agree. For importance, the categories are: 1) not at all important, 2) of little importance, 3) moderately important, 4) very important, and 5) extremely important. For satisfaction and perceived likelihood, the same modes are used as with importance, but with "satisfaction" or "likely" replacing "importance." Summed scales are used, with negatively stated items reverse coded prior to summation. For attitudes, the higher the score the more positive the attitude. The higher the score, the greater the importance, satisfaction, or likelihood.

The subscales in module 1 are: 1) Overall Job Satisfaction (three items), 3) Job involvement (one item), 4) Intention to Turnover (two items), 4) Self-Report of Effort (one item), 5) Trust of Organization (five items), 6) Internal work motivation (three items), Task quality (one items), and 7) Self-Report of work quality (one items).

The subscales in module 2 are: 1) Satisfaction with Social Rewards (three items), 2) Satisfaction with Intrinsic Rewards (three items), 3) Satisfaction with Influence Rewards (two items), 4) Satisfaction with Extrinsic Rewards (three items).

The subscales in module 3 for supervision are: 1) Production Orientation (four items), 2) Control of Work (six items), 3) Work Facilitation--Goal Setting (three items), 4) Work Facilitation--Problem Solving (two items), 5) Work

Facilitation--Subordinate Relations (five items), 6) Bias
(two items), 7) Consideration (three items), 8)
Participation (two items), 9) Decision Centralization (two
items), and 10) Competence (two item). The subscales in
module 3 for staff are: 1) participation (four items), 2)
staff fairness (six items), 3) goal orientation (four
items), 4) productivity (three items), 5) problem solving
(two items), 6) concern (three items), and 7) competence
(five items).

Module 4 contains items about promotion determinants:
Experience (one item), Seniority (two items), Individual
Performance (three items), and Background (three items).

Data Collection

The data were collected through the use of a mailed
questionnaire. Lists of middle managers were compiled from
the various hospitals in New York City through personal
contact and compilation of lists of professional
organizations of health care managers. It is expected that
this list will result in approximately 500 health care
managers, approximately 25% of whom were black.

Questionnaires were mailed to the population with a
cover letter explaining the purpose of the research and
requesting their participation, explaining their rights as
participants, and requesting immediate return (Appendix B).
A form for those who wish to know the results of the study

was included. A stamped self-addressed envelope was included for the return of the questionnaire.

In an attempt to increase the response rate, the questionnaire was printed in an attractive form, allowing the respondent to complete it in a relatively short time. There were only three questions that requires the respondent to write. All other questions were completed by circling numbers. These qualities have been enumerated by Selltiz, Jahoda, Deutsch, and Cook (1959) as methods by which response rates can be increased. A total of 461 questionnaires were distributed. Three were returned undeliverable, making the population 458 middle level managers. A total of 153 codeable questionnaires were received, resulting in a 33.4% response rate.

Data Analysis

Preliminary Analyses. Frequencies and distributions of the sample were presented on the background variables. Background variables other than race were related to selected perceived job-related variables, job satisfaction, reward satisfaction, and job performance variables as follows: 1) gender differences were tested using t-tests; 2) marital status and job status were tested using analysis of variance; and 3) educational background, age, and years working for present employer were correlated with perceived

expectations and job satisfaction, reward satisfaction, and job performance variables.

Hypothesis Testing. Hypothesis 1 is a multivariate hypothesis comparing white and black managers. It was tested using discriminant analysis, using reward expectations, criteria for promotion, staff relations, and supervisor relations as predictor variables. In addition to multivariate statistics, univariate analyses of variance were also reported.

Hypotheses 2, 3, and 4 were tested using stepwise multiple regression analyses, using the criterion of F = 1.00 as the criterion for entry. Those variables not reaching the criterion for entry were automatically excluded from the regression equation. For Hypothesis 2, job satisfaction variables was regressed over selected perceived expectations variables. For Hypothesis 3, reward satisfaction variables were regressed over selected perceived expectations variables. For Hypothesis 4, self-perceived job performance was regressed over selected perceived expectations variables. In all cases, the .05 alpha level was used for the rejection of the null hypothesis.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

The findings are presented in two sections. The
preliminary findings are presented first, followed by
hypothesis testing.

Preliminary Findings

Descriptive Data. The preliminary findings section
presents descriptive data on the sample and on the major
indicators, and analyses of the relationships between the
background variables and perceived job-related expectation
variables, job satisfaction, reward satisfaction, and job
performance variables. Table 1 presents the frequencies and
distributions of the respondents on the background
variables.

Table 1

Frequencies and Distributions of Respondents on Background
Variables

Variable	(n)	%
Sex		
Female	104	68.0
Male	49	32.0
TOTAL	153	100.0
Education		
Less than High School	1	0.7
HS Graduate	4	2.6
Some College	20	13.1
College Graduate	24	15.7
Post-graduate work	17	11.1
Graduate Degree	87	53.9
TOTAL	153	100.0
Marital Status		
Single	38	24.8
Married	81	52.9
Separated	4	2.6
Divorced	19	12.4
Widowed	9	5.9
Non-response	2	1.4
TOTAL	153	100.0
Race/Ethnicity		
White	91	59.5
African-American	51	33.3
Hispanic	9	5.9
Asian	2	1.3
TOTAL	153	100.0
Age		
21-30	16	10.4
31-40	41	26.8
41-50	63	41.2
51-60	28	18.3
61+	5	3.3
TOTAL	153	100.0

The sample consisted of 104 (68.0%) females and 49 (32.0%) males. All but five (3.3%) had some college education. Twenty (13.1%) had some college, 24 (15.7%) had a baccalaureate degree, 17 (11.1%) had some post-graduate work, and 87 (53.9%) had a graduate degree. Thirty-eight (24.8%) were single, 81 (52.9%) were married, 23 (15.0%) were either divorced or separated, and nine (5.9%) were widowed. There were two (1.4%) non-responses. The modal age range was 41-50 with 63 (41.2%) of the respondents in this category. Forty-one ((26.8%) were between 31-40, 28 (18.3%) were between 51-60, 16 (10.4%) were between 21-30, and five (3.3%) were over 60.

On the racial/ethnicity variable, 91 (59.5%) respondents were white, 51 (33.3%) were African-American, and 11 (7.2%) were of other racial or ethnic origins. The total sample was used for descriptive statistics only. For all other analyses, whites and African-Americans were used.

The sample can be characterized as predominantly female, with females outnumbering males by a ratio of better than two-to-one; predominantly white, with whites outnumbering African-Americans by a ratio of slightly less than two-to-one; highly educated, with more than half having advanced degrees; the majority are married; and mature, with nearly two-thirds beyond the age of 40.

Table 2 presents a crosstabulation of race by sex for the 142 black and white respondents.

Table 2

Crosstabulation of Race by Sex

Sex	Race Black	White	TOTAL
Male	8	37	45
%	5.6	26.1	31.7
Female	43	54	97
%	30.3	38.0	68.3
TOTAL	51	91	142
%	35.9	64.1	100.0

Table 2 indicates that there were eight (5.6%) black males and 37 (26.1%) white males in the sample. There were 43 (30.3%) black females and 54 (38.0%) white females in the sample.

Table 3 presents descriptive data on the job related variables of experience, general attitudes, reward satisfactions, reward expectations, perceptions of management behaviors, perceptions of staff behaviors, and perceptions of promotion criteria. The number of items for each indicator are presented with means and standard deviations, and alpha reliability coefficients. Alpha coefficients cannot be conducted for single item indicators. All reliability coefficients are above the conventional criterion of .50 for adequate reliability.

Of note in Table 3 are the experience variables. The respondents have been employed an average of 9.82 years, with a standard deviation of 8.54 years. They have been in

their present position for an average of 4.30 years with a standard deviation of 4.56 years.

Gender. Table 4 presents the means and standard deviations of the 97 white and African females and 45 white and African-American males on general attitudes, satisfaction with rewards, reward expectations, perception of management behaviors, perceptions of staff behaviors, and perceptions of promotional criteria. The data in Table 4 indicate that there are no significant differences between females and males on any variable other than satisfaction with external rewards.

The mean satisfaction with external rewards score among the female managers and administrators was 9.47 with a standard deviation of 2.97, and the mean for males was 10.49 with a standard deviation of 2.10. The resulting t-value was -2.52, which was significant at the .05 level.

The data in Table 4 suggest that there are not many differences between female and male managers in their attitudes toward work, their expectation of rewards, or their perceptions of management and staff behaviors, or perceptions of criteria for promotion. However, female managers feel that they apparently are not paid according to their worth relative to male managers.

Table 3

Number of Items, Means, Standard Deviations, and Alpha
Reliability Coefficients for Job--Related Variables

(N = 153)

Variable	Items (n)	Mean	S.D.	α
Experience				
Years Employed	1	9.82	8.54	--
Years in Pres. Pos.	1	4.30	4.56	--
General Attitudes				
Job Satisfaction	2	8.01	1.78	.84
Motivation Level	4	17.68	1.88	.58
Organizational Trust	5	16.25	4.07	.76
Effort	1	4.34	0.76	--
Quality of Work	1	4.48	0.58	--
Intention to Turnover	2	7.19	2.27	.61
Involvement in Org.	1	4.20	0.80	--
Satisfaction with Rewards				
External	3	9.76	2.25	.58
Internal	3	11.36	2.63	.86
Social	3	11.52	2.08	.82
Influence	2	7.45	1.69	.69
Expectation of Rewards	6	21.37	3.90	.78
Management Behaviors				
Staff Participation	2	7.22	1.97	.81
Control of Work	6	21.21	4.92	.84
Fairness	5	18.16	4.51	.79
Goal Setting	3	9.97	2.82	.87
Production Orient.	4	14.91	2.83	.75
Problem Solving	2	6.63	2.04	.84
Concern	3	10.15	3.07	.86
Competence	2	7.31	1.93	.68
Staff Behaviors				
Participation	4	16.13	1.96	.68
Fairness	6	24.98	3.43	.72
Goal Orientation	4	15.24	2.12	.74
Production Orient.	3	12.07	1.95	.79
Problem Solving	2	7.84	1.34	.64
Concern	3	11.77	1.93	.67
Competence	5	19.91	2.78	.80

Table 3 (cont.)

Number of Items, Means, Standard Deviations, and Alpha
Reliability Coefficients for Job--Related Variables

($\underline{N}$ = 153)

Variable	Items ($\underline{n}$)	Mean	S.D.	α
Promotion Criteria				
Experience	1	4.08	0.88	--
Performance	3	12.31	2.05	.77
Seniority	1	2.72	1.00	--
Background	3	5.54	2.55	.79

Table 4

Means, Standard Deviations, and t-values for Job-Related
Variables by Sex

($\underline{N}$ = 142)

| Variable | Females (n = 97) | | Males (n = 45) | | |
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	$\underline{t}_{(140)}$
General Attitudes					
Job Sat.	7.90	1.86	8.27	1.73	-1.13
Motivation	17.79	2.05	17.60	1.53	0.56
Org. Trust	15.93	4.06	17.18	4.14	-1.70
Effort	4.40	0.69	4.15	0.90	1.79
Work Quality	4.45	0.65	4.47	0.51	-0.12
Turn. Intent.	2.96	2.37	2.38	1.96	-1.43
Org. Involv.	4.14	0.82	4.33	0.74	-1.32
Rew. Satisfac.					
External	9.47	2.97	10.49	2.10	-2.52*
Internal	11.19	2.60	11.62	2.74	-0.91
Social	11.32	2.12	11.98	2.02	-1.75
Influence	7.29	1.69	7.73	1.80	-1.43
Rew. Expect	20.86	4.02	22.01	3.57	-1.64
Management Beh.					
Staff Part.	7.03	2.07	7.55	1.90	-1.40
Control	20.88	5.24	21.57	4.55	-0.74
Fairness	17.69	4.71	19.11	4.84	-1.68
Goal Setting	9.82	2.86	10.11	2.81	-0.57
Prod. Orient.	14.79	2.76	15.09	3.22	-0.57
Prob. Solv.	6.62	2.16	6.48	1.90	0.37
Concern	10.04	3.09	10.30	3.20	-0.44
Competence	7.07	2.12	7.73	1.69	-1.79
Staff Behaviors					
Participation	16.22	1.93	15.87	2.00	1.02
Fairness	25.06	3.10	25.13	4.02	-0.12
Goal Orient.	15.22	2.01	15.24	2.32	-0.07
Prod. Orient.	12.27	1.89	11.89	1.82	1.12
Prob. Solv.	7.86	1.35	7.69	1.36	0.68
Concern	12.03	1.80	11.60	1.75	1.34
Competence	20.01	2.60	19.87	2.88	0.30

Table 4 (cont.)

Means, Standard Deviations, and t-values for Job-Related
Variables by Sex

(N = 142)

| Variable | Females (n = 97) | | Males (n = 45) | | |
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	$t_{(140)}$
Prom. Criteria					
Experience	4.09	0.87	4.06	0.84	0.17
Performance	12.16	2.13	12.69	1.83	-1.42
Seniority	2.73	0.95	2.62	1.12	0.60
Background	5.61	2.66	5.33	2.30	0.62

Marital Status. Table 5 presents the data on the
relationships between marital status and job-related
attitudes and perceptions. For these analyses, the
categories of divorced, separated, and widowed were
collapsed into a single category so that there were adequate
numbers in each category to have a valid test. Also,
divorced, separated, and widowed persons are those who have
been married, but are no longer with a spouse. Analysis of
covariance was conducted using age, years employed, and
years in present position for the purpose of ascertaining
the effects of marital status independent of age and
employment experience.

Table 5

Means, Standard Deviations, and F-ratios for Job-Related
Variables by Marital Status

(N = 141)

Variable	Single (n = 37) Mean	S.D.	Married (n = 75) Mean	S.D.	Other (n = 29) Mean	S.D.	$F_{(2,129)}$
General Attitudes							
Job Sat.	7.41	2.02	8.36	1.70	7.86	1.73	2.41
Motivation	17.65	1.85	17.89	2.01	17.66	1.67	0.36
Org. Trust	14.97	4.38	17.07	3.96	16.14	3.87	2.93
Effort	4.27	0.69	4.37	0.77	4.28	0.88	0.10
Work Quality	4.38	0.59	4.48	0.62	4.52	0.57	0.10
Turn. Intent.	3.87	2.06	2.16	2.12	3.03	2.40	8.51**
Org. Involv.	3.84	0.93	4.34	0.71	4.31	0.71	3.48*
Rew. Satisfac.							
External	8.97	2.57	10.21	2.08	9.76	2.20	3.57*
Internal	10.14	2.62	11.91	2.46	11.48	2.65	6.13**
Social	10.54	2.21	12.05	1.87	11.41	2.18	5.16**
Influence	6.76	1.96	7.80	1.62	7.34	1.47	4.35*
Rew. Expect	20.38	4.35	21.93	3.62	20.69	3.99	2.03
Management Beh.							
Staff Part.	6.41	2.22	7.69	1.79	7.00	2.02	4.85**
Control	19.54	5.34	22.35	4.44	19.97	5.40	5.24**
Fairness	16.76	4.63	18.93	4.74	17.93	4.30	3.18*
Goal Setting	9.08	2.75	10.35	2.90	9.90	2.66	3.20*
Prod. Orient.	14.38	3.39	15.35	2.71	14.41	2.68	1.81
Prob. Solv.	6.08	2.10	6.89	1.98	6.44	2.21	2.15
Concern	9.49	3.03	10.73	3.04	9.48	3.28	2.69
Competence	6.70	1.96	7.73	1.84	6.86	2.27	4.32*
Staff Behaviors							
Participation	15.51	2.26	16.39	1.66	16.17	2.16	2.03
Fairness	24.00	3.83	25.59	3.10	25.10	3.42	2.89
Goal Orient.	15.27	2.70	15.35	1.78	14.83	2.07	0.58
Prod. Orient.	12.05	2.15	12.28	1.62	11.93	2.15	0.26
Prob. Solv.	7.51	1.59	7.85	1.22	8.03	1.35	1.67
Concern	11.84	1.76	11.88	1.85	12.00	1.71	0.14
Competence	19.92	3.55	20.07	2.13	19.76	2.82	0.17

Table 5 (cont.)

<u>Means, Standard Deviations, and t-values for Job-Related</u>
<u>Variables by Marital Status</u>

($\underline{N}$ = 141)

Variable	<u>Single</u> ($\underline{n}$ = 37) Mean S.D.		<u>Married</u> ($\underline{n}$ = 75) Mean S.D.		<u>Other</u> ($\underline{n}$ = 29) Mean S.D.		$\underline{F}_{(2,129)}$
<u>Prom. Criteria</u>							
Experience	4.00	0.88	4.17	0.82	3.97	0.91	0.74
Performance	11.97	2.03	12.60	2.05	12.10	2.08	1.56
Seniority	2.68	1.02	2.71	1.06	2.69	0.89	0.04
Background	5.68	2.26	5.48	2.86	5.44	2.09	0.14

*$\underline{p}$ < .05; **$\underline{p}$ < .01

Single managers had an intention to turnover score of 3.87 with a standard deviation of 2.05, married managers had a score of 2.16 with a standard deviation of 2.12, and other managers had a score of 3.03 with a standard deviation of 2.40. The resulting $\underline{F}$ = 8.51, which was significant at the .01 level.

Single managers had an organizational involvement score of 3.84 with a standard deviation of 0.93, married managers had a score of 4.34 with a standard deviation of 0.71, and other managers had a score of 4.31 with a standard deviation of 0.71. The resulting $\underline{F}$ = 3.48, which was significant at the .05 level.

The data on general attitudes suggests that single managers do not differ from other managers on motivation level, work effort, or work quality; however, they are less

satisfied, less trusting of the organization, have greater intention to turnover, and lower organizational involvement than married managers.

On satisfaction with rewards, a similar pattern emerges from the data. Single managers had an external reward satisfaction score of 8.97 with a standard deviation of 2.57, married managers had a score of 10.21 with a standard deviation of 2.08, and other managers had a score of 9.76 with a standard deviation of 2.20. The resulting F = 3.57 which was significant at the .05 level.

Single managers had an internal reward satisfaction score of 10.14 with a standard deviation of 2.57, married managers had a score of 11.91 with a standard deviation of 2.46, and other managers had a score of 11.48 with a standard deviation of 2.65. The resulting F = 6.13, which was significant at the .01 level.

Single managers had a social reward satisfaction score of 10.54 with a standard deviation of 2.21, married managers had a score of 12.05 with a standard deviation of 1.87 and other managers had a score of 11.41 with a standard deviation of 2.18. The resulting F = 5.16, which was significant at the .01 level.

Single managers had an influence reward satisfaction score of 6.76 with a standard deviation of 1.96, married managers had a score of 7.80 with a standard deviation of 1.62, and other managers had a score of 7.34 with a standard

deviation of 1.47. The resulting F = 4.35, which was significant at the .01 level.

There is a consistent relationship between marital status and reward satisfaction, with single managers being less satisfied than married managers. Other managers occupy a middle ground. There were no differences on reward expectations.

On perceptions of supervising managers, single managers had a staff participation score of 6.41 with a standard deviation of 2.22, married managers had a score of 7.69 with a standard deviation of 1.79, and other managers had a score of 7.00 with a standard deviation of 2.02. The resulting F = 4.85, which was significant at the .01 level.

Single managers had a perception of managerial work control score of 19.54 with a standard deviation of 5.34, married managers had a score of 22.35 with a standard deviation of 4.44, and other managers had a score of 19.97 with a standard deviation of 5.40. The resulting F = 5.24, which was significant at the .01 level.

Single managers had a perception of management fairness score of 16.76 with a standard deviation of 4.63, married managers had a score of 22.35 with a standard deviation of 4.44, and other managers had a score of 19.97 with a standard deviation of 4.30. The resulting F = 3.18 which was significant at the .05 level.

Single managers had a perception of management goal setting score of 9.08 with a standard deviation of 2.75, married managers had a score of 10.35 with a standard deviation of 2.90, and other managers had a score of 9.90 with a standard deviation of 2.66. The resulting F = 3.20, which was significant at the .05 level.

Single managers had a perception of management competence score of 6.70 with a standard deviation of 1.96, married managers had a score of 7.73 with a standard deviation of 1.84 and other managers had a score of 6.86 with a standard deviation of 2.27. The resulting F = 4.32 which was significant at the .05 level.

There were no differences by marital status on management production orientation, problem solving, or concern. There were also no differences on perceptions of staff behaviors or criteria for promotion by marital status.

Table 6 presents the results of oneway analyses of variance for black managers with black supervisors, black managers with white supervisors, white managers with black supervisors, and white managers with white supervisors on job-related attitudes and perceptions.

Table 6

Means, Standard Deviations, and F-ratios for Job-Related Variables by Matching of Race of Manager and Supervisor

(N = 142)

	Black Manager				White Manager				
	Bl. Sup. (n = 25)		Wh. Sup. (n = 26)		Bl. Sup (n = 9)		Wh. Sup (n = 82)		
Variable	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	$F_{(3,138)}$
General Attitudes									
Job Sat.	8.12	1.69	7.19	1.63	8.22	2.53	8.22	1.79	2.23
Motivation	18.04	1.81	17.85	1.76	17.56	1.81	17.62	1.99	0.36
Org. Trust	15.84	4.15	15.31	3.56	16.78	5.38	16.74	4.11	0.96
Effort	4.48	0.87	4.12	0.82	4.33	0.50	4.34	0.74	1.00
Work Qual.	4.48	0.65	4.34	0.63	4.44	0.53	4.49	0.59	0.37
Turn. Int.	3.24	2.50	3.50	2.16	2.00	1.32	2.49	2.24	2.09
Org. Inv.	4.36	0.81	4.08	0.84	4.22	1.09	4.20	0.74	0.54
Rew. Satisfact.									
External[a]	9.28	2.26	8.57	2.28	10.11	2.42	10.30	2.12	4.67**
Internal[a]	10.80	2.68	10.15	2.07	11.11	3.30	11.88	2.61	3.40*
Social[a]	11.08	2.43	10.42	1.86	11.00	2.50	12.07	1.87	5.21**
Influence[a]	6.96	1.97	6.53	1.45	7.11	2.47	7.89	1.51	5.40**
Rew. Expect	21.36	4.22	20.04	3.61	21.06	5.15	21.57	3.76	1.04
Management Beh.									
Staff Part.	6.56	2.45	6.58	1.75	6.42	2.37	7.66	1.82	3.59*
Control	20.40	6.20	21.38	4.23	19.14	6.38	21.40	4.76	0.68
Fairness[a]	17.37	5.07	15.15	4.62	16.71	5.22	19.49	4.00	7.04**
Goal Set.	10.32	2.95	9.92	2.40	8.86	2.73	9.88	2.96	0.49
Prod. Ornt.	15.36	3.17	13.96	2.44	13.43	4.68	15.16	2.73	1.97
Prob. Slv.	6.92	2.41	6.19	1.92	6.00	2.16	6.63	2.01	0.72
Concern	9.84	3.51	8.96	2.79	9.00	3.06	10.69	3.01	2.52
Competence	6.76	1.98	6.65	1.83	7.14	2.11	7.66	2.01	2.45
Staff Behaviors									
Particip.	16.16	2.27	15.73	1.64	14.67	3.24	16.38	1.70	2.58
Fairness	24.68	3.26	24.65	3.54	23.89	5.39	25.48	3.14	0.98
Goal Ornt.	15.24	2.01	15.19	2.32	13.44	3.50	15.43	1.81	2.47
Prod. Ornt.	12.16	2.17	11.88	1.93	11.33	2.74	12.32	1.64	0.96
Prob. Slv.	7.60	1.35	7.65	0.93	6.89	2.20	8.01	1.31	2.40
Concern	11.80	1.63	12.27	1.73	10.89	2.02	11.91	1.81	1.36
Competence	19.84	2.95	19.46	2.53	18.11	4.29	20.37	2.35	2.43

Table 6 (cont.)

Means, Standard Deviations, and F-ratios for Job-Related Variables by Matching of Race of Manager and Supervisor

($\underline{N}$ = 142)

| | Black Manager | | White Manager | | |
| | Bl. Sup. ($\underline{n}$ = 25) | Wh. Sup. ($\underline{n}$ = 26) | Bl. Sup ($\underline{n}$ = 9) | Wh. Sup ($\underline{n}$ = 82) | |
Variable	Mean S.D.	Mean S.D.	Mean S.D.	Mean S.D.	$\underline{F}_{(3,138)}$
Prom. Criteria					
Experience	3.84 0.90	4.15 0.83	4.11 1.05	4.13 0.83	0.83
Perform.	12.08 2.44	12.04 2.18	13.22 2.11	12.40 1.86	0.90
Seniority	2.80 1.04	2.57 0.86	2.67 0.71	2.71 1.08	0.21
Background	5.08 2.06	6.85 2.96	4.89 2.62	5.31 2.43	3.09*

*$\underline{p}$ < .05; **$\underline{p}$ < .01
Note: [a]Scheffé range test result: Significant differences between blacks with white managers and whites with black managers, $\underline{p}$ < .05.

The data in Table 6 indicate no differences between manager/supervisor matches and general attitudes. There were, however, significant differences in reward satisfactions. Black managers with black supervisors had a mean external reward satisfaction score of 9.28 with a standard deviation of 2.26, black managers with white supervisors had a mean score of 8.57 with a standard deviation of 2.28, white managers with black supervisors had a mean score of 10.11 with a standard deviation of 2.42, and white managers with white supervisors had a mean score of 10.30 with a standard deviation of 2.12. The resulting $\underline{F}$ = 4.67, $\underline{p}$ < .01. Scheffé range tests indicated significant

differences between black managers with white supervisors and white managers with white supervisors.

Black managers with black supervisors had a mean internal reward satisfaction score of 10.80 with a standard deviation of 2.68, black managers with white supervisors had a mean score of 10.15 with a standard deviation of 2.07, white managers with black supervisors had a mean score of 11.11 with a standard deviation of 3.30, and white managers with white supervisors had a mean score of 11.88 with a standard deviation of 2.61. The resulting F = 3.40, p < .05.

Black managers with black supervisors had a mean social reward satisfaction score of 11.08 with a standard deviation of 2.43, black managers with white supervisors had a mean score of 10.42 with a standard deviation of 1.86, white managers with black supervisors had a mean score of 11.00, with a standard deviation of 2.50, and white managers with white supervisors had a mean score of 12.07 with a standard deviation of 1.87. The resulting F = 5.21, p < .01. Scheffé range tests indicated significant differences between black managers with white supervisors and white managers with white supervisors.

Black managers with black supervisors had a mean influence reward satisfaction score of 6.98 with a standard deviation of 1.97, black managers with white supervisors had

a mean score of 6.53, with a standard deviation of 1.45, white managers with black supervisors had a mean score of 7.11 with a standard deviation of 2.47, and white managers with white supervisors had a mean score of 7.89 with a standard deviation of 1.51. The resulting F = 5.40, p < .01. Scheffé range tests indicated significant differences between black managers with white supervisors and white managers with white supervisors.

Black managers with black supervisors had a mean management staff participation score of 6.56 with a standard deviation of 2.45, black managers with white supervisors had a mean score of 6.58 with a standard deviation of 1.75, white managers with black supervisors had a mean score of 6.42 with a standard deviation of 2.37, and white managers with white supervisors had a mean score of 7.66 with a standard deviation of 1.82. The resulting F = 5.21, p < .05.

Black managers with black supervisors had a mean management fairness score of 17.37 with a standard deviation of 5.07, black managers with white supervisors had a mean score of 15.15 with a standard deviation of 4.62, white managers with black supervisors had a mean score of 16.71 with a standard deviation of 5.22, and white managers with white supervisors had a mean score of 19.49 with a standard deviation of 4.00. The resulting F = 7.04, p < .01. Scheffé range tests indicated significant differences

between black managers with white supervisors and white managers with white supervisors.

Black managers with black supervisors had a mean score on background promotional criteria (race, age, sex) of 5.08 with a standard deviation of 2.06, black managers with white supervisors had a mean score of 6.85 with a standard deviation of 2.96, white managers with black supervisors had a mean score of 4.89 with a standard deviation of 2.62, and white managers with white supervisors had a mean score of 5.31 with a standard deviation of 2.43. The resulting F = 5.21, p < .05.

Table 7 presents Pearson correlations for education, age, years employed, and years at one's present position by general attitudes, reward satisfaction, reward expectations, perception of management behaviors, perception of staff behaviors, and perception of criteria for promotion.

Education. Level of education correlates positively with job satisfaction (r = .23, p < .01), reward satisfaction (external, r = .23, p < .01; internal, r = .21, p < .05; social, r = .23, p < .01; influence, r = .25, p < .01), perception of management openness to staff participation (r = .20, p < .05), and management fairness (r = .22, p < .05). The higher the education the greater the

Table 7

Correlations of Education, Age, Years Employed, and Years in
Present Position with Job-Related Variables

Variable	Education (n = 142)	Age (n = 142)	Yrs. Emp. (n = 138)	Prs. Pos. (n = 137)
General Attitudes				
Job Satisfaction	.23**	.15	.15	.07
Motivation Level	-.06	.00	.01	.04
Organizational Trust	.11	.10	.11	.00
Effort	-.03	-.07	-.16	.00
Quality of Work	.03	.19*	.08	.04
Intention to Turnover	-.10	-.11	-.24**	-.20*
Involvement in Org.	.04	.18*	.21*	.06
Reward Satisfaction				
External	.23**	-.00	.14	.09
Internal	.21*	.02	.10	.01
Social	.23**	.23**	.20*	.16
Influence	.25**	-.03	.07	-.03
Expectation of Rewards	.13	-.02	.07	-.03
Management Behaviors[a]				
Staff Participation	.20*	.04	.04	-.02
Control of Work	.05	.02	.07	-.05
Fairness	.22*	.03	.04	.04
Goal Setting	-.05	.10	.13	.06
Production Orient.	.06	.05	.02	-.06
Problem Solving	.03	.04	.06	-.01
Concern	.06	-.02	.06	-.04
Competence	.21	-.01	.09	.05
Staff Behaviors				
Participation	.07	-.03	-.04	-.01
Fairness	.10	.04	-.06	.10
Goal Orientation	-.04	-.04	.05	.03
Production Orient.	.04	.01	-.12	.02
Problem Solving	.01	-.09	-.02	.04
Concern	-.02	.02	-.02	-.00
Competence	.14	-.01	-.12	-.03

Table 7 (cont.)

Correlations of Education, Age, Years Employed, and Years in Present Position with Job-Related Variables

Variable	Education (n = 142)	Age (n = 142)	Yrs. Emp. (n = 138)	Prs. Pos. (n = 137)
Promotion Criteria				
Experience	.02	-.05	.04	-.05
Performance	.05	.13	.05	.05
Seniority	.11	-.05	.04	-.05
Background	.08	.02	-.05	-.11

*p < .05; **p < .01
Note: ᵃ N reduced by 4 for Management Behavior variables.

job satisfaction, reward satisfaction, feeling of staff inclusiveness by management, and fairness on the part of management in relations with staff.

Age. Age of respondents was positively correlated with perception of the quality of work (r = .19, p < .05), organizational involvement (r = .18, p < .05), and social reward satisfaction (r = .23, p < .01). The greater the age of the respondent the stronger the involvement with the organization and social reward satisfaction. Older respondents perceived their work as having higher quality than younger respondents.

Years of Employment. The greater the number of years employed, the lower the intention to turnover (r = -.24, p < .01) the greater the involvement in the organization (r =

.21, p < .05), and the higher the social rewards (r = .20, p < .05). The longer the number of years employed, the more involved and committed the manager is to the organization, and the greater the social rewards for such involvement.

Years in Present Position. The greater the number of years in the present position, the lower the intention to turnover (r = -.20, p < .05). Managers in the present position for a longer time are less likely to think about moving to another job than those who have been in their positions for shorter times.

Summary. In this sample, background factors had a significant influence on general attitudes, satisfaction with rewards, and perception of management behaviors. Women were less satisfied with extrinsic rewards than men. Single managers were less satisfied with their jobs, less trusting of the organization, less involved in the organization, less satisfied with the rewards received, and more critical of management behaviors in the areas of staff participation, work control, and competence than were married managers. More highly educated managers had greater job and reward satisfaction and had more positive views of management allowance of staff participation and fairness than less educated managers. Older managers were more involved with the organization and received greater social rewards than

younger managers. They also perceived the quality of their
work as higher than younger managers. The greater the
number of years on the job and in the present position, the
lower the likelihood of an intention to move from the
present job. Managers with greater length of employment
were involved with the organization than those with fewer
years of employment.

Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis 1. Hypothesis 1 states, "The variables of
expectation of rewards, perceived criteria for promotion,
and relations with supervisors and staff, will differentiate
between black and white middle managers," was answered using
discriminant analysis, comparing black and white managers on
the above-mentioned variables. Table 8 presents the means,
standard deviations, lambda coefficients, univariate F-
ratios, and summary statistics from the discriminant
analysis.

The summary data from the discriminant analysis
indicate that 29% of the variance between black and white
middle managers were accounted for by the discriminant
function (canonical R^2 = .29; 1.00 - .71 (lambda) = .29) The
X^2 = 42.54, with 20 degrees of freedom, was significant at
the .01 level.

Table 8

Univariate Means, Standard Deviations, and F-ratios for
Perceived Job-related Expectation Variables by Race

($\underline{N}$ = 138)

Variable	Blacks ($\underline{n}$ = 51)		Whites ($\underline{n}$ = 87)			
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Lambda	$\underline{F}_{(1,136)}$
Rew. Expect	6.57	3.93	7.56	3.78	.99	1.70
Management Beh.						
Staff Part.	6.57	2.10	7.56	1.89	.94	8.19**
Control	20.90	5.26	21.21	4.91	1.00	0.13
Fairness	16.24	4.92	19.26	4.14	.90	14.91**
Goal Setting	10.12	2.67	9.79	2.94	1.00	0.42
Prod. Orient.	14.65	2.88	15.02	2.92	1.00	0.53
Prob. Solv.	6.54	2.18	6.59	2.01	1.00	0.01
Concern	9.39	3.16	10.55	3.03	.97	4.55*
Competence	6.71	1.89	7.62	2.01	.95	6.94**
Staff Behaviors						
Participation	15.94	1.96	16.24	1.89	.99	0.79
Fairness	24.67	3.37	25.34	3.40	.99	1.29
Goal Orient.	15.22	2.15	15.26	2.09	1.00	0.00
Prod. Orient.	12.02	2.03	12.20	1.77	1.00	0.28
Prob. Solv.	7.63	1.15	7.93	1.41	.99	1.70
Concern	12.04	1.69	11.93	1.76	1.00	0.29
Competence	19.65	2.73	20.08	2.64	.99	0.84
Promotion Crit.						
Experience	4.00	0.87	4.11	0.85	1.00	0.57
Performance	12.04	2.29	12.49	1.84	.99	1.50
Seniority	2.69	0.94	2.68	1.06	1.00	0.00
Background	5.98	2.69	5.31	2.43	.98	2.26

Discriminant Analysis Summary Statistics					
	Eigen.	Can. $\underline{R}$	Lambda	X^2	df
	.40	.54	.71	42.54**	20

*$\underline{p}$ < .05; **$\underline{p}$ < .01

The univariate statistics indicate that virtually all
the between-race variance came from perception of
management's behaviors. On perception of management's

allowance of staff participation, black managers had a mean score of 6.57 with a standard deviation of 2.10, and whites had a mean score of 7.56 with a standard deviation of 1.89. The lambda = .94, indicating that 6% of the variance was accounted for by the difference, and the F = 8.19, p < .01.

On perception of management fairness, black managers had a mean score of 16.24 with a standard deviation of 4.92, and whites had a mean score of 19.26 with a standard deviation of 4.14. The lambda = .90, indicating that 10% of the variance was accounted for by the difference, and the F = 14.91, p < .01.

On perception of management concern, black managers had a mean score of 9.39 with a standard deviation of 3.16, and whites had a mean score of 10.55 with a standard deviation of 3.03. The lambda = .97, indicating that 3% of the variance was accounted for by the difference, and the F = 4.55, p < .05.

On perception of management competence, black managers had a mean score of 6.71 with a standard deviation of 1.89, and whites had a mean score of 7.62 with a standard deviation of 2.01. The lambda = .95, indicating that 5% of the variance was accounted for by the difference, and the F = 6.94, p < .01.

The discriminant analysis produces the results of the classification of respondents on a casewise basis to either black or white groups as predicted by their responses to the

management production orientation at step seven, perception of promotion at step eight, and staff fairness in step nine.

The results of the analysis of variance comparing the variance in the regression to residual variance resulted in $F_{(9,128)} = 7.94$, $p < .01$, indicating that the variables in the regression equation accounted for a significant amount of variance. Hypothesis 2 was supported by the data. A total of 36% of the variance in job satisfaction was accounted for by perceived job-related expectation variables. The most significant contributors were reward expectations, competence of staff and management, and staff problem solving ability.

Hypothesis 3. Hypothesis 3 states, "The greater the perceived job-related expectations the greater the satisfaction with rewards," was answered by regression the four reward satisfaction variables (extrinsic, intrinsic, social, and influence) over the perceived job-related expectation variables. Table 11 contains the results of the regression of extrinsic reward satisfaction over the perceived job-related expectation variables.

discriminating items. The predicted class membership is compared to the actual membership. The results are presented in Table 9.

Table 9

Discriminant Analysis: Classification Results

| | Predicted Group | | |
	Black	White	TOTAL
Actual Group			
Black	40	11	51
%	78.4	21.6	37.0
White	21	66	87
%	24.1	75.9	63.0
TOTAL	61	77	138
	44.2	55.8	100.0

Percent of correctly classified cases: 76.8%

The data in Table 9 indicate that 40 (78.4%) of the blacks were correctly predicted based upon their scores on the perception of management variables. Eleven (21.6%) were misclassified as whites, indicating that their responses were more similar to whites than blacks. Similarly, 77 (75.9%) of the whites were correctly classified, while 21 (24.1%) were missclassified as blacks. The proportion of correctly classified cases was 76.8%. This represents an improvement of 13.8% over random assignment based upon the proportions of 63.0% whites and 37.0% blacks (i.e., 76.8 − 63 = 13.8). Figure 1 presents a stacked histogram of the distributions of blacks and whites on the discriminant function.

Stacked Histogram
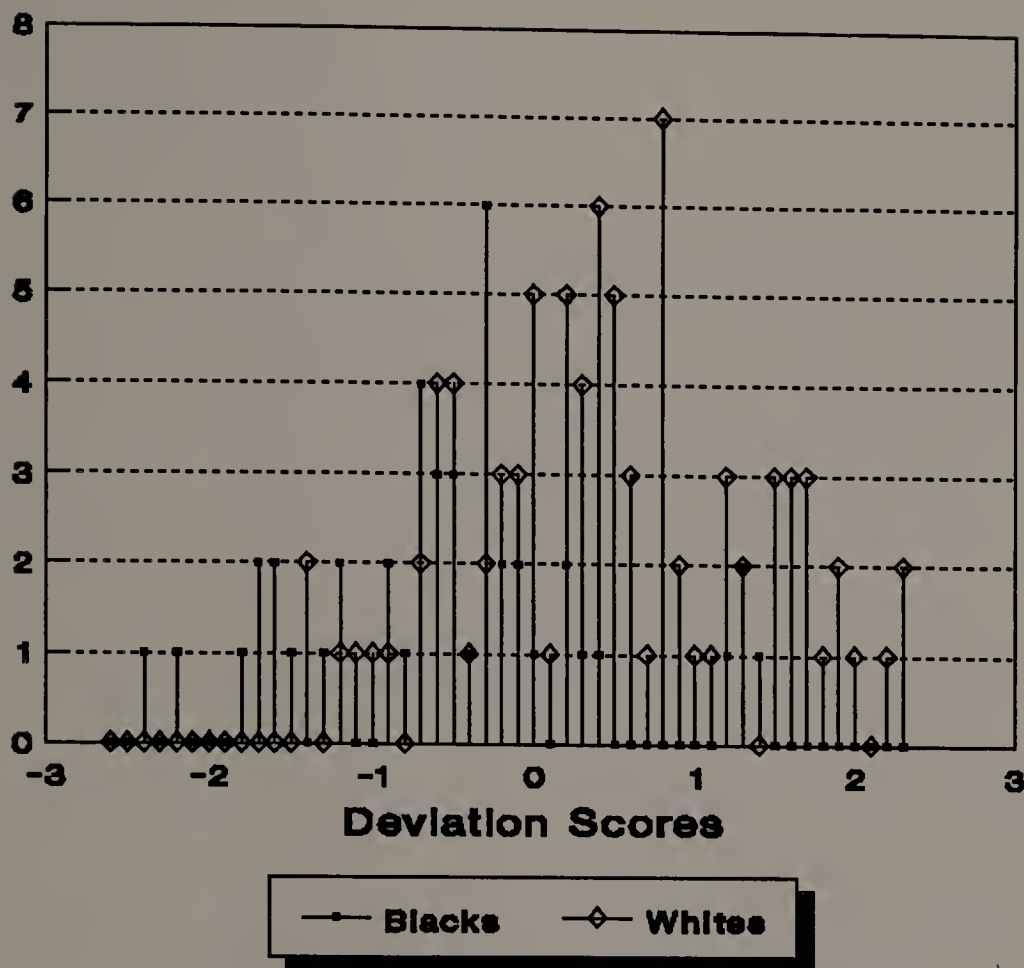
Figure 4.1: Distribution of blacks and whites on discriminant function

The data indicate that blacks are significantly lower than whites on perceptions of management behavior on willingness to allow staff participation, fairness, concern, and competence. Hypothesis 1 is confirmed for perceptions of these management behaviors. Hypothesis 1 was not confirmed for expectations of rewards, perception of staff behaviors, nor perceptions of promotional criteria.

Hypothesis 2. Hypothesis 2 states, "The greater the perceived job-related expectations the greater the job satisfaction," was answered by regressing job satisfaction

over the perceived job-related expectation variables of
reward satisfaction, reward expectation, management
behaviors, staff behaviors, and criteria for promotion.
Table 10 contains the results of that analysis.

Table 10

Regression of Job Satisfaction over Perceived Job-related
Expectation Variables

Step	Variable	β In	r	R	R^2	F
1	Rewrd Expec.	.44	.44	.44	.20	6.88**
2	Staff Comptnce	.24	.34	.50	.25	9.53**
3	Mgt Competence	.23	.15	.54	.30	2.83
4	Staff Prob Slv	-.16	.17	.56	.31	3.91*
5	Staff Prticptn	.17	.35	.57	.33	3.16
6	Mgt Goal Orient	.12	.34	.58	.34	3.77
7	Mgt Prod Ornt	-.12	.21	.59	.34	2.07
8	Prom - Perform	.10	.36	.59	.35	2.07
9	Staff Fairness	-.11	.22	.60	.36	1.36

*p < .05; **p < .01

There were nine steps in the regression of job
satisfaction over the perceived job-related expectation
variables. The β coefficients represent the correlation of
the variable upon entry into the regression equation,
controlling for the effects of all variables entered prior
to its entry. The β coefficient represents the unique
amount of variance contributed by the variable in the

equation. In the r column are the zero-order correlations of the perceived job-related expectation variables with job satisfaction. The R and R^2 columns present the cumulative multiple correlation and the percent of variance accounted for by the variables in the equation at that step. The F-ratio in the rightmost column is the level of significance of the relationship of the β coefficient after entry of all variables into the equation.

In the regression of job satisfaction, the variable accounting for the greatest amount of variance is reward expectation (β = .44, F = 6.88, p < .01), which accounted for 20% of the variance (R^2 = .20). Reward expectation was followed by staff competence (β = .24, R = .50, F = 9.53, p < .01), accounting for an additional 5% of the variance. Management competence was entered at the third step with a β = .23, accounting for an additional 5% of the variance (R = .54, R^2 = .30, F = 2.83, n.s.). This means that when other variables that were correlated with management competence were entered into the equation subsequent to the entry of management competence, the β of management competence dropped to .15 and non-significance because of the covariation of the subsequent variables with itself.

Staff problem solving was added on the fourth step (β = -.16, R = .56, R^2 = .31, F = 3.91, p < .05), adding an additional 1% of the variance. Staff participation was added in step five, management goal orientation at step six,

Table 11

Regression of Satisfaction of Extrinsic Rewards over
Perceived Job-related Expectation Variables

Step	Variable	β In	r	R	R^2	F
1	Rwd Expect	.55	.55	.55	.30	10.16**
2	Mgt Fairness	.38	.53	.65	.43	4.38*
3	Mgt Particptn	.22	.55	.67	.45	5.59*
4	Prom - Perform	.16	.45	.68	.47	2.68
5	Staff Fairness	.10	.35	.69	.48	1.38
6	Staff Goal Or.	-.08	.18	.69	.48	3.76
7	Staff Prob Slv	.12	.28	.70	.49	2.46
8	Prom - Senorty	.10	.14	.71	.50	2.21

*$p < .05$; **$p < .01$

The regression equation consisted of eight steps. Reward expectations was entered in the first step with a β coefficient of .55 ($R = .55$, $R^2 = .30$, $F = 10.16$), accounting for 30% of the variance in satisfaction with extrinsic rewards. Perception of management fairness was added on step two, with an entry β = .38, which added 13% to the variance accounted for by reward expectation ($R = 65$, $R^2 = .43$, $F = 4.38$, $p < .05$). Perception of management allowance of staff participation was entered in the third step, accounting for an additional 2% of the variance ($R = .67$, $R^2 = .45$, $F = 5.59$, $p < .05$). An additional 5% of the variance was accounted for by perception of promotion being

based upon performance, staff fairness, staff goal orientation, staff problem solving, and perception of promotion based on seniority. The results of the analysis of variance comparing the variance accounted for by the regression equation to the residual variance was $F_{(8,129)}$ = 16.04, p < .01. Hypothesis 3 was supported for extrinsic reward satisfaction.

Table 12 presents the results of the regression of internal reward satisfaction over the perceived job-related expectation variables. The regression consisted of 13 steps. Eleven perceived job-related expectation variables accounted for 56% of the variance in internal reward satisfaction (R = .75, R^2 = .56, $F_{(11,126)}$ = 14.72, p < .01). Hypothesis 3 was supported for intrinsic reward satisfaction.

More specifically, expectation of rewards was entered in the first step of the equation (β = .62, R = .62, R^2 = .39, F = 18.17), accounting for 39% of the variance in intrinsic reward satisfaction. Management allowance of staff participation was entered in the second step, accounting for an additional 6% of the variance (β = .28, R = .67, R^2 = .45, F = 5.44, p < .05). Staff productivity was entered on the third step. Because of its covariance with other variables entered in subsequent steps, it was removed from the equation in Step 8, when the F-ratio of its β coefficient was reduced to below 1.00.

Table 12

Regression of Satisfaction of Internal Rewards over
Perceived Job-related Expectation Variables

Step	Variable	β In	r	R	R^2	F
1	Rewrd Expect	.62	.62	.62	.39	18.17**
2	Mgt Particip	.28	.48	.67	.45	5.44*
3	Staff Product	--	--	.70	.49	--
4	Prom - Perf	.16	.49	.71	.51	7.82**
5	Staff Particip	.13	.47	.72	.52	4.47*
6	Staff Fairness	-.09	.28	.72	.52	2.60
7	Staff Competnc	.15	.36	.73	.53	4.74*
8	Staff Product		Removed			
9	Mgt Competence	.10	.42	.73	.53	4.59*
10	Mgt Control	-.15	.39	.73	.54	8.01**
11	Mgt Goal Ornt	.19	.39	.74	.55	4.16*
12	Prom - Backgrnd	.07	-.15	.75	.56	1.52
13	Mgt Product	.09	.36	.75	.56	1.14

*p < .05; **p < .01

On Step 4, the perception that promotion is based upon
performance was entered (β = .16, R = .71, R^2 = .51, F =
7.82, p < .01). On Steps 5, 6, and 7, the perception of
staff participation (β = .13, R = .72, R^2 = .52, F = 4.47, p
< .05), staff fairness (β = -.09, R = .72, R^2 = .52, F =
2.60, n.s.), and staff competence (β = .15, R = .73, R^2 =

.53, F = 4.74, p < .05) were entered. These staff variables

accounted for an additional 2% of the variance.

On Steps 9, 10, and 11, the variables of management

competence (β = .10, R = .73, R^2 = .53, F = 4.59, p < .05),

management control (β = −.15, R = .73, R^2 = .54, F = 8.01, p

< .01), and management goal orientation (β = .19, R = .74,

R^2 = .55, F = 4.16, p < .05), were entered, accounting for

an additional 2% of the variance. Perception of criteria

for promotion based on background, and management

productivity were entered on the twelfth and thirteenth

steps, adding a final 1% of the variance. Neither added

significantly to the variance.

Table 13 presents the regression of social reward

satisfaction over the perceived job-related expectation

variables. The regression included 11 steps. The

psychological variables accounted for 51% of the variance in

social reward satisfaction (R = .71, R^2 = .51). The

analysis of variance comparing the variance accounted for by

the regression to the residual variance resulted in $F_{(9,128)}$ =

14.60, p < .01). Hypothesis 3 was supported by the data for

social reward satisfaction.

Table 13

Regression of Satisfaction of Social Rewards over Perceived
Job-related Expectation Variables

Step	Variable	β In	r	R	R²	F
1	Staff Part	--	--	.49	.24	--
2	Mgt Fairness	.34	.46	.59	.35	15.24**
3	Prom - Perform	.27	.45	.64	.41	2.05
4	Staff Concern	.25	.44	.67	.45	5.49*
5	Rewd Expect	.16	.48	.68	.46	6.05*
6	Staff Product	.16	.40	.69	.48	6.05*
7	Staff Part			Removed		
8	Staff Prob Slv	-.15	.27	.70	.49	4.44*
9	Prom - Backgr	-.10	-.29	.70	.50	2.68
10	Prom - Senior	.08	.15	.71	.50	1.40
11	Staff Part	.12	.49	.71	.51	1.26

*$p < .05$; **$p < .01$

Staff fairness was entered on the first step,
accounting for 24% of the variance. Because of its
covariance with subsequently entered variables, it was
removed from the equation in Step 7. It was reentered in
the equation on Step 11. Management fairness was entered on
the second step raising the amount of variance accounted for
to 35% ($\beta = .34$, $R = .59$, $R^2 = .35$, $F = 15.24$, $p < .01$). On
Step 3, perception of promotion based on performance was

entered (β = .27, $\underline{R}$ = .64, $\underline{R}^2$ = .41, $\underline{F}$ = 2.05, n.s.),

accounting for an additional 6% of the variance.

Staff concern was entered on Step 4 (β = .25, $\underline{R}$ = .67,

$\underline{R}^2$ = .45, $\underline{F}$ = 5.49, $\underline{p}$ < .05). Reward expectation was

entered on Step 5 (β = .16, $\underline{R}$ = .68, $\underline{R}^2$ = .46, $\underline{F}$ = 6.05, $\underline{p}$ <

.05). Staff productivity was entered on Step 6 (β = .16, $\underline{R}$

= .69, $\underline{R}^2$ = .48, $\underline{F}$ = 6.05, $\underline{p}$ < .05). On Step 8, staff

problem solving was entered (β = -.15, $\underline{R}$ = . 70, $\underline{R}^2$ = .49, $\underline{F}$

= 4.44, $\underline{p}$ < .05). The three staff variables added 3% to the

explained variance.

The regression was completed with the inclusion of

perception of promotion based on background (negatively),

promotion based upon seniority, and staff participation

(again), in Steps 9, 10, and 11. They added 2% to the

amount of variance explained.

Table 14 presents the regression of influence reward

satisfaction over the perceived job-related expectation

variables. The regression analysis included eight steps.

The eight perceived job-related expectation variables in the

equation accounted for 62% of the variance in influence

reward satisfaction ($\underline{R}$ = .79, $\underline{R}^2$ = .62). The analysis of

variance comparing the regression variance to residual

variance resulted in $\underline{F}_{(8,129)}$ = 26.04, $\underline{p}$ < .01. Hypothesis 3

was confirmed for influence reward satisfaction.

Table 14

Regression of Satisfaction of Influence Rewards over
Perceived Job-related Expectation Variables

Step	Variable	β In	r	R	R²	F
1	Mgt Part	.63	.63	.63	.40	21.36**
2	Prom - Perf	.37	.53	.72	.52	4.49*
3	Staff Product	.21	.36	.75	.56	13.56**
4	Rewd Expect	.23	.57	.77	.59	10.24**
5	Mgt Competnce	.14	.54	.77	.60	3.15
6	Staff Concrn	-.10	.22	.78	.61	3.26
7	Prom - Exper	.10	.42	.78	.61	2.12
8	Prom - Senrity	.08	.18	.79	.62	1.92

$*p < .05; **p < .01$

Management allowance of staff participation was entered
into the equation on the first step, accounting for 40% of
the variance in influence reward satisfaction (β = .63, R =
.63, R^2 = .40, F = 21.36, p < .01). On Step 2, promotion
based upon performance was entered, accounting for an
additional 12% (β = .37, R = .72, R^2 = .52, F = 4.49, p <
.05). Staff productivity was entered on Step 3, adding 4%
to the variance (β = .21, R = .75, R^2 = .56, F = 13.56, p <
.01). Reward expectation was entered in Step 4, adding 3%
to the variance (β = .23, R = .77, R^2 = .59, F = 10.24, p <
.01). On Steps 5-8, the variables of management competence,
staff concern, promotion based upon experience, and

promotion based upon seniority were entered, respectively. They added 3% to the variance in the regression.

Hypothesis 4. Hypothesis 4 states, "The greater the perceived job-related expectations the greater the self-perceived job performance," was answered by regressing the perceived quality of work over the perceived job-related expectation variables. Table 15 contains the results of those analyses.

Table 15

Regression of Work Quality over Perceived Job-related
Expectation Variables

Step	Variable	β In	r	R	R²	F
1	Staff Product	.32	.32	.32	.10	2.48
2	Staff Goal	.19	.32	.35	.12	2.70
3	Prom - Perf	.11	.19	.37	.14	5.06*
4	Prom - Exper	-.15	.06	.39	.15	2.74
5	Mgt Product	-.12	.04	.40	.16	1.49
6	Prom - Bckgrnd	.09	.03	.41	.17	1.19
7	Staff Partic	.12	.29	.42	.18	1.93
8	Staff Prob Slv	-.12	.18	.43	.18	1.17

*$p < .05$

The data in Table 15 indicate that the regression
analysis included eight variables, which accounted for 18%
of the variance in perceived work quality (R = .43, R^2 =
.18). The analysis of variance of the regression was F =
3.61, p < .01). Hypothesis 4 was confirmed by the data.

Staff productivity was entered in Step 1, accounting
for 10% of the variance ($β$ = .32, R = .32, R^2 = .10, F =
2.48, n.s.). Staff goal orientation was entered into the
equation at Step 2, accounting for an additional 2% of the
variance ($β$ = .19, R = .35, R^2 = .12, F = 2.70, n.s.).
Perception of promotion based upon performance was entered
into the equation at Step 3, accounting for an additional 2%

of the variance (β = .11, $\underline{R}$ = .37, $\underline{R}^2$ = .14, $\underline{F}$ = 5.06, $\underline{p}$ < .05). On Steps 4-8, perception of promotion based on experience, management productivity, promotion based on background, staff participation, and staff problem solving were entered, respectively. They collectively accounted for an additional 4% of the variance.

Summary. The four hypotheses were confirmed by the data. Black managers tended to view management's behavior relative to the perceived job-related expectations as less inclusive of staff, less fair, less concerned, and less competent than did white managers. There were no differences on reward expectations, staff behavior, nor criteria for promotion. The race match of the manager was an important predictor of reward satisfactions, management inclusion of staff, management fairness, and perceptions of promotion based on background criteria. On those variables, black managers with white supervisors scored lower than white managers with white supervisors.

Job satisfaction was significantly related to perceived job-related expectation variables, especially reward expectations, staff competence, and staff problem solving.

Extrinsic reward satisfaction was significantly related to perceived job-related expectation variables, especially reward expectations, management fairness, and management allowance of staff involvement. Intrinsic reward

satisfaction was also significantly related to perceived job-related expectation variables, including reward expectations, management allowance of staff involvement, perception of promotion based on performance, staff participation, staff competence, management competence, management control, and management goal orientation. Social reward satisfactions were significantly related to the perceived job-related expectation variables, especially management fairness, staff concern, reward expectations, staff productivity, and staff problem solving. Influence reward satisfaction was significantly related to perceived job-related expectation variables, including management allowance of staff participation, promotion based upon performance, staff productivity, and reward expectations.

Quality of work as perceived by the respondent was significantly related to the perceived job-related expectation variables, especially the perception that promotion was based on performance. The implications of these and the preliminary findings will be discussed in Chapter V.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Summary of the Study

The problems that were addressed in this study are the differences in the job expectations, rewards, perceived criteria for promotion, and relations with supervisors and staff among black and white middle-level managers in health care. Additionally, an assessment on the influences of perceived expectations on job satisfaction, satisfaction with rewards, and self-perceived job performance was conducted.

Research Questions

This researcher explored the answers to the following research questions:

1. Among the variables of reward expectations, perceived criteria for promotion, and quality of relations with supervisors and staff that define perceived expectations, which discriminate between black and white middle managers?

2.   What is the relationship between perceived
       expectations and job satisfaction?

3.   What is the relationship between perceived
       expectations and satisfaction with rewards?

4.   What is the relationship between perceived
       expectations and self-perceived job performance?

The following hypotheses were tested:

1.   The variables of expectation of rewards, perceived
       criteria for promotion, and relations with
       supervisors and staff, will differentiate between
       black and white middle managers.

2.   The greater the perceived expectations the greater
       the job satisfaction.

3.   The greater the perceived expectations the greater
       the satisfaction with rewards.

4.   The greater the perceived expectations the greater
       the self-the perceived job performance.

The sample for this study included 153 middle-level
managers employed in health care facilities in New York
City. A total of 138 were either black or white.

The Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire
(MOAQ) (Lawler, Cammann, Nadler, and Jenkins, 1975) was used
to gather data from the sample about the perceptions and
attitudes they have toward unwritten and unspoken

expectations within the manager-employee relationship and their levels of satisfaction.

Major findings of the study were that background factors had a significant influence on general attitudes, satisfaction with rewards, and perception of management behaviors. Women were less satisfied with extrinsic rewards than men. Single managers were less satisfied with their jobs, less trusting of the organization, less involved in the organization, less satisfied with the rewards received, and more critical of management behaviors in the areas of staff participation, work control, and competence than were married managers. More highly educated managers had greater job and reward satisfaction and had more positive views of management allowance of staff participation and fairness than less educated managers. Older managers were more involved with the organization and received greater social rewards than younger managers. They also perceived the quality of their work as higher than younger managers. The greater the number of years on the job and in the present position, the lower the likelihood of an intention to move from the present job. Managers with greater length of employment were involved with the organization than those with fewer years of employment. Black managers with white supervisors were less satisfied with extrinsic, intrinsic, social, and influence rewards than others, especially white managers with white supervisors. Black managers with white

supervisors were more inclined to view management as less inclusive of staff, less fair, and perceived promotions being granted on a person's background.

The four hypotheses were confirmed by the data. Black managers tended to view management's behavior relative to perceived expectations as less inclusive of staff, less fair, less concerned, and less competent than did white managers. There were no differences on reward expectations, staff behavior, nor criteria for promotion.

Job satisfaction was significantly related to job related perceived expectation variables, especially reward expectations, staff competence, and staff problem solving.

Extrinsic reward satisfaction was significantly related to job related perceived expectation variables, especially reward expectations, management fairness, and management allowance of staff involvement. Intrinsic reward satisfaction was also significantly related to job related perceived expectation variables, including reward expectations, management allowance of staff involvement, perception of promotion based on performance, staff participation, staff competence, management competence, management control, and management goal orientation. Social reward satisfactions were significantly related to job related perceived expectation variables, especially management fairness, staff concern, reward expectations, staff productivity, and staff problem solving. Influence

reward satisfaction was significantly related to job related
perceived expectation variables, including management
allowance of staff participation, promotion based upon
performance, staff productivity, and reward expectations.

Quality of work as perceived by the respondent was
significantly related to job related perceived expectation
variables, especially the perception that promotion was
based on performance.

Discussion and Conclusions

Perceived expectations seem to be equally satisfied for
both men and women middle-level managers with the single
exception that women feel that they are not receiving
external rewards (such as equal pay for equal work)
commensurate with men. Whether there are actual salary
differentials between women and men is beyond the scope of
this study. It may be that there is sexism in the
distribution of material rewards, or that because the doors
to the managerial suites have been only recently opened,
women may not have the seniority of their male peers. An
alternative explanation might be that in the managerial
ranks, those positions traditionally held by women, such as
Director of Nursing, may be paid less than, say, the
Director of Management Information Services, which would
more likely be held by males. Although this is a form of

sexism, it is more subtle than paying men more because they are assumed to be supporters of families.

Perceived expectations seem to be more satisfied among married than single middle-level managers. This is especially true in the area of reward satisfactions, where married managers seem happier with external, internal, social, and influence rewards compared to single managers, even though reward expectations between the two groups do not differ significantly. The data suggest that single managers regard top management with less favor than do married managers. It is clear from the analysis, it is not age, nor years of experience, nor years in their present position that accounts for the differences. It may be that health and hospital management is more compatible with a married lifestyle than a single lifestyle. There is also the possibility that the satisfactions provided by the health care organizations may be greater for married managers than for single managers.

Those managers with higher levels of education have more of their perceived expectations satisfied than those with lower levels of education. There was a consistent relationship between education level and reward satisfaction and job satisfaction. This may indicate that managers with higher education levels may feel that the rewards are more commensurate with their education and training levels than managers with lower levels of education. It must be kept in

mind that, in general, the sample was highly educated, and that the major demarcation was between those who had graduate degrees and those who did not. Those who had lower educational levels perceived top management as less inclusive and less fair in their decisions than did those who had higher educational levels. On the basis of the pattern of the data, it can be suggested that those with lower educational levels may see themselves as being discriminated against on the basis of their education, despite their performance on the job, which may have little to do with their credentials. The data suggest that those with lower levels of education cannot be distinguished from those with higher levels on self-reported effort, motivation level, organizational commitment, or quality of work. Yet it is clear that they see themselves as less rewarded, treated less fairly, and excluded from top management decision-making than more highly educated managers.

These findings suggest that credentialism may be a barrier to persons who work their way into the management ranks from below in comparison to those who come in with advanced degrees. This credentialism may also cover a class barrier, since those who work their way up are likely to come from lower socioeconomic strata than those who enter management from graduate school.

One of the central topics of this thesis is the relationship between race and perceived expectations. When

examining the differences between white and black managers on perceived expectations, it is clear that blacks feel discriminated against by upper levels of management. Black and white managers do not differ on their reward expectations, perceptions of staff behaviors, nor perceived criteria for promotion. They differ on their perceptions of the inclusiveness of upper management in decision-making, fairness, concern for staff, and competence. Black managers are more critical of upper management in these areas, and feel less positive about their treatment. Fairness alone accounts for 10% of the variance between white and black managers in perceptions of expectations. Black managers are much less likely to regard upper management as fair, inclusive, competent, or concerned as white managers.

It is clear from the data that black managers feel discriminated against by upper level management. They feel that they are treated with less fairness, are less included in decision-making, and that upper management cares less about them. They also feel that upper management is less competent than white managers. According to the perceptions of black managers, racism does not exist in their interactions with their staff, nor in promotion criteria, but in the way in which they are treated by their bosses. This is especially true of black managers with white supervisors.

The strong relationships found between the satisfaction variables and job related perceived expectation variables (between 36% and 62% of the variance) indicate that job and reward satisfaction are to a large extent predicated on the fulfilling of perceived expectations. The most prominent variable of perceived expectations was reward expectation, indicating that job and reward satisfactions are highly influenced by the expectations of the managers of the receiving of such rewards.

Job satisfaction is based on reward expectation, management behaviors, and staff behaviors, especially competence. If managers see themselves as surrounded by competent people and if they have reasonable expectation of rewards for their work, their job satisfaction will be high. It is not surprising that job satisfaction is based upon task-related factors, since managers are employed to get work done. It is clear from the data that the competency of one's work associates is extremely important in getting a job done properly and feeling good about it.

External reward satisfaction is based primarily on reward expectations and management fairness and inclusiveness of participation. Although external reward satisfaction is concerned with pay, fringe benefits, and job security, the relationship with management fairness and inclusiveness suggests that part of the satisfaction with external rewards due to other factors than the magnitude of

those rewards. The data suggest that external reward satisfaction may be a calculation of external reward magnitude relative to management treatment. That is, other things being equal (such as pay), the way in which they are treated by upper management becomes calculated into the value of external rewards. For example, well-paid middle level managers may feel underpaid if they feel that they are being abused by their superiors.

Internal reward satisfaction is much more complex than external reward satisfaction. Again, reward expectation accounts for most of the variance (39%) in internal reward satisfaction. That is, the greater the expectation of rewards, the higher the internal reward satisfaction. Internal reward satisfaction is also related to management inclusiveness of participation; perception that promotion is base on performance; staff participation and competence; and management competence, control (negatively), and goal orientation. These latter variables account for an additional 16% of the variance in internal reward satisfaction. The data suggest that apart from reward expectations, internal reward satisfaction is strongly influenced by the nature of the work environment and promotion criteria. As would be expected, internal reward satisfaction is more highly influenced by environmental factors than external reward satisfaction. It includes both staff and management behaviors. The internal reward

satisfaction of managers is more strongly influenced by job related perceived expectation variables than is external rewards. This is expected since perceived expectations and internal reward satisfaction are intangibles in the workplace.

Satisfaction with social rewards was influenced by job related perceived expectation variables. Not surprisingly, social rewards were most strongly influenced by management and staff behaviors, with reward expectations a minor consideration. Management fairness and staff concern, productivity, and problem solving were significantly related to social rewards. The data indicate that social reward satisfaction is influenced from above by management fairness, and from below staff caring and ability to get the job done.

Satisfaction with influence rewards was affected by management inclusiveness of participation of staff in decision-making, perception that promotion is based on performance, staff productivity, and reward expectations. The data suggest that influence satisfaction increases when managers are included in the decision-making process by their superiors, the sense that promotions are based upon performance, the feeling that staff is doing its job, and that rewards are commensurate with expectations.

Work quality was not strongly influenced by job related perceived expectation variables. The only influence was the

perception that promotion was based upon performance. This
raises some important issues regarding not only perceived
expectations, but incentive schemes as well. While
perceived expectations strongly influence satisfaction, its
influence on work quality is relatively small. This
suggests that managers apparently do not lower the quality
of work when perceived expectations are violated, even
though they may be dissatisfied. The only significant
influence on work quality is the perception that promotion
is based upon performance. No management behaviors
influenced self-perceived work quality. This suggests that
the quality of work is more strongly influenced by factors
other than perceived expectations, such as pride in one's
work.

In summary, then, perceived expectations among health
care workers tend to be influenced by sex (at least in
external reward satisfaction), marital status, education,
and race, with white married males who have graduate degrees
having the greatest satisfaction with the perceived
expectations. Women feel discriminated against in external
rewards, single managers are unhappy with the reward
structure and management inclusiveness and control, less
educated managers are unhappy with the reward structure and
management participation and fairness, and black managers
are unhappy with several management behaviors, especially
fairness. Job and reward satisfactions were strongly

influenced by perceived expectations, while self-perceived work quality was not strongly influenced.

The data from this study suggest that perceived expectations affect the climate in which managers work more than the quality of their work. It affects morale, intention to turnover, and the corporate culture. It is also clear from the data that perceived expectations are differentially satisfied among members of differing social categories within the managerial ranks, such as genders, racial and ethnic groups, and education levels. Although satisfaction of perceived expectations may be experienced as a relationship between an individual and an organization, they are perceived differently among various social groups who may feel that the organization biased against them because of their membership in a particular category. Women managers, for example, may feel cheated on external rewards because they have concluded that external rewards are biased against them because they are female. Similarly, black managers may feel that upper management is unfair to them because they are black and that this unfairness is an artifact of racism.

Recommendations for Organizational Practice

Hospitals and health organizations need to review their policies on equal work for equal pay. It is important that women be remunerated equally to men who are their

organizational peers. Organizational charts should be examined to see whether 1) people with equal responsibility are receiving equal pay, and 2) positions with equal responsibility are reflected as such in the structure of the organization. For example, is a Director of Nursing commensurate in responsibility (e.g., number of employees supervised, budget size, importance of function) with a Director of Management Information Services? Is that reflected in the organizational chart or in the remuneration of the holders of those positions?

Second, where violations of perceived expectations are most likely to occur is in upper management behavior, according to middle managers. It is therefore important to upper management to scrutinize their behavior with various minority populations to make sure that they are behaving fairly and not needlessly excluding middle level managers from full participation in the decision-making process because they are single, black, or lack graduate degrees. Efforts need to be made to make upper management aware of unconscious biases when dealing with middle level managers. This is a prime area for organizational development. Top managers need to be sensitized to a variety of potential biases that make health care management more difficult than it already is. This might be an area for T-group exploration.

Third, upper management sets the tone for the rest of the employees. It is therefore important in the development of a positive corporate culture that they become exemplars of fairness, inclusiveness, and competence. The data from this study indicate that middle managers want to be treated fairly and desire to be included in the decision-making process. It is also probable that perceptions of upper management competence is influenced by their fairness and inclusiveness. The data from this study reinforce the observations of Ouchi (1982) in his characterization of Z companies in which decision-making is done collaboratively and collectively are those which seem to promote competence and organizational excellence.

Fourth, the data from this study reinforce previous findings that while remuneration is important, intrinsic, social, and influence rewards are equally, if not more important in the satisfaction of managerial employees. Therefore, material compensation is not sufficient. Upper management should seek to make the work environment as functional as possible, providing for the associational needs of their staffs. The office environment needs to have the facilities and personnel to get the job done, to allow middle management a certain level of autonomy in which they are free to do the job as they see fit, and to be able to consult freely with staff and upper management in problem solving.

Recommendations for Future Research

It is important to conduct additional studies into the relationships between perceived expectations and the work environment. Future research should be conducted on job related perceived expectation variables comparing managers who left their organizations with those who stayed. In addition, studies should be conducted on changes in perceived expectations related to employee tenure. Does the contract become more positive as the employee gains tenure?

Other studies might include comparisons of successful and unsuccessful organizations (e.g., those with high and low levels of employee discord) on the satisfaction of perceived expectations. The data from this study was limited to health organizations, which are public service organizations. Further studies should be conducted in other public service organizations, such as education, or the criminal justice system. Also, studies should be conducted in private organizations in which there are middle and upper level management ranks.

It would also be fruitful to conduct studies of perceived expectations among professionals employed by large scale bureaucracies, such as teachers, nurses, medical staff, social workers, assistant district attorneys, in comparison to those persons in the administrative or managerial ranks. As Etzioni (1964) pointed out, there are

problems unique to professionals in bureaucracies that may influence the satisfaction of perceived expectations.

APPENDIX A
<u>RESEARCH INSTRUMENT</u>
**The University of Massachusetts
at Amherst
School of Education**

DOCTORAL PROGRAM IN ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

WORK SURVEY

PURPOSE
The purpose of this survey is to find out how you and others feel about this hospital as a place to work.

* QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN
The questionnaire is divided into five modules and should take about 15 minutes to complete. It is anonymous and your replies are confidential. The personal information requested in Module 0 is for group analyses so that the possible influence of personal attributes may be investigated. The modules are categorized as follows:

Module 0 contains demographic and personal history questions about you and checklists for self-description.

Module 1 consists of questions concerning your general attitudes about you and your job.

Module 2 is related to your perceptions of specific parts of your work.

Module 3 focuses on staff and management/supervisory behavior.

Module 4 contains questions and statements about promotional opportunities.

ACTION TO BE TAKEN
Please <u>answer every item</u> completely and honestly.

Please make each answer your own personal reply; do not discuss your responses beforehand with friends or family.

Please return your completed questionnaire by mailing it in the stamped, self-adressed envelope provided.

Thank you in advance for your cooperation and assistance. We hope you find the questionnaire interesting and thought provoking. All responses will remain confidential.

* © 1975, The Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire

PLEASE ANSWER EACH OF THE QUESTIONS BELOW BY CIRCLING THE NUMBER NEXT TO THE DESCRIPTION WHICH BEST FITS YOU OR BY WRITING IN THE CORRECT INFORMATION.

1.   Are you

   1 - Female
   2 - Male

2.   What is your education level (indicate highest level completed)?

   1 - Some elementary school (grades 1-7)
   2 - Completed elementary school (8 grades)
   3 - Some high school (grades 9-11)
   4 - Graduated from high school or G.E.D.
   5 - Some college or technical training beyond high school (1-3 years)
   6 - Graduated from college (BA, BS, or other Bachelor's degree)
   7 - Some graduate school
   8 - Graduate degree (Masters, Ph.D., M.D., etc.)

3.   What is your marital status?

   1 - Single
   2 - Married
   3 - Separated
   4 - Divorced
   5 - Widowed

4.   Are you

   1 - Black
   2 - Asian
   3 - Native American
   4 - Hispanic
   5 - White
   6 - None above

5.   Is your manager/supervisor

   1 - Black
   2 - Asian
   3 - Native American
   4 - Hispanic
   5 - White
   6 - None above

5.   How many years old are you?

   1 - less than 25
   2 - 26-30
   3 - 31-35
   4 - 36-40
   5 - 41-45
   6 - 46-50
   7 - 51-55
   8 - 56-60
   9 - 60 or more

6.   How many years have you worked for your present employer? (Please indicate to the nearest year.)

   _____ years

7.   How many years have you been in your present position with this organization? (Please indicate to the nearest year.)

   _____ years

8.   What is your present job title?

   _____

MODULE 1 -- GENERAL ATTITUDES

HERE ARE SOME STATEMENTS ABOUT YOU AND YOUR JOB. HOW MUCH DO YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE WITH EACH? USE THE CODING SCHEME BELOW WHEN RECORDING YOUR ANSWERS.

1 - Strongly Disagree
2 - Disagree
3 - Neither Agree or Disagree
4 - Agree
5 - Strongly Agree

a. I get a feeling of personal satisfaction from doing my job well   1 2 3 4 5

b. I get upset when I fall behaind in my work   1 2 3 4 5

c. When the management of this company says something you can really believe that it is true.   1 2 3 4 5

d. I put in extra effort on the job when I get behind schedule   1 2 3 4 5

e. All in all, I am satisfied with my job   1 2 3 4 5

f. I will probably look for a new job in the next year   1 2 3 4 5

g. What happens to this organization is really important to me   1 2 3 4 5

h. Doing my job well gives me a good feeling   1 2 3 4 5

i. I often think about quitting   1 2 3 4 5

j. I feel personally responsible for the work I do on my job   1 2 3 4 5

k. In general, I like working here   1 2 3 4 5

l. I feel bad when I do a bad job   1 2 3 4 5

m. I generally produce high-quality work on my job   1 2 3 4 5

n. This organization cares more about money and machines than people.   1 2 3 4 5

o. The managers, supervisors, and co-workers on this job almost never give a person any "feedback" about how well they are doing the work.   1 2 3 4 5

p. My manager/supervisor lets me know how well he/she thinks I am performing the job.   **1 2 3 4 5**

q. People here feel that you cannot trust this organization   **1 2 3 4 5**

MODULE 2 -- REWARDS

DIFFERENT PEOPLE EXPECT DIFFERENT THINGS FROM THEIR WORK. HERE IS A LIST OF BENEFITS PEOPLE COULD HAVE ON THEIR JOBS. PLEASE INDICATE <u>HOW SATISFIED</u> YOUR ARE WITH EACH ASPECT OF THE JOB USING A SCALE OF 1-5.

1 - Not at all satisfied
2 - Not very satisfied
3 - Moderately satisfied
4 - Very satisfied
5 - Extremely satisfied

a. the fringe benefits you receive   1 2 3 4 5

b. the friendliness of the people you work with   1 2 3 4 5

c. the amount of freedom you have on your job   1 2 3 4 5

d. the chances you have to learn new things   1 2 3 4 5

e. the respect you receive from the people you work with   1 2 3 4 5

f. the chances you have to accomplish something
    worthwhile   1 2 3 4 5

g. the amount of pay you receive   1 2 3 4 5

h. the chances you have to do something that makes
    you feel good about yourself as a person   1 2 3 4 5

i. the way you are treated by the people you work with   1 2 3 4 5

j. the chances you have to take part in making
    decisions   1 2 3 4 5

k. the amount of job security you have   1 2 3 4 5

HERE ARE SOME THINGS THAT COULD HAPPEN TO PEOPLE WHEN THEY DO THEIR JOBS ESPECIALLY WELL. HOW LIKELY IS IT THAT EACH OF THESE THINGS WOULD HAPPEN IF YOU PERFORMED YOUR JOB ESPECIALLY WELL?

1 - Not At All Likely
2 - Not Very Likely
3 - Moderately Likely
4 - Very Likely
5 - Extremely Likely

a. You will get a bonus or a pay increase   1 2 3 4 5

b. You will feel better about yourself as a person   1 2 3 4 5

c. You will have an opportunity to develop your skills
    and abilities   1 2 3 4 5

d. You will be given chances to learn new things   1 2 3 4 5

e. You will be promoted or get a better job   1 2 3 4 5

f. You will get a feeling that you've accomplished
    something worthwhile   1 2 3 4 5

MODULE 3 – MANAGEMENT/STAFF BEHAVIOR

THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS DESCRIBE THE WAY A MANAGER/SUPERVISOR MIGHT PERFORM ON THE JOB. PLEASE INDICATE WHETHER YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE WITH EACH OF THE STATEMENTS AS DESCRIPTIONS OF YOUR DIRECT MANAGER OR SUPERVISOR.

1 - Strongly Disagree
2 - Disagree
3 - Neither Agree or Disagree
4 - Agree
5 - Strongly Agree

MY MANAGER OR SUPERVISOR:

a. encourages staff to participate in important decisions   1 2 3 4 5

b. plans out work in advance   1 2 3 4 5

c. keeps staff informed   1 2 3 4 5

d. is always fair with staff   1 2 3 4 5

e. encourages people to speak up when they disagree with a decision   1 2 3 4 5

f. makes sure staff have clear goals to achieve   1 2 3 4 5

g. demands that people give their best effort   1 2 3 4 5

h. handles the administrative parts of his or her job extremely well   1 2 3 4 5

i. keeps informed about the work which is being done   1 2 3 4 5

j. makes it clear how I should do my job   1 2 3 4 5

k. demands that staff do high quality work   1 2 3 4 5

l. helps me solve work-related problems   1 2 3 4 5

m. makes sure staff knows what is to be done   1 2 3 4 5

n. is concerned about me as a person   1 2 3 4 5

o. helps me discover problems before they get too bad   1 2 3 4 5

1 - Strongly Disagree
2 - Disagree
3 - Neither Agree or Disagree
4 - Agree
5 - Strongly Agree

MY MANAGER OR SUPERVISOR:

p. helps staff members develop their skills   **1 2 3 4 5**

q. feels each staff member is important as an individual   **1 2 3 4 5**

r. has the respect of staff members   **1 2 3 4 5**

s. is biased on the basis of race   **1 2 3 4 5**

t. deals with staff well   **1 2 3 4 5**

u. maintains high standards of performance   **1 2 3 4 5**

v. helps staff with their personal problems   **1 2 3 4 5**

w. insists that staff work hard   **1 2 3 4 5**

x. knows the technical parts of his or her job extremely   **1 2 3 4 5**
    well

y. tends to play favorites   **1 2 3 4 5**

z. is competent   **1 2 3 4 5**

aa. is biased on the basis of sex   **1 2 3 4 5**

THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS DESCRIBE THE WAY A STAFF MEMBER MIGHT PERFORM ON HIS/HER JOB. PLEASE INDICATE WHETHER YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE WITH EACH OF THE STATEMENTS AS DESCRIPTIONS OF YOUR STAFF.

1 - Strongly Disagree
2 - Disagree
3 - Neither Agree or Disagree
4 - Agree
5 - Strongly Agree

MY STAFF:

a. accepts my encouragement   1 2 3 4 5

b. plans out work in advance   1 2 3 4 5

c. keeps me informed   1 2 3 4 5

d. is always fair with me   1 2 3 4 5

e. accepts my encouragement to speak up when they
    disagree with a decision   1 2 3 4 5

f. understand they have clear goals to achieve   1 2 3 4 5

g. give their best effort   1 2 3 4 5

h. handles the administrative parts of its jobs extremely   1 2 3 4 5
    well

i. keeps me informed about the work which is being   1 2 3 4 5
    done

j. is clear how it should do its job   1 2 3 4 5

k. does high quality work   1 2 3 4 5

l. helps me solve work related problems   1 2 3 4 5

m. makes sure they know what is to be done   1 2 3 4 5

n. is concerned about me as a person   1 2 3 4 5

o. helps me discover problems before they get too bad   1 2 3 4 5

155

1 - Strongly Disagree
2 - Disagree
3 - Neither Agree or Disagree
4 - Agree
5 - Strongly Agree

MY STAFF:

p. keeps me informed about the way they think and feel about things   1 2 3 4 5

q. is interested in developing their skills   1 2 3 4 5

r. feels that they are important as individuals   1 2 3 4 5

s. make most decisions without asking me for my opinions   1 2 3 4 5

t. has my respect   1 2 3 4 5

u. is biased on the basis of race   1 2 3 4 5

v. makes important decisions without involving me   1 2 3 4 5

w. deals with managers and supervisors well   1 2 3 4 5

x. maintains high standards of performance   1 2 3 4 5

y. feels comfortable coming to me with their personal problems   1 2 3 4 5

z. works very hard   1 2 3 4 5

aa. knows the technical parts of their jobs extremely well   1 2 3 4 5

bb. knows that I tend to play favorites   1 2 3 4 5

cc. is competent   1 2 3 4 5

dd. is biased on the basis of sex   1 2 3 4 5

MODULE 4 -- PROMOTIONAL OPPORTUNITIES

IN THE SECTION BELOW ARE FACTORS THAT ARE OFTEN USED TO DETERMINE AN INDIVIDUAL'S PROMOTIONAL OPPORTUNITIES. FOR EACH FACTOR, YOU ARE ASKED TO INDICATE HOW IMPORTANT YOUR EMPLOYER FEELS THAT FACTOR IS FOR DETERMINING AN INDIVIDUAL'S PROMOTIONAL OPPORTUNITY. PLEASE INDICATE ITS IMPORTANCE USING THE CODING SCHEME BELOW. PLEASE ANSWER ALL ITEMS.

1 - Not at all important
2 - Of little importance
3 - Moderately important
4 - Very important
5 - Extremely important

a. your education, training, and experience   1 2 3 4 5

b. the amount of responsibility and pressure on your job   1 2 3 4 5

c. the quality of your job performance   1 2 3 4 5

d. your productivity   1 2 3 4 5

e. the amount of effort you expend on your job   1 2 3 4 5

f. the number of years employed by this hospital   1 2 3 4 5

g. your sex   1 2 3 4 5

h. your race   1 2 3 4 5

i. your age   1 2 3 4 5

This completes the survey. Thank you very much for your cooperation. Please place your completed survey questionnaire in the the stamped, self-adressed envelope provided and mail it immediately.

APPENDIX B
COVER LETTER TO RESPONDENTS

Dear Colleague:

Enclosed with this letter is the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire which contains background items and some questions concerning your work satisfaction and characteristics of your work environment. I am asking for your cooperation in responding to the questions and returning the completed questionnaire to me as soon as possible. Although the questionnaire is 10 pages long, it should take you no more than about 15 minutes to complete. I have made every effort to make your task as simple as possible, since I know that a person in your position is pressed for time.

This research is part of my doctoral studies at the University of Massachusetts, Amherst, School of Education Doctoral Program in Organizational Development. It is being conducted under the supervision of Professor Norma Jean Anderson, and has been approved by the University. Please won't you take a few minutes to fill this questionnaire out and return it to me? The data from this study will provide us with knowledge of those factors in the work environment that create greater job satisfaction and job performance. You may find the questions interesting and thought-provoking. You may find that filling out the questionnaire may be an informative exercise in thinking about your own job conditions.

As a participant in this study, you are guaranteed certain rights. They are:

1. *Confidentiality:* Your answers will remain confidential. All records of respondents will be destroyed upon the completion of data collection. Requests for knowledge of results will be kept separate from actual questionnaires.

2. *Refusal:* You may refuse to complete this questionnaire without any negative consequences.

3. *Knowledge of the results of the study:* If you wish to know the results of the study, please fill out the tear sheet below and return it with your questionnaire -- or separately, if you wish -- and upon completion of the study, I will send you a summary of the findings.

Thank you very much for your participation. I am extremely grateful.

Sincerely,

Carole Hysmith
Principal Investigator
****

I would like to know the results of the study:
Name_____
Address_____
City_____State_____Zip_____

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