

Diversity and Job Satisfaction: Reconciling Conflicting Theories and Findings

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This is a multidisciplinary study on reconciling the conflicting theories and research concerning whether a person's gender, race, or ethnicity affects his or her overall job satisfaction or degree of satisfaction with any element of the job. A disciplined baseline survey was performed. Statistical techniques, including a stepwise regression, were used to identify significant relationships. The findings and observations resolve what had appeared to be conflicting theories and research findings. The author concludes that in some instances, a legitimate correlation between gender, race, or ethnicity and job satisfaction or the degree of satisfaction with a particular job element may be found within a specific workplace or organization when there is a perceived inequality or injustice attributed to gender, race, or ethnicity; however, overall within the United States, gender, race, or ethnicity is not a reliable indicator or predictor of workers' degree of satisfaction with any specific element of a job.

Keywords: *diversity, ethnicity, gender, job satisfaction, race*

Introduction

The workforce in the United States is increasingly diverse in gender, race, and ethnicity (Leong & Seralica, 2001), and senior managers need to understand the consequences of this diversity. Thus, the question of whether a person's gender, race, or ethnicity affects any aspect of his or her degree of job satisfaction deserves inquiry. This study focused on finding clues to reconciling the conflicting theories and research findings pertaining to this question.

Concerning this issue, contradictions abound. If race, gender, and ethnicity categories are only abstract and fluid concepts based on physical characteristics, as most race and gender formation and feminist theorists think (Molnar, 2005; Winant, 2006; Gianakos, 2002), then it would seem that gender, race, and ethnicity would not appear to be predictors of the degree of job satisfaction of any person. Additionally, if each individual is truly unique, as the seminal motivation theories (Maslow, 1973; Alderfer, 1972; Herzberg, 1959; McClelland, Atkinson, Clark, & Lowell, 1976; Adams, 1963; Ryan & Deci, 2000) and job satisfaction theories (Parsons & Shils, 1951; Mumford, 1971; Dawis, Lofquist, & Weiss, 1968) imply, then gender, race, and ethnicity would not be predictors of the degree of job satisfaction. Similarly, career development theories (Ginzberg, Ginsburg, Axelrad, & Herma, 1951; Super, 1957; Lent and Brown, 2008) and work personality theories (Holland, 1973; Myers & Myers, 1980) provide little support for the possibility of gender- or race-based workplace preferences and expectations. In many cases, however, various types of job satisfaction studies have shown clear correlations between the responses of individuals of the same gender, race, and ethnicity categories (Bohnet & Greig, 2007; Bender & Heywood, 2006; Hau Siu Chow & Crawford, 2004;

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Sousa-Poza & Tatsyoshi, 2003; Sousa-Poza, 2000; Bures & Henderson, 1995/1996; Wiersma, 1990; Bartel, 1981).

Many theorists and researchers in the disciplines of critical race theory, feminist critical theory, Latino critical race studies, Asian American critical race studies, and American Indian critical race studies espouse that women and people of color suffer unique experiences and develop unique perspectives, needs, and sometimes cultures due to imbedded societal sexism, racism, and oppression (Deyhle & Villenas, 1999; Baym, 1995; Risman, 2004). If this is correct, one might expect that gender, race, and ethnicity would, to some degree, be predictors of the degree of job satisfaction because of one's shared experiences. Although to be fair, among such theorists, opinions concerning this extrapolation are not monolithic (Hamil-Luker, 2001).

Other researchers have attributed the supposed behavioral differences between individuals of different gender to physiological differences between genders (Mobbs, Hagan, Azim, Menon, & Reiss, 2005; Lewis, 1994). Additionally, the popular media has devoted time and space to discussions of supposed unique needs or expectations of women and minority employees (Clifford, 2006; Taylor, 2007). Their assumption is that gender, race, and sometimes ethnicity are defining psychological and sociological characteristics that carry over into the workplace; however, many researchers have found no evidence in their studies of a relationship between job satisfaction and gender, race, or ethnicity (Al-Ajmi, 2006; Metle, 2001; Sloane & Williams, 2000; Williams, 1998; Mason, 1997; Tomacci, 1996; Mason, 1995; Mattox, 1995; Chusmir, 1986; Weaver, 1977; Koepfler, 1988). We are left with a conundrum, conflicting theorists and researchers with research findings to support and refute both sides of the question of whether a person's gender, race, or ethnicity inherently affects his or her degree of job satisfaction.

The Research Approach

The conflicting theories and research were first reviewed and studied. Then, to establish a baseline upon which to apply and examine the relevant theories and findings of previous research, a disciplined survey controlling for variables was administered. Statistical techniques, including a stepwise regression, were used to identify significant relationships between job satisfaction and gender, race, or ethnicity. The findings of this survey, other researchers' findings, and the relevant theories were then integrated and analyzed in context for possible explanations to reconcile apparent conflicts.

The Literature Review

First, the seminal theories of motivation, job satisfaction, career development, and work personality were reviewed. Next, theories concerning the foundations of gender, race, and ethnicity were looked at. This was followed by a review of theories and literature concerning whether there are specific workplace perspectives and expectations tied to gender, race, or ethnicity. Then we examined a variety of recently published research on how the role of a person's gender and race—as well as other variables such as age, culture, tenure, compensation, industry, and position—may effect job satisfaction.

Among other observations, the literature review revealed that previous research studies on this issue often had not controlled for possible key variables, thus clouding the conclusions that could be obtained from the findings. In addition, some published studies were not clear on the analytical methodology used.

The Survey Research Design

To establish a baseline for this study—and to somewhat mitigate the possible effects of some variables so that a clearer picture could be attained—a new survey was conducted within strict parameters. The new survey focused only on managers and supervisors in one industry: luxury-level resorts in the United States. To ensure that all participants worked under similar rules and procedures and in similar organizational cultures, had similar compensation plans and benefit packages, and were hired according to the same practices and standards, all the resorts in this study were owned and operated by the same company. Each of the five resorts was located in different regions of the country. Further, to reduce the possibility of actual or perceived gender, race, or ethnic prejudice skewing the outcome of the research, the company and the resorts were selected for their lack of reported gender, race, or ethnic prejudice complaints. Another, perhaps relevant, factor is that this company did not have any programs focused on identifying or accommodating the special needs of women or any minority group.

This was a formal, fixed, nonexperimental, quantitative study, and hypotheses were tested. The scope of this study was statistical. Data was collected using the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ). This study assumed the validity and reliability of the MSQ and the soundness of the work adjustment theory, which is the foundation of the MSQ. The research was not expected to cause any deviations in the participants' everyday routines.

Definition of Terms

Both the terms *race* and *ethnicity* were defined in accordance with the U.S. federal standards for the classification of data on race and ethnicity (Office of Management and Budget, 1997). There were six race categories: *American Indian or Alaska Native*, *Asian*, *Black or African American*, *Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander*, *White*, and *Two or More Races*. There were also ethnicity categories: *Hispanic or Latino* and *not Hispanic or Latino*. Survey participants self-selected their race and ethnicity categories.

For this study, job satisfaction was defined in accordance with the work adjustment theory as “an internal indicator of correspondence; it represents the individual worker’s appraisal of the extent to which the work environment fulfills his or her requirements” (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984, p. 55).

Study Population

There were 398 possible participants located at five luxury-level resorts in various regions of the United States. The chief executive officers of each resort were not included in the survey, because they represent a higher echelon of the organization with extensive external duties and significantly different compensation packages. All of the managers and supervisors at these resorts had a company-assigned e-mail address and had easy access to that e-mail address at work.

Instrumentation/Measures

The MSQ collects data on both intrinsic and extrinsic factors, as well as overall job satisfaction. The 20-question version of the MSQ was chosen for this study. The average length of time required to answer the 20 questions is only five minutes (Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967). The MSQ is gender neutral, utilizes a five-point Likert scale, and measures job satisfaction in the following 20 areas:

1. Ability utilization: the chance to use one's abilities
2. Achievement: feelings of accomplishment
3. Activity: being able to stay busy on the job
4. Advancement: the opportunity to advance
5. Authority: the chance to direct others
6. Company: satisfaction with company policies
7. Compensation: pay for the work done
8. Coworkers: relationships with coworkers
9. Creativity: the chance to try own work methods
10. Independence: the opportunity to work alone
11. Moral values: not having violated conscience
12. Recognition: praise received from work done
13. Responsibility: freedom to use own judgment
14. Security: steady employment of the job
15. Social service: the chance to do things for others
16. Social status: the opportunity to be "somebody"
17. Supervision (HR): way the boss handles employees
18. Supervision (technical): competence of supervisor
19. Variety: the chance to do different things
20. Working conditions: all facets of the work environment

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Additionally, the following demographic data was collected from the survey participants:

1. Age
2. Level of education
3. Number of years of experience in the hospitality industry
4. Number of years with their present employers
5. Number of years at their present jobs
6. Employment status (full- or part-time)
7. Gender
8. Race
9. Ethnicity
10. Marriage/Partner status
11. Family status (dependent children living at home)
12. Native-born U.S. citizen, naturalized U.S. citizen, or foreign national

Data Collection

The survey was administered using Web-based software, and all responses were collected within a 30-day period. All managers and supervisors at these resorts speak, read, and write English; the survey, therefore, was conducted in English. The survey participants were contacted directly via their work email, informed about the research, and asked to participate by going to an Internet Website to complete the questionnaire. The initial email explained that all responses would be kept confidential and contained a link to a site where the survey was located. Four follow-up emails were sent to encourage participation in the survey. There was no other contact between the researcher and the survey participants.

Results

A total of 293 individuals, 73.61% of all eligible participants, completed the survey. The following null hypotheses were formed and tested using two ordinary least square linear regression analysis procedures, specifically a full model regression and a stepwise regression.

- H_{0a} There is no statistically significant relationship between gender and job satisfaction among managers and supervisors surveyed.
- H_{0b} There is no statistically significant relationship between race and job satisfaction among managers and supervisors surveyed.
- H_{0c} There is no statistically significant relationship between ethnicity and job satisfaction among managers and supervisors surveyed.

The data was first examined via the creation of frequency tables for categorical variables and the descriptive statistics of the continuous variables. Correlations among the variables were calculated and tabulated. Displays were prepared to show the relationship between satisfaction and gender, race, and ethnicity. To test the three hypotheses, a full model regression followed by a stepwise regression was done. The hypotheses were tested at the standard 5% ($p = .05$) level of significance. An ANOVA analysis of the regression procedure was done. Tables were created for all procedures. Table 1 shows the frequency of the participants in each gender, race, ethnicity, marital status, and education group. Table 2 shows the descriptive statistics for participants' satisfaction, age, years within the industry, years with their present employer, and years in their present position.

For the regression analysis, the satisfaction variable was used as the dependent variable. Satisfaction was represented by the mean or average of the 20 survey questions pertaining to job satisfaction. This average was used in all regressions to give each job satisfaction factor question equal weighting. Where participants had missing values for relevant dependent variables, those were not used in the regression.

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Analysis and Results

Correlation Analysis

A correlation analysis was conducted on age, education, the three variables for years worked, and the combined satisfaction score to attain the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient and Pearson two-tailed statistic. The relevant statistically significant positive correlation at the 5% level ($p = .05$) was between age and job satisfaction. Table 3 shows the results.

Regression Analysis

To test the hypotheses, a full model linear regression was run in which all the variables were used along with dummy variables for children over no children, married or not married, female or male, Hispanic or non-Hispanic, Asian or non-Asian, Black or non-Black, Pacific Islander or non-Pacific Islander, and two or more races or one race, along with the age, education, and years of employment variables. The results are presented in Table 4 along with the ANOVA analysis giving the R^2 , F , and the significance of the regression.

Table 4 shows that none of the race, gender, or ethnicity variables were significant at the 5% level; therefore, the null hypotheses that these variables have no effect on job satisfaction cannot be rejected. The validity analysis appeared solid and the nonresponses were relatively randomly distributed.

Table 1: Frequency Counts and Percentages for Demographic Variables (N = 293)

Category	Count	Percentage	Valid Percent
Gender			
Male	128	43.7	49.8
Female	129	44.0	50.2
Refusal	36	12.3	
Race			
American Indian or Alaskan Native	0	0.0	0.0
Asian	6	2.0	2.4
Black or African American	3	1.0	1.2
Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander	4	1.4	1.6
White	209	71.3	83.9
Two or more races	27	9.2	10.8
Refusal	44	15.0	
Ethnicity			
Hispanic or Latino	33	11.3	9.3
Not Hispanic or Latino	220	75.1	62.3
Refusal	40	13.7	
Dependent Children			
Yes	126	43.0	47.4
No	140	47.8	52.6
Refusal	27	9.2	
Marital Status			
Married	199	67.9	73.7
Single	48	16.4	17.8
Separated/divorced	23	7.8	3.0
Refusal	23	7.8	5.6
Education			
Some high school or less	1	0.3	0.4
High school graduate or GED	17	5.8	6.3
Some college or trade school	110	37.5	40.6
Four-year college graduate	124	42.3	45.8
Graduate degree	19	6.5	7.0
Refusal	22	7.5	

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics (N = 293)

Variable	N	Min	Max	Mean	Standard Deviation
Satisfaction	292	1.8	6	3.94	0.66
Years in current position	244	0.1	27	4.45	4.83
Years with current employer	242	0.2	36	6.93	6.80
Years in the industry	265	1.0	42	16.14	8.94
Age	225	25.0	65	41.42	9.59

Table 3: Correlation of Continuous Variables (N = 293)

	Years in Current Position	Years Current Employer	Years in Industry	Age	Education
Years current employer	0.551**				
Years within the industry	0.427**	0.463**			
Age	0.439**	0.377**	0.660**		
Education	- 0.126	- 0.237**	- 0.212**	- 0.158*	
Satisfaction	- 0.070	- 0.051	0.124	0.160*	- 0.055

Note. ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (Pearson's two-tailed); * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (Pearson's two-tailed).

Table 4: Full Model for Average of Satisfaction (N = 188, R² = .099, F = 1.469, p = 0.133)

	Standardized Coefficients	Standard Error	t	p value
Constant	3.819	0.322	11.863	0.000
Is female	0.075	0.084	0.888	0.376
Is married	- 0.019	0.095	- 0.199	0.843
Has children	- 0.060	0.085	- 0.707	0.481
Is Hispanic	0.118	0.154	0.767	0.444
Is two or more races	- 0.263	0.157	- 1.671	0.096
Is Asian	0.214	0.237	0.905	0.367
Is Black	- 0.107	0.400	- 0.268	0.789
Is Islander	0.424	0.569	0.745	0.457
Years position	- 0.019	0.011	- 1.777	0.077
Years employer	- 0.009	0.008	- 1.138	0.257
Years industry	0.013	0.007	1.855	0.065
Education	- 0.040	0.059	- 0.672	0.502
Age	0.006	0.006	1.065	0.288

Concerning the 20 individual job satisfaction workplace factors and their relation to the demographic variables, the regression was repeated with each of the survey questions pertaining to job satisfaction used separately as the dependent variable. Still, the regression analysis did not identify any significant results at the 5% level involving gender, race, or ethnicity. A stepwise regression was run on the full model. Table 5 shows the ANOVA analysis on the incremental changes in R^2 and the F statistic as variables are added in order of significance. Table 6 shows the additional significant variables when a nonfull model is run.

Table 5: ANOVA Analysis on the Stepwise Regression (N = 166)

#	Variable Change	R^2 Square	R^2 Change	F Change	Sig. F Change
1	Add <i>Is married</i>	0.099		1.469	0.133
2	Add <i>Is Black</i>	0.099	0.000	0.040	0.843
3	Add <i>Education</i>	0.098	0.000	0.069	0.793
4	Add <i>Is Hispanic</i>	0.096	- 0.002	0.463	0.497
5	Add <i>Has children</i>	0.093	- 0.003	0.525	0.470
6	Add <i>Is Asian</i>	0.090	- 0.003	0.565	0.453
7	Add <i>Is Islander</i>	0.088	- 0.003	0.529	0.468
8	Add <i>Is female</i>	0.085	- 0.003	0.558	0.456
9	Add <i>Age</i>	0.081	- 0.004	0.834	0.362
10	Add <i>Employer</i>	0.075	- 0.006	1.175	0.280
11	<i>Is two or more races, position, industry</i>	0.067	- 0.007	1.477	0.226

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Table 6 presents the regression results from the 11 models presented in Table 5. Model 11 is the base model that only includes years in the industry and years in the participant's position. In each subsequent model, new variables are added until all variables are included in Model 1. Model 1 is the full model. The only significance found at the 5% level lie with the variables of *years in industry*, and *years in their current position*. Specifically, a positive coefficient was found at the 5% level for *years in the industry* and a negative correlation at the 5% level for *years in their current position*.

Summary

The results of the regression analysis showed that these null hypotheses cannot be rejected at the 5% level. No evidence was found that gender, race, and ethnicity had any significant effect on the overall job satisfaction of the surveyed managers and supervisors. Additionally, the regression analysis done using the 20 job satisfaction factors as separate dependent variables did not find any effect from gender, race, or ethnicity that reached the 5% level of significance.

Table 6: Coefficients and Significance for the 11 Stepwise Regression Models (N = 166)

	1	2	3	4	5	6
<i>Constant</i>	3.819**	3.806**	3.806**	3.649**	3.667**	3.629**
Years industry	0.013*	0.013*	0.013*	0.013**	0.014**	0.013**
Years position	- 0.019*	- 0.019*	- 0.019*	- 0.019*	- 0.019*	- 0.019*
Is two or more races	- 0.263*	- 0.260*	- 0.259*	- 0.248	- 0.189	- 0.187
Years employer	- 0.009	- 0.009	- 0.009	- 0.008	- 0.008	- 0.008
Age	0.006	0.007	0.006	0.006	0.006	0.006
Is female	0.075	0.076	0.077	0.080	0.077	0.080
Is Islander	0.424	0.420	0.425	0.459	0.453	0.418
Is Asian	0.214	0.210	0.211	0.200	0.189	0.168
Has children	- 0.060	- 0.064	- 0.064	- 0.067	- 0.062	
Is Hispanic	0.118	0.117	0.117	0.111		
Education	- 0.040	- 0.040	- 0.040			
Is Black	- 0.107	- 0.105				
Is married	- 0.019					

	7	8	9	10	11
<i>Constant</i>	3.640**	3.648**	3.695**	3.886**	3.877**
Years industry	0.014**	0.013**	0.012*	0.016**	0.014**
Years position	- 0.018*	- 0.018*	- 0.018*	- 0.016	- 0.022**
Is two or more races	- 0.194	- 0.198	- 0.210	- 0.233*	- 0.229*
Years employer	- 0.009	- 0.009	- 0.009	- 0.009	
Age	0.006	0.006	0.006		
Is female	0.081	0.075			
Is Islander	0.417				

Note: Using the *t* statistic; * significant at the 10% level; ** significant at the 5% level

Implications

The findings of this study do not support the position of those theorists and researchers who argue that due to their shared group experiences of societal oppression, most members of the same gender, race, or ethnicity in the United States are likely to generally have unique, shared attitudes, perspectives, priorities, or expectations concerning their environment, including work environment. Also, no evidence was found of the existence of a unique gender, race, or ethnic culture, having homogenized its members' job and workplace expectations and perceptions. This does not mean that members of a gender, racial, or ethnic group do not have a greater tendency toward one opinion or another; instead, it simply means that if they have shared values, interests, or expectations, those did not—and need not—manifest in any homogenized job and workplace perceptions or expectations. Additionally, the findings of the survey do not mean that there is not some degree of imbedded sexism, racism, or prejudice in some places in the United States; they simply mean that if those things exist, they did not, and therefore need not, result in a homogenized set of job and workplace expectations and perceptions in the victimized population.

How, then, do we explain the fact that some researchers found a correlation between a person's gender, race, or ethnicity? The literature review revealed that some of those studies relied on simple correlation analysis, not the more exacting stepwise regression analysis. Some studies made less effort to control and examine variables, but some of these studies appear very sound and above criticism.

The seminal motivation and satisfaction theories imply that any differences in perceptions and expectations that are documented between a specific category of individuals and another category must be the result of an environmental factor that affects one group differently than another; therefore, if most individuals of a specific gender, race, or ethnicity within a specific organization had their job or workplace expectations either increased or decreased by some influencer that did not affect individuals outside of that group, the result could be a research finding that gender, race, or ethnicity is a factor in their degree of job satisfaction. This explanation could account for some of the studies that found distinct differences in job satisfaction between women and men in specific workplaces or professions. This line of reasoning also raises the interesting possibility that a properly conducted analysis of a properly conducted job satisfaction survey within a specific organization could, to some degree, serve as a reliable indicator of either actual or perceived sexism, racism, or prejudice against some category of employees within the organization.

The following four conclusions address the reconciling of the conflicting theories and research findings concerning the issue of job satisfaction and gender, race, or ethnicity:

- (a) People's gender, race, or ethnicity is not a reliable indicator or predictor of their degree of overall job satisfaction or their degree of satisfaction with any element of their job. Evidence of this is the conflicting findings of various researchers and the finding of this study's survey.
- (b) People's degree of overall job satisfaction or their degree of satisfaction with a specific element of their job could be affected by on the job events that they perceive they experience, or experience differently, as a result of their gender, race, or ethnicity. Evidence of this would be the legitimate studies that did find a correlation between job satisfaction and gender, race, or ethnicity.
- (c) Due to differing circumstances within the organizations studied, we may expect some researchers to have findings of no correlation between gender, race, and ethnicity and job satisfaction, while other equally diligent researchers, examining a different organization, will find some correlation between gender, race, and ethnicity and job satisfaction. These differing findings on the same issue do not represent either a conflict of fact or of theory.
- (d) A research finding of a legitimate correlation between gender, race, or ethnicity and job satisfaction in a specific organization may be a reliable indicator of a specific event or events within that organization that the members of the relevant category perceive they experienced, or experienced differently, as a result of their gender, race, or ethnicity. This conclusion is echoed by Mason (1992).

It should be remembered that research findings concerning the relationship of gender, race, and ethnicity to job satisfaction are contextual in that they reflect society. The finding of the survey in this study reflects the current state of attitudes and perceptions in American society and culture. Considering the monumental social changes in the United States in the last 50 years, perhaps 50 years ago, job expectations and perceptions did, in most industries and organizations, correlate to some degree along gender, race, and perhaps ethnic lines. It is quite possible that they still might, to some degree, correlate today in some communities and organizations; however, the evidence is that

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Comment: Changed "a person's" to "people's" because the rest of these statements are plural (using "they"/"their"). This was less cumbersome than changing "they"/"their" to "he or she"/"his or her" throughout.

in the United States, we can no longer say that gender, race, and ethnicity are the same defining psychological or sociological characteristics they once might have been. Similar studies attempted in other countries will reflect the attitudes, perceptions, and social order of those countries' society and culture.

Practical Application of This Knowledge

For a variety of reasons, many people within businesses are trying to encourage managers and supervisors of color—as well as female managers and supervisors—to remain within their organizations. Sometimes this is not an easy task. To be proactive, some seek to develop initiatives and programs to satisfy the needs, expectations, characteristics, or perceptions that they assume most minority (including female) managers and supervisors have, in hopes of increasing retention. If job satisfaction is a driver of person's decision to continue with his or her current employer, however, then the findings of this research do not support such efforts. The clear evidence is that, at least among management and supervisory personnel, we cannot with scientific assurance assume that people of the a certain race, ethnicity, or gender are satisfied to a different degree by certain work factors or are satisfied by different work factors than the remainder of the workforce.

The practical lesson of this research is that people should be perceived, communicated with, and treated as individuals, not as members of a racial, ethnic, or gender category; therefore, it would seem that the most effective way to encourage individuals to remain with their employers would be to engage each of them individually to ascertain if their immediate supervisors can take actions to retain them within their workforce.

These findings should also serve as a reminder that sometimes an organizational goal, such as retaining a more diverse group of managers and supervisors, is best attained via a decentralized and individualized approach, such as letting individual managers resolve issues and concerns with their subordinate managers and supervisors, instead of a centralized shotgun approach to a mythical set of collective issues and concerns. This study, therefore, reinforces the value of organization-wide job satisfaction surveys, while emphasizing the role of the direct supervisor in finding and addressing employee satisfaction issues.

Lastly, this research should also serve as a reminder of the wide diversity of the opinion, perception, expectations, and perceived needs inherent within any gender, race, or ethnic category in the United States and the ineffectiveness of relying on stereotypes or assumptions when problem-solving or choosing courses of action.

Possible Criticisms of This Research

Restricting the survey to managers and supervisors resulted in tighter parameters, but it could also be said that they are not representative of all employees. Managers and supervisors generally have more tenure in the organization, and Rose (1991) found tenure represented by time in the organization or time in the industry to be the sole predictor of job satisfaction and employee turnover. Additionally, Dawis, Lofquist, & Weiss (1968) also concluded that tenure represented by time in the organization is the most effective predictor of job satisfaction. The stepwise procedure used in this research found neither age nor education to be a significant predictor in this study's survey, but tenure was found to be a predictor. The possibility that the degrees of job satisfaction would be lower in nonmanagerial and nonsupervisory employees, while interesting and worthy of study, is not particularly relevant to one of the key components of the study, which was to compare organizational personal with shared variables except for differences in gender, race, and ethnicity.

A critic might say that the research does not prove that gender, race, or ethnicity is not a factor in job satisfaction. This is would be correct, and this researcher has not claimed to prove that gender, race, or ethnicity is never a significant factor. Instead, both the survey and the review of theories and previous research show that gender, race, or ethnicity is not always a factor, but could be if there is a reason for them to be.

The author acknowledges that a lower-than-desired level of racial diversity in this study's survey population is the study's primary weakness. It can be truthfully said that the power of the analysis as it applies to race is lower than the analysis concerning ethnicity and gender.

Recommendations for Future Research

Due to the parameters of this study, it is recommended that further research be done to (a) determine if the outcomes and findings of this study can be replicated using other organizations and industries within the United States and (b) determine if the outcomes and findings of this study can be replicated when employees at all levels of an organization are surveyed. In such a study, it is recommended that the data from nonmanagerial and nonsupervisory employees not be lumped with data from managers and supervisors. This would allow for a useful comparison of the two groups.

In replicating this study, it is recommended that researchers select organizations for study that have a study population that is diverse in gender, race, and ethnicity. It is also recommended that a researcher carefully selects an organization for study that has no reliable indications of either actual or widely perceived sexism, racism, or prejudice against some category of employees within the organization, as actual or widely perceived sexism, racism, or prejudice against some group would likely skew the results of any similar research.

It is also recommended that this study's hypotheses be pursued using other reputable job or employee satisfaction survey instruments and other research methodologies to determine if the findings and conclusion of this research can be affirmed by other approaches and to add depth to our knowledge of this subject.

The author encourages researchers to explore the possible uses of the MSQ or another reputable job or employee satisfaction survey instrument for finding indications of either actual or perceived sexism, racism, or prejudice against some category of employees within the organization. For such research, it is recommended the researchers should select at least one organization with no reported or widely perceived sexism, racism, or prejudice against some group and compare the survey data from that organization to survey data from at least one organization that is experiencing reports of actual or widely perceived sexism, racism, or prejudice against some group.

Final Thoughts

The vast complexity of examining and understanding human behavior should always remind us of the infinite complexity of the human mind, the diversity of human experiences and behaviors, and the uniqueness of each individual. It is really not surprising that simple answers are seldom found and that absolute understanding of the human creature still escapes us. There remains no greater challenge or greater joy than successfully working with and through people to accomplish to great goals.

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