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**An analysis of perceived barriers to occupational mobility
among Black municipal recreation and park employees in
Michigan**

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Michigan State University, 1989

AN ANALYSIS OF PERCEIVED BARRIERS TO
OCCUPATIONAL MOBILITY AMONG BLACK
MUNICIPAL RECREATION AND PARK EMPLOYEES
IN MICHIGAN

By

Steven Noble Waller

A DISSERTATION

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ABSTRACT

AN ANALYSIS OF PERCEIVED BARRIERS TO OCCUPATIONAL MOBILITY AMONG BLACK MUNICIPAL RECREATION AND PARK EMPLOYEES IN MICHIGAN

By

Steven Noble Waller

The purpose of this study was to examine those factors which were perceived as barriers to occupational mobility for Black personnel employed within the recreation and park profession in Michigan. Six independent variables were identified to test six study hypotheses. These variables included: (1) gender; (2) the number of years of related work experience; (3) the attained level of education; (4) the presence of an affirmative action plan; (5) the race of the appointing authority; and (6) perceived job satisfaction.

Occupational mobility, the dependent variable, was measured by calculating the difference in occupational status scores between the positions held in 1984 and 1988. Occupational status scores were obtained by ranking 18 occupational titles used in the field in Michigan. A positive mobility score indicated upward mobility, no change in mobility score indicated stability and a negative mobility score was indicative of downward mobility.

The survey instrument contained four major sections. Section one required the respondent to rate 18 occupational titles used in the park and recreation profession in Michigan. Section two required the respondent to provide an employment history for the period 1984-88 beginning with the most recent position held and culminating with the position held in 1984. Section three utilized the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire

(short-form) to obtain information relevant to job satisfaction. Section four required the respondent to provide demographic information about themselves.

A sample of 137 Black employees was drawn from a master list of employees compiled from names submitted by 13 municipal recreation and park agencies in Michigan. To be included in the sample, each respondent had to be (1) Black; (2) have been in the field at least three years; and (3) employed by an agency that served a population of 30,000 or more people. Totally, 133 instruments were mailed to potential respondents and 111 usable instruments were returned, for an adjusted response rate of 84%. One-way analysis of variance, t-test and multiple regression were the primary statistical tests used to test the hypotheses.

The principal finding of this study was that none of the six study variables made a significant difference in terms of occupational mobility for Black recreation and park personnel in Michigan. The results of this study also indicated that 31.6% of the sample experienced upward mobility, 56.7% remained stable, and 11.7% experienced downward mobility. In light of these findings, it is believed that the study accomplished its objectives.

Dedicated
To My Mother, Doris
and
My Children, Melissa, Morgan, and Steven II

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

If employment is one of the chief determinants of opportunities in life, work is, for many people the medium through which success is acquired. Occupationally, Blacks, in the United States, as a minority group have improved their situation over the past several decades, progressively moving into better paying and higher status jobs. Although it is clear that Blacks have been integrated into the mainstream work force, they remain heavily concentrated in the semi-skilled and unskilled occupations (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1979b).

Despite upward occupational mobility for Blacks in general, huge disparities remain evident relative to whites. For example, although the number of Blacks in the professions has increased significantly, they still represent only two percent and one percent of all lawyers and judges, respectively (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1979b). Observation would clearly indicate that Blacks are also noticeably absent from the higher echelons of education, science and industry. A consistent theme of underrepresentation in the best and most prestigious jobs is repeated in many occupational categories.

Throughout the decades, Black recreation and park professionals have strived to make a viable contribution to the profession. Black professionals, in spite of the obstacles that have been placed before them, have sought to maintain a standard of excellence in the delivery of recreation services to residents of the State of Michigan.

In the many urban metropolitan areas in the State of Michigan, Blacks are employed in municipal recreation and park agencies. They are employed within the technical, leadership, managerial, administrative, and executive levels of municipal recreation and park agencies. To date, there have been no formal manpower or occupational mobility studies conducted in Michigan which would indicate where Blacks are employed.

In municipal recreation and park agencies throughout the United States where Blacks are employed, it generally holds true that Blacks are concentrated at the leadership and supervisory levels. Blacks are relatively absent from the managerial, administrative and executive level positions within recreation and park agencies (Henkel and Godbey, 1977). In 1977, Donald Henkel and Geoffrey Godbey published a nationwide manpower study of the recreation and parks profession. This study encompassed the subject of Blacks and their occupational representation within the profession. The sample included 3,624 recreation and park agencies from across the nation. A response rate of 51.27% was obtained as 1858 agencies included in the sample responded.

Data obtained from this study indicated that Blacks represented 1.45 percent of all chief executives, and 2.03 percent of recreation and park superintendents. The study further revealed that minorities as a whole were severely underrepresented and noticeably absent from the top five administrative categories which included executives, superintendents, assistant superintendents, assistant directors and division heads.

In addition, this study revealed that Black employees comprised 38.57 percent of all community center directors, 30.89 percent of all recreation program leaders, and 27.78 percent of all recreation aides, thus lending

credibility to the statement that Blacks in recreation and park agencies are concentrated at the leadership and lower supervisory levels.

Also, Henkel and Godbey (1977) in their study concluded that there was a relationship between occupational category and gender of employees. For all positions combined, males held 84 percent of all jobs. The greatest difference between the percentage of males and females occurred in those jobs considered to be administrative in nature.

Conclusions from this manpower study indicated that there was some evidence of inequalities at various occupational levels which were directly attributed to race and gender.

The most extensive research conducted in respect to the status of women in the recreation and parks profession was conducted by Dunn (1970, 1977) and Kerr (1973). The authors concluded that the status of women is similar to that of other minorities. The rationale for this finding is that women and minorities have historically been targets of discriminatory practices, therefore their plights may be considered parallel. Dunn (1977), in reference to the status of women in the recreation and parks profession concluded that:

Data indicates that the percentage of women in the parks and recreation profession does not parallel the percentage of women in the population or in the labor force. There is some evidence that women have been excluded from occupational areas to which they have a legitimate right to employment. It seems likely that some of the injustices have prevailed with respect to women in recreation no less than other fields (p.30).

Occupational Mobility Research

There has been virtually no occupational mobility research conducted within the field of recreation and parks. The sole research effort was conducted by McDonald in 1981. McDonald conducted an occupational mobility study of Black personnel employed in the recreation, park and leisure services profession. From the list of members belonging to the Ethnic Minority Society of the National Recreation and Park Association a sample of 82 Black professionals was drawn. Of the 82 instruments mailed, 39 usable instruments were returned, yielding a response rate of 47%.

Based on the results of her empirical investigation, McDonald concluded that there was no significant relationship between the variables of level of education/schooling, family type and occupational mobility for Blacks within the recreation and park profession. In addition, the findings of the McDonald study indicated that gender and education have a significant impact on occupational mobility for Blacks employed in the recreation and park profession.

In support of McDonald's study, available manpower statistics indicate disparities in the representation of minorities and women in administrative and other occupational categories. One of the primary intents of this study is to identify whether the variables of gender, number of years of related work experience, attained level of education, presence of an affirmative action plan, the race of the appointing authority, and perceived job satisfaction are related to occupational mobility for Blacks employed in municipal recreation and park agencies in Michigan.

Directly related to the process of occupational mobility are factors which pertain to the motivational aspects of employment as well as those factors which impact job satisfaction. Management theories such as the "expectancy theory", the "equity theory", the "discrepancy theory" and Herzberg's "Two-Factor" theory of motivation all provide the theoretical impetus for understanding and relating the behavioral aspects of work to occupational mobility (Hall, 1987).

As indicated by the research of Jencks (1979), discrimination has a direct impact upon occupational status and income for non-whites. Based upon the importance of this finding, it is critical to examine the theoretical basis of prejudice and discrimination. The "power-conflict" theories of discrimination are relevant to the study of occupational mobility. Specifically, the "economic gain" theory of discrimination is most applicable to this study because employment is directly related to economic gain. Historically, employment has been a primary choice for discriminatory practices.

The aforementioned management theories pertaining to employee motivation and job satisfaction coupled with the "economic-gain" theory of discrimination provide the theoretical foundation for this study. This theoretical base will serve as the focal point in the examination of variables which may influence occupational mobility for Blacks employed in the recreation and parks profession. Each of the aforementioned management theories and theories of prejudice and discrimination are discussed in detail in Chapter 3 entitled "Theoretical Models and Hypotheses".

Specific Research Problem

This research effort was a self-reported, perceptual study of factors which may impact occupational mobility for Blacks employed by municipal recreation and park agencies in Michigan.

The specifics of the research problem include identifying the occupational level of Blacks in recreation and park agencies in Michigan which service populations of 30,000 or more people. Additionally, this research effort sought to determine whether the variables of gender, number of years of related work experience, attained level of education, the presence of an affirmative action plan, the race of the appointing authority, and perceived job satisfaction are significantly related to occupational mobility for Blacks in the municipal recreation and parks profession.

Importance of the Problem/Potential Uses of the Study

It is important to study this problem for the following reasons:

1. There are no current studies being conducted in Michigan that would determine the number of Blacks employed by municipal recreation and parks departments and where they are located within the organizational hierarchy.
2. There are no current studies being conducted in Michigan that would determine if Blacks are employed in key policy/decision-making positions in municipal recreation and park agencies in Michigan that service minority segments of the population.

3. There are no studies being conducted in Michigan currently that identify the factors that may be associated with occupational mobility of Blacks who are employed within the municipal recreation and park profession in Michigan.

Some of the potential uses of this study include the following:

1. The results of this study will help to identify the status of Blacks in the profession in Michigan and identify specific mobility patterns of Blacks within municipal recreation and park agencies in Michigan.
2. The results of this study could potentially be utilized for developing specific strategies for recruiting minorities in recreation and park professions and the development of training programs to build the necessary skills needed to climb the organizational ladder into the upper administrative, managerial and executive ranks.
3. The results of this study may serve to identify factors which lead to greater job satisfaction and increased longevity of employment for Black employees and employers working in municipal recreation and park agencies in Michigan as well as nationally.

Objectives

The principle objective of this study is the following:

To determine the relationship between gender, number of years of related work experience, attained level of education, the presence of an affirmative action plan, the race of the

appointing authority, perceived job satisfaction and occupational mobility for Blacks employed in the recreation and park profession in Michigan.

The following series of sub-objectives pertinent to this study include the following:

1. To describe the occupational status of Black personnel within the recreation and park profession in Michigan.
2. To determine whether Blacks are occupying jobs at the upper management and administrative levels in the recreation and park profession in Michigan.
3. To gather data which will allow for the formation of a specific profile of the Black recreation and park professional in the State of Michigan.

Delimitations

This study which dealt with identifying those factors which may affect the occupational mobility of Black personnel in the parks and recreation profession in Michigan was delimited to a sample population of Black personnel who have a minimum of three years of full-time related work experience, who are employed by a parks and recreation agency which serves a municipality of 30,000 or more people.

Limitations

The following factors may have had an impact upon the results of this study:

1. The agencies from which the sample was chosen may not be truly representative of the universe of recreation and park agencies in Michigan.
2. The sample population may not be truly representative of the universe of Black municipal recreation and park personnel.
3. Some of the municipal recreation and park agencies were not supportive of this study, thus lending little or no support in this effort, which in turn reduced the response rate.
4. Some of the subjects drawn from the sample failed to return the survey instrument.
5. Some of the subjects drawn from the sample failed to respond to specific items on the survey instrument.
6. Some of the subjects left the agency for better jobs. As a result, any occupational mobility they experienced could not be measured.

Operational Definitions

For the expressed purposes of this study, the following list of terms was defined as follows:

1. **Achieved Status:** The current educational, occupational and income level as reported by the respondent.
2. **Black Personnel:** Those recreation and park professional and non-professional personnel who identify their racial background as Black American.
3. **Gender:** The sex of the respondent, a Black male or female.

4. **Level of Education:** The highest degree completed by the respondent: high school diploma, associate, bachelors, masters, specialist, doctorate and the number of years of schooling as reported by the respondent utilizing a scale from 4-20. As utilized in the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (short form), the range of 4-8 will identify the level of grade school completed, 9-12, the level of high school completed, 13-16, the level of college (undergraduate) completed, and 17-20, the level of graduate or professional school completed.
5. **Number of Years of Related Work Experience:** The total number of years in which an individual has been employed doing full-time work related to the recreation and parks profession.
6. **Occupational Mobility:** The movement of an individual or group within and between occupational categories. Occupational mobility will be classified as downward, upward or stable.
7. **Occupational Status Score:** The numerical ranking of occupations based on the respondent's opinion of the general status of 18 occupational titles using a Likert scale with a range of 1 through 5, 1 denoting high status, and 5 denoting low status.
8. **Downward Mobility:** A negative mobility score resulting from accepting a position lower than the one previously held at the beginning of the 1984-88 period.

9. **Stability:** No change in mobility score due to remaining in the same position or lateral transfer to a similar position at the beginning and end of the 1984-88 period.
10. **Upward Mobility:** A positive mobility score generated from accepting a higher level position in the recreation and parks profession than the one previously held at the beginning of the 1984-88 period.
11. **Mobility Score:** The score obtained by calculating the difference in occupational status scores assigned to the most current position held and the first position held between 1984-88.
12. **Perceived Affirmative Action Plan:** The perception of the plan implemented by the local municipality for equalizing the number of minorities and women in the work force in relationship to the number of qualified minorities and women in the relevant labor market.
13. **Race of Appointing Authority:** The racial origin, as reported by the respondent, of the official authorized to make personnel decisions such as hiring and promotions for the division or department.
14. **Job Satisfaction:** The degree to which the Black employee is satisfied with his or her current position within the municipal recreation and park agency. The degree of satisfaction will be measured by a satisfaction score being computed for

each respondent based upon the short form of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire.

15. Job Satisfaction Score: The general measure of overall job satisfaction obtained by summing the scores of all items contained in the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire. Using a Likert scale scores range from 1 indicating "very dissatisfied" to 5 indicating "very satisfied" with the particular aspect of the job.

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter examines the literature which forms the conceptual and theoretical framework for the hypotheses to be tested in this research effort. The development of a sound conceptual and theoretical foundation was of paramount importance in order to empirically determine to what extent achieved variables such as level of education, number of years of related work experience and job satisfaction, as well as ascribed variables such as gender, are related to the occupational status and mobility of Black personnel within the recreation and park profession in Michigan.

In this chapter, six major areas of research are systematically reviewed. The first section focuses upon manpower studies which have been conducted within the recreation and parks profession. The second section examines the area of occupational mobility research conducted in several disciplines. The third section scrutinizes literature which has been written pertaining to the area of job satisfaction. The fourth section examines research in the area of affirmative action. The fifth section presents an overview of research conducted in the area of discrimination in employment. The sixth section presents a summary of frequently utilized research designs which have been used in the area of occupational mobility research.

Manpower Studies in Recreation and Parks

To date, there has been relatively little manpower research completed in the recreation and park profession. The vast majority of available manpower statistics were descriptive in nature. Primarily, they were conducted to identify the number and classification of personnel at various levels of the organizational hierarchy of recreation and park agencies in the public sector.

The first primary research effort designed to assess the status of recreation and park personnel on a nationwide basis was conducted by Hawkins and Tindall (1966). This study was published by the National Recreation and Park Association and was entitled "The 1966 Recreation and Park Yearbook". In this study, statistical data relative to the number of recreation and park personnel were broken down by city, county, and state. Data were obtained from the 1962 Bureau of Outdoor Recreation study, entitled "State Outdoor Recreation Statistics" and by surveys disseminated to cities and counties within the continental United States. The population size of these governmental units was not given. Totally, 25,397 recreation and park personnel were identified. This total represented a count of personnel employed in the field at that time.

Hawkins and Verhoven (1968) conducted a study to determine the projected supply and demand needs for professional and para-professional recreation and park personnel for the period of 1967 to 1980. From data collected from a survey of higher education institutions having formal recreation curricula, and a survey of recreation and park personnel across the nation (the response rate was not indicated), Hawkins and Verhoven concluded that:

The present supply of persons acquiring more extensive preparation is expected to increase by only approximately 26,000 during the period of 1967 to 1980. But the demand for persons with junior college and college training (in parks and recreation) is expected to increase from 216,000 in 1967 to 760,000 in 1980 (judgment estimate). It is obvious that whichever forecasting method is used, a serious supply deficit exists (Hawkins and Verhoven, 1968, p.151).

In 1970, Dunn replicated the "1968 N.R.P.A. Manpower Study". The expressed purpose of this study was to update and validate the previous effort. All identifiable local recreation and park agencies were surveyed and a total of 1,119 responses were received. These agencies were identified through the International City Managers Association Yearbook. The surveyed agencies were requested to project manpower needs for the period of 1970 to 1973. The major pitfall of this study was that the sample size was not identified and subsequently, the percentage of responses may not have been truly representative of the total universe of park and recreation personnel and projected manpower needs.

Hawkins and Verhoven (1974) published a report entitled "The Utilization of Disadvantaged Workers in Public Parks and Recreation Services" (the term "disadvantaged" refers to Blacks). The primary purpose of this study was to collect and analyze data relative to the utilization of the "disadvantaged" in entry level and para-professional positions within the recreation and park profession. A stratified sample of 980 municipal, county and special district recreation and park systems were

surveyed, resulting in 599 responding (a response rate of 56%). The sample was stratified by population of municipalities who were members of the International City Managers Association.

Results of this study indicated that of the total number of full-time recreation and parks positions in existence, disadvantaged workers held 13% of those positions in existence and over 25% of the part-time seasonal positions. Additionally, Hawkins and Verhoven concluded that:

The vast majority of part-time and seasonal positions held by disadvantaged workers are in the occupational categories of attendants and aides, recreation program leaders, semi-skilled personnel, activity specialists, skilled park personnel, clerical and recreation facility supervisors (p.73).

In 1975, a professional education study was conducted by the Society of Park and Recreation Educators, a branch of the National Recreation and Park Association (Stein, 1975). The purpose of this study was to determine the state-of-the-art of recreation and park education in the United States and Canada. Surveys were sent to 711 post secondary institutions, yielding a response rate of 77%. Comparisons of the number and types of full-time faculty in recreation and park education at the post-secondary level indicated 779 (64%) of those educators reporting were male. The number of female educators responding was 444 (36%). In reference to racial composition, 82.4% were White, 3.5% were Black, and the remaining 14.1% were from "other" racial groups.

In Michigan, in terms of recreation and park educators, it can be observed that there are more male educators than females and the number of White educators outnumber those that are Black. This may be evidence of the fact that there may be a shortage of Blacks and women who have advanced degrees and choose education as a professional endeavor.

The most informative and comprehensive manpower study conducted to date in reference to public recreation and park personnel was the "Manpower Study" carried out by Henkel and Godbey (1977). The primary purpose of this study was to ascertain characteristics of full-time personnel in the public sector of recreation and park by occupational title. Surveys were disseminated to 5,014 public recreation and park agencies, resulting in a response rate of 51%. Fifty-eight percent of all state recreation and park agencies, 42% of all county recreation and park agencies and 44% of all special districts responded to the survey. Data was analyzed by gender, race, region, occupational title, education and type of agency. From a total of 3,624 agencies responding to the survey, it was indicated that 84,105 full-time staff were employed in public recreation and park agencies.

Further analysis of the data indicated that representation among minority groups was significant at the leadership, skilled and lower supervisory level positions; minority representation at the upper administrative level positions was noticeably absent. At the administrative level, Whites comprised an average of 92.79% of all positions. Of the positions held, the largest Black representation was in the position of community center

director (38.57%). Other areas in which Black personnel were highly represented include the positions of recreation program leader (30.89%) and recreation aide/attendant (27.78%). The greatest underrepresentation for Black personnel occurred at the chief executive level (1.45%).

In conclusion, data obtained as a result of the manpower study, Henkel and Godbey indicated that:

Minority groups were well represented in the public park and recreation field, although noticeably absent from high-level administrative positions and from positions involving the management of natural resources. Overall, Blacks constituted 14.7% of all employees working in municipal recreation and park agencies (p.35).

In addition, Henkel and Godbey concluded that:

For all positions combined, males held 84.7% of all jobs. The greatest difference between the percentage of males and females employed occurred in those jobs considered to be in the administrative category. This category includes chief executives, assistant directors of parks and/or recreation, superintendents of recreation, division heads and park managers. In this category, males comprised an average of 91.29% of all personnel (p.30).

The findings of the "Manpower Study" conducted by Henkel and Godbey (1977) illustrate two important points. First, even though Blacks were well represented across the range of occupational categories, few Blacks are employed in key administrative positions. This limited number of qualified Black personnel in key administrative positions may have implications in terms of policy, relative to resource allocation and service delivery. Secondly, the findings underscore the resounding theme of male dominance across the supervisory and administrative job categories. Women have traditionally not had access to these positions which may have been "reserved" for males.

Dunn (1977) conducted a study to examine trends in the participation of women in the recreation and park profession. Dunn studied trends in the employment of women in recreation and park between 1928 and 1975 and found a decline in the number of females employed in public recreation and park agencies. During that period, the percentage of women dropped from 49% in 1930 to 17% in 1977. Dunn concluded that:

Data indicated that the percentage of women in parks and recreation does not parallel the percentage of women in the population or in the labor force. There is some evidence that women have been excluded from occupational areas to which they have a legitimate right to employment. It seems likely that some injustices have prevailed with respect to women in recreation no less than in other fields (p.30).

Kerr (1973) conducted another survey to assess the status of women in the recreation and park profession. The instrument was mailed to 125 member agencies of the American Park and Recreation Society (a branch of the National Recreation and Park Association), with a response rate of 56%. The objective of this study was to obtain data pertinent to the status of both male and female recreation and parks professionals. There were three primary variables designed to determine if there were existing differences between male and female professionals. These variables were: (1) occupational position, (2) income, and (3) educational background.

The results of this study revealed that there were notable disparities existing between male and female personnel in the recreation and park profession. Some of the important facts obtained as a result of this study include the following: (1) the ratio of male to female personnel in the recreation and park profession was two to one, in favor of the males, (2) 85% of the administrative positions were held by white males; women identified at the administrative level earned approximately \$3,000.00 per year less than their male colleagues holding similar positions, and (3) women earned an average of \$1,000.00 per year less than males across all positions.

The Dunn (1977) and Kerr (1973) studies serve to substantiate the findings of the Henkel and Godbey (1977) "Manpower Study". Dunn and Kerr, like Henkel and Godbey found that males outnumbered females in the work force and that males occupied a far greater number of administrative positions. Additionally, the Kerr study pointed out the salary disparity which is commonly found in those occupations that are dominated by males.

All of the findings previously mentioned underscore what may be the plight of the Black female in the recreation and park profession.

The Kerr study (1973) has implications for this research endeavor. Her work suggests that the results may yield the following information: (1) Black males included in the sample will outnumber Black females, (2) Black males will occupy a greater number of administrative positions than Black females, and (3) Black females may earn less than their Black male counterparts. In summation, the findings of this study may be consistent with those of Kerr and serve to further confirm the impact that gender has upon employment in general, occupational mobility and compensation.

As evidenced by the Henkel and Godbey (1977) study, Blacks are noticeably absent from the administrative ranks in municipal recreation and park agencies. As with women, if Black personnel meet the necessary entrance requirements for administrative positions, by law they are to be given an equal opportunity for employment. When noting the statistics presented by Henkel and Godbey in their "Manpower Study", perceived discrimination may be a factor in Blacks being underrepresented in the administrative categories. In the present investigation, hypotheses related to the race of the appointing authority and the presence or absence of an affirmative action plan will be tested to determine if discrimination may be a factor in thwarting attempts by Blacks to climb into the administrative ranks.

To further examine those factors which may have an impact on occupational mobility for Blacks, it is necessary to examine the results of occupational mobility studies utilizing an interdisciplinary approach. The following series of studies which have occurred over the last two decades

will assist in developing greater insight into the process of occupational mobility and further elaborate upon the perceived barriers to occupational mobility among Blacks.

Occupational Mobility Studies

One of the most reliable and frequently replicated occupational mobility research designs was developed by Blau and Duncan (1967). Mobility research is based on the premise that the occupational structure of a society is the major determinant of social mobility. Blau and Duncan developed mobility tables to explicate the flow of manpower within and between groupings of occupations (i.e. movement within particular groupings of white collar occupations and movement from blue collar occupations to white collar occupations). In their research design, they used three major occupational groupings: (1) white collar, (2) blue collar, and (3) farm worker.

From this research came two major findings: (1) short distance geographic movement exceeded long distance geographic movement, and (2) upward mobility was more prevalent than downward mobility. These findings were based on a survey conducted in 1962 of 52,000 households which were identified by the 1960 census. The sample population consisted of 25,000 males between the ages of 20 and 60 years of age. Eighty-three percent of the sample responded to the survey. The relationship between several social conditions demographic variables and affecting occupational mobility included: population of city where one resides; race; region or country where ancestors migrated from; family type; sibling pattern; geographic mobility;

geographic region; marital status; education of immediate family; occupational status five years ago; occupational status of father's first job; occupational status of father; and spouse's father's occupational status.

The findings of Blau and Duncan (1967) revealed that race, ethnic origin, educational background, family background and geographic mobility all had a significant relationship to upward occupational mobility. Race has a significant relationship to downward mobility and marital status had no impact on occupational mobility.

In respect to the effects of race on occupational mobility, Blau and Duncan (1967) made the following statement about Black Americans within the American Occupational Structure:

In sum, Negroes are handicapped by having poorer parents, less education, and inferior career experiences than Whites. Yet, even if these handicaps were statistically controlled by asking, in effect, what the achievement of non-whites would be if they had the same origins, the same education and the same first jobs as Whites, their occupational chances are still consistently inferior to those of Whites. Thus, being a Negro in the United States has independent disadvantageous consequences for several factors that directly affect occupational success. The culmination of the distinct, though not related, disadvantages creates profound inequalities of occupational opportunities for the Negro in America (p.209).

Comparable findings were reported by Jencks (1979) in his research on inequality and determinants of economic success in America. Jencks concluded that:

Our data only indicates that economic differences between White and non-Whites persist even when they have the same amount of schooling and the same scores on cognitive tests. Nonetheless, this creates a strong prima facie case for assuming that on the average, and despite affirmative action, non-whites suffer from discrimination based on skin color (p.79).

Jencks arrived at this conclusion after noting the results of the Project Talent 1960-72 sample. The principle objective of Project Talent was to measure academic ability among brothers who were in grades 10 and 11 in 1960. Jencks notes that race directly affects occupation and earnings in all large national surveys of 25-64 year olds. The Project Talent survey was the only national survey where race had no independent effect, perhaps because of the high non-response rate in the non-white sample. In summation, if all factors are equal (i.e., test scores and schooling), Blacks and Whites should have a comparable employment rate. The only factor that cannot be controlled for is the employer's willingness to hire a Black employee.

An ethnographic case study administered by Bulls (1986) focused on nine Black female superintendents' perceptions of significant career paths and behavioral strategies necessary to ascend to a superintendency.

Utilizing a questionnaire, data was gathered from two face-to-face and seven telephone interviews with Black female public school superintendents in Pennsylvania. The study provided a brief description of the respondents relative to the interview situation, described the superintendents' positions held in ascendancy, preparation, socialization, and mobility experiences and focused on the behaviors which the superintendents revealed were critically related to their success.

A review of the data provided by the interviews substantiated the following relevant conclusions: (1) mentorship is vital to the Black female administrator's career advancement; (2) obtaining a doctorate degree is essential preparation for superintendency for Black female educational professionals; and (3) work experience at the central office (administrative) level provides essential experience and visibility for Black females interested in a superintendency.

In relationship to mobility within the recreation and parks profession for Black employees, the aforementioned study illustrates that adequate preparation in terms of education and related work experience are mandatory prerequisites. If discrimination does not intercede into the personnel selection process, education and related work experience in the recreation and park profession should assist in obtaining upward mobility.

Hale (1985) conducted a study pertaining to occupational mobility of Black corporate managers residing in the Phoenix, Arizona area. The grounded theory research method was employed to obtain information from 13 Black managers which addressed the question of: What are Black managers' perceptions of their work experience and of the other elements that have affected the direction of their careers? The grounded theory research

method allows for the construction of a theory by observing aspects of social behavior that may point to universal principles. Theory developed through this method is based on observation more than deduction.

The data were coded and sorted into categories. The significant findings of this study were as follows: (1) failure as a manager is not unique to Blacks, but Blacks usually must work harder than their white counterparts to reach the middle and upper management levels within their organizations; (2) those managers that participated in this study have developed and refined their professional and personal abilities to acquire and maintain their managerial status; (3) mentor and supporters have played an important role in the lives and careers of Black managers; (4) in many instances, the progress of Black managers is affected by upper management's perception of Blacks and their abilities; and (5) racism and discrimination have become difficult to recognize, but Black managers are dealing with them in a creative manner.

The results of this study imply that Black managers are willing to go beyond the norm in preparing themselves for managerial positions. In spite of their preparation, actual attainment of these positions may be affected by stereotypes held by white upper level managers and discrimination which will generally serve to restrict mobility.

To date, there has been only one study conducted in the area of recreation and parks that pertained to factors which the occupational mobility of Blacks in the recreation and park profession. McDonald (1981) identified four variables - gender, education, geographic mobility, and family type - which may influence the occupational mobility of Black recreation and park professionals. Hypotheses were developed regarding each of the

aforementioned variables. A sample was drawn from the membership list of the Ethnic Minority Society of the National Recreation and Park Association. Eighty-two survey instruments were disseminated, yielding a 47% response rate (50 instruments were returned with 39 being deemed as usable). After collecting data, the data was analyzed by calculating percentages and means. The primary purpose was to develop descriptive information about the sample. The Chi-Square Test was used to test each hypothesis.

The results of the McDonald study indicated the following:

1. There was a significant relationship between gender and occupational mobility. In the study, males outnumbered females by a ratio of two to one. Males held 66.6% of administrative positions compared to 33.3% held by females. The male domination of the administrative ranks is consistent with research conducted by Kerr (1973) and Henkel and Godbey (1977).
2. There was a significant relationship between education and occupational ability for Black recreation and park professionals. The majority of the respondents had completed graduate degrees. Respondents with higher levels of education held higher status positions.
3. There was a significant relationship between geographic mobility and occupational mobility for Black

recreation and park professionals. For those respondents who exhibited downward mobility, it appeared that relocation to another state was a significant factor. McDonald failed to elaborate on this point regarding the reasons for downward mobility after relocating to another state. One explanation for this fact may have been that the party took a lower level or lower paying position than the one that was previously held upon relocating to another state. This may have been a function of the limited number of available jobs within or outside of the recreation and park profession.

4. There was a significant relationship between family type and occupational mobility for Black recreation and park professionals. Thirty-three percent of those respondents whose occupational mobility was downward were from single parent households (pp.80-81).

Jones (1980) conducted a study which analyzed the correlates of changing occupational positions for Black and White MBA managers employed in business organizations in the United States. A casual model for the attainment process was constructed by integrating individual background characteristics and structural characteristics of organizations and jobs. The purpose was to provide a framework for an empirical investigation of the determinants of earnings and job authority among Black and White managers in business organizations.

The data was taken from two samples of MBA managers who completed their graduate business studies between 1969 and 1974 (160 White males and 148 Black males). A number of individual and structural variables (i.e., race, age and educational background) were combined in regression equations to estimate earnings and job authority functions for White and Black managers. The conclusions resulting from this study were as follows: (1) Black MBA's began their careers at a higher starting salary than White MBA's; (2) Black MBA managers exercise less job authority in their management positions than White MBA managers; (3) the earnings differential between White and Black MBA managers widens in the years following career entry with Blacks' earnings lagging significantly behind the earnings of Whites.

Howard and Bray (1980) conducted a study of young Black and White managers at the American Telephone and Telegraph Company (AT&T). The primary purpose of the study was to determine if there were differences among Black and White managers in relationship to career advancement at AT&T. The sample drawn for this study included 50% female and 25% minority managers. The key findings of this study indicated that Blacks, especially Black males, were more strongly motivated for money and promotions than Whites. Black managers and White managers were found to be equally motivated in reference to career advancement. As in the Howard and Bray (1980) study, it is predicted that the sample utilized in the present study will also be concerned with career advancement.

The findings of the Howard and Bray (1980) study related directly to the hygiene and motivational factors contained in Herzberg's "Two-Factor"

model of motivation (Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman, 1959). Herzberg concluded that two separate factors influenced motivation: hygiene or maintenance factors and motivational factors. Hygiene factors are those elements of a job that may be dissatisfying but are necessary to maintain a reasonable level of satisfaction in employees. Example of hygiene factors include company policy, pay, job security, working conditions and status.

Motivational factors are those job conditions that operate to build motivation and job satisfaction. An absence of motivational factors may lead to job dissatisfaction. Examples of motivational factors include achievement, advancement, recognition, responsibility and possibility of growth (Davis, 1981). When these factors are not present in the current employment environment, dissatisfaction may occur. The employee then exercises procedures to minimize the tension created by job dissatisfaction. One of the most common methods for resolving the tension is to make attempts to become occupationally mobile within or outside the organization.

Hudson (1978) conducted a study on a sample of Black employees of a large international computer corporation. The objective of the study was to explore the relationship between ascriptive, achievement, and belief and attitudinal variables and mobility of Blacks employed in predominantly white organizations and within occupations that were previously closed to Blacks. It was hypothesized that the following factors would be significantly related to the respondents' occupational status and to their movement into management positions: educational achievement, parents' achievement, sex, skin color, the respondents' beliefs and attitudes about Blacks, Whites, the corporation, work and business. The major findings of

this study were that education was very significant as a determinant of occupational mobility for Black males and females. In addition, light-skinned respondents receive more favorable consideration for management positions than dark-skinned respondents and females.

The conclusions of this study may indicate that Blacks are brought in at the managerial level for affirmative action reasons, and denied promotional opportunities due to lack of experience, insufficient education or skin color, thus allowing their White counterparts to progress ahead of them in terms of earnings and career mobility. Hudson (1978) concludes that this represents a very overt indication of discrimination.

Weiss (1978) conducted a study to determine the effects of class on racial differences. The primary focus of his study was income returns for investment in education. Research conducted by Goodman (1977) and Blau and Duncan (1979) on racial inequality pertaining to income and occupational status, indicated that Black males received lower income returns on education than White males (Blau and Duncan, 1979).

Within this framework of the Weiss (1978) study, there were four hypotheses tested by the investigator: (1) managers as a whole would receive much higher returns on their investment in education than subordinates; (2) Black males would be concentrated more in the working classes than White males; (3) when class position is controlled, Black males will receive lower returns on their investment in education than White males; and (4) within the managerial category, Black males will have lower returns on educational investments than White males.

Data were collected from a random sample of 5,000 households from data sets utilized by two previous studies. Hypotheses were tested with two

regression equations and the F-test. Findings indicated that: (1) managers did receive higher returns to education; (2) 61% of the Black males were concentrated in the working class; (3) when class position is ignored, Black males received lower returns to education than White males; (4) within the supervisory category, there was little significant difference between Black males and White males on return for educational investment; and (5) within the managerial category, Black males had lower returns to education than White males.

Goodman (1977) conducted a survey to determine the effects of race and ethnicity upon income and occupational status attainment. Data was collected from a random sample of 1960 and 1970 census data for Chicago, Illinois. Subjects included a stratified sample of native Whites, second generation Italian Americans and second generation urban Black Americans. Data was analyzed utilizing regression equations for each group to ascertain the effects on income and occupational status attainment for each year. Findings concluded that race had a significant relationship to income and status attainment, and that for Whites, ethnicity did not significantly affect income or status attainment.

Another study in the 1970's, conducted by Leigh (1976), focused attention upon the occupational mobility patterns of young men. The sample population consisted of males between the ages of 25 and 34 over the period of 1965-75. A random sample of the 1970 Census Public Use Sample was utilized. An analysis of variables which affected mobility included age, race, marital status, education and vocational training. It was concluded

that education enhanced mobility for Blacks and Whites, however, more for Whites. White males had higher market returns for educational investment. Vocational training for both Blacks and Whites had a positive effect on mobility.

Several variables such as gender, race, age all affect occupational mobility in a negative manner. The variables of educational background and vocational training will influence occupational mobility in a positive manner. One important variable that also has an influence on one's choice to stay with an organization or seek attempts to become occupationally mobile outside of the organization is job satisfaction. The following series of research efforts pertain to job satisfaction of Blacks working in a variety of disciplines.

Job Satisfaction Research

In reviewing the literature related to job satisfaction for Black employees, the studies by Penn (1985) and Perry (1985) made reference to two important management theories. The first was Herzberg's "Two-Factor" theory and the second was "Equity Theory". For the benefit of the reader, it is necessary to briefly define both theories which are described in greater detail in Chapter 3.

Herzberg in his "Two-Factor" theory identified six motivators or satisfiers and ten hygiene factors or dissatisfiers. Motivators (satisfiers) are those factors which operate to build job satisfaction and motivation. Examples of motivational factors include achievement, advancement, recognition, and possibility for growth.

Hygiene factors are those elements of a job that may or may not be satisfying but are necessary to maintain a reasonable level of satisfaction in employees. Examples of hygiene factors include company policy and administration, pay, job security, working conditions and status (Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman, 1959). A certain amount of hygiene factors is necessary to fulfill a person's biological drives and basic needs, such as safety and affiliation. When these needs are not met, the employee may become dissatisfied. Once there is a sufficient amount of hygiene factors to fulfill these needs, satisfaction may occur.

Motivators (satisfiers) are job characteristics that are relevant to a person's high-order needs and psychological growth. These characteristics include: work that is interesting and challenging, responsibility and achievement. An insufficient amount of motivators may prevent an employee from experiencing the positive satisfaction that accompanies psychological growth, but will not result in job dissatisfaction (Wexley and Yuki, 1984).

Equity theory is based on the relationship of two variables: inputs and outcomes. Input represents what an individual contributes to an exchange; outcomes are what an individual receives from the exchange. Individuals assign weights to various inputs and outcomes according to their performance. After they arrive at a ratio of inputs and outcomes for themselves, they compare it with their perceived ratios of inputs and outcomes in the same or similar situation. Thus, others become the objects of comparison for people in determining whether they feel equitably treated. Equity exists whenever the ratio of a person's inputs equals the ratio of outcomes to inputs for others. Inequity exists when the ratios of outcomes to inputs are not equal (Hellriegel, Slocum, Woodman, 1986).

Penn (1985) conducted a study which identified the factors which contributed to job satisfaction among a group of Black school administrators in Virginia. A sample of 41 Black school administrators in Virginia was drawn from a list provided by the State Department of Education. The respondents were asked a series of questions within the confines of the Herzberg semi-structured interview technique. The respondents were asked to relate a good and bad incident pertaining to their work. The data was analyzed using the Chi-Square statistic. The primary result of this study indicated that factors relating to keeping or advancing in a job (job security, possibility of growth and advancement) were identified as hygiene factors by the Black administrators included in the sample.

Perry (1985) conducted research which assessed job satisfaction within the framework of equity theory. Analyses were based upon data obtained from the National Survey of Black Americans. Equity using both subjective and objective measures was defined by occupational status and pay within the organization. Subjective measures included the respondent's perceptions of equal job status and objective measures included utilization of actual data such as position within the organization and salary rates.

Demographic variables were examined for possible sub-group differences. In this study, subjective equity predicted job satisfaction better than the objective measures. The major implications of this study stems from its finding that sharp differences exist in the extent to which Blacks (particularly Black women) reap the monetary and occupational status rewards which education brings to Whites. Equity theory indicates that when an employee compares his/her inputs and outcomes with those of his

peers and if the ratios are comparable and there is not an equivalent reward, then inequity exists. These differences were shown to affect job satisfaction. Perry (1985) concluded that education should continue to be emphasized as a vehicle for advancement for Black Americans. Perry suggests that because of unlawful discrimination in employment, education, per se, cannot be expected to eliminate inequality.

Grinnell (1982) conducted a study which examined the level of stress experienced by Black female professionals in Los Angeles County. One of the primary questions addressed in this study was whether being perceived as Black by others contributed to higher levels of stress than being perceived as female. One hundred twenty salaried Black female professionals completed a 14 item questionnaire in a group meeting setting. Their ages ranged from 21 to 60, their salaries ranged from \$15,000-\$50,000 per year and their length of professional experience ranged from 1 year to 27 years. The most significant finding of this study revealed that the overwhelming majority of the respondents felt that being "Black" was a major concern to others more so than being female. The perceived over-importance of being Black may contribute to additional pressures in the work place and may very well contribute to diminished job satisfaction.

As indicated by the previous research efforts presented above, job satisfaction is an important factor in terms of occupational mobility for Black personnel. Another important variable is affirmative action. The following studies pertain to affirmative action as related to occupational mobility for Blacks.

Affirmative Action Research

Shivers (1985) conducted a study of Black females employed in the top three levels of community college administration in California. The primary intent of the study was to report the observations of Black women currently employed in these positions regarding race and sex discrimination as they had experienced it and the influence of affirmative action on career advancement. A questionnaire was developed and mailed to 79 Black women administrators in California Community Colleges. The findings of this study were that: (1) Black women administrators were motivated toward the top level of administration; and (2) many were hired or promoted as a result of affirmative action and felt that affirmative action would influence their further career advancement.

Riley (1984) conducted a study which assessed the effects of Title VII and Affirmative Action on the employment status of women. Title VII is also commonly known as the Civil Rights Act of 1964. The act prohibits discrimination in employment decisions based on race, color, sex, religion or national origin. To investigate the enforcement effects of the anti-discrimination legislation, the determinants of the probability that women would be employed in a traditionally male occupation were studied in 1981 and 1982. The samples used in this study were stratified into four subsamples on the basis of age and race to control for the factors of race discrimination and pre-employment training. Enforcement of the legislation was estimated on an industry-wide basis. Relevant data was obtained from the Bureau of Labor Statistics for manufacturing firms in the State of New

York. The data covered the period of 1981 and 1982. It was also hypothesized that as enforcement increased within industries, employers would be more likely to hire women in traditionally male occupations. This may have been a function of stricter enforcement of regulations. As a result, an increased number of women were hired in 1982.

Probit analysis was used to estimate the effects of changes in enforcement on the probability that women would be hired for a traditionally male occupation. There was a statistically significant increase in the number of women employed in male occupations between the two years of the study. Probit analysis is a statistical technique used to estimate the probability of a recorded reaction occurring. This reaction is to the application of a specific stimulus or action to a given situation. In this study, the recorded reaction is the change in the number of women employed in male occupations. The stimulus or action is the stricter enforcement effort. The results indicated that enforcement activity has had an effect across industry groups.

In reference to affirmative action and its relationship to occupational mobility, Hall (1987) suggested that all organizations should view affirmative action as a means of combating discrimination against minorities and women and as an important organizational outcome. Organizations reflect the divisions in society and reinforce them. Affirmative action policies are organizational policies; if such policies work, then the categories of individuals that have suffered discrimination may be able to experience the same mobility patterns as the dominant White male.

As indicated by the findings represented in the aforementioned studies

affirmative action plays a positive role in relationship to occupational mobility for Black personnel. The next series of studies addresses the issue of discrimination in employment.

Discrimination In Employment Research

Lewis (1986) conducted a study of federal employees which sought to determine whether women and minorities were less likely to be supervisors or managers than are White males, even when they are at the same grade level and have the same educational level, major field of study in college, length of federal experience, and age. A one-percent random sample of 1982 data from the Central Personnel Data File (CPDF) for General Schedule, Merit Pay, and Senior Executive Service Employees was drawn. This sample included employees who were classified as "managers", "supervisors" or "others". With respect to Black employees, the study revealed that only 7% of Black females and 10% of Black males were listed as supervisors compared to 20% of White males. These figures suggest a White male advantage over Black males and females.

The study also indicated that there may be factors other than discrimination that may relate to the reasons why there were so few minorities and women in the managerial/supervisory ranks. These factors include: opportunities that were passed up and their agencies' policies and hiring practices which influences mobility for Blacks through the personnel selection process.

In relationship to this study, Lewis states that:

"Affirmative action helps raise more women and minorities into upper level positions, but other forces may keep them out of the more powerful positions at those levels. Managers may hesitate to appoint female or minority supervisors because they fear resistance from subordinates. Women and minorities may thus face even more obstacles in obtaining authority over fellow employees than they do in achieving high salaries in federal employment." (p. 25).

Lewis concluded that the pattern is discouraging due to the fact that White males still dominate the managerial and supervisory classifications. Differences in age, grade levels, experience and education cannot explain this fact.

Taylor and Tuch (1986) conducted a study which surveyed the opinions of American Whites on issues of prejudice toward Blacks and continuing patterns of racial inequality. Taylor states that "a primary theme in contemporary race relations analyses is the notion that racial inequalities in this country have become less dependent on the prejudices of individual Whites and more a consequence of (normal) institutional arrangements that serve to disadvantage Blacks". (p.268).

A national random sample of 372 White adults was contacted by telephone interviews. The sampling plan called for random digit dialing within exchanges. Thus phone numbers within the sample were stratified by exchange and within exchange clustered by the first two of the remaining

four digits. Calling was done during the morning and evening hours. Non-whites were screened out on the basis of answers to a racial self-identification question. The response rate was 90%. Each respondent was asked a series of questions pertaining to their beliefs about the existence of institutional constraints on racial equality and attitudes toward change in these institutional practices. Relevant to this study was the issue of seniority. Respondents were asked the following questions pertinent to employment and seniority:

1. Because of job discrimination in earlier years, many Blacks are new on the job today. Last hired, first fired seniority systems are a disadvantage to these new Black employees.
Would you say this statement is true or false?
2. Some people think that seniority practices should continue as they are, even if this means that Blacks and Whites do not have the same chance of being kept on and promoted. Do you strongly agree with this opinion, do you agree, do you disagree, or do you strongly disagree?

The results of this study indicated that 53.9% of the respondents opposed any change in seniority practices. The strength of this attitude toward change in seniority systems may reflect an opposition to affirmative action which may assist Blacks in becoming occupationally mobile.

Dreier (1985) conducted a study which sought to identify factors in a local educational agency that support or hinder women in their desire for career mobility. Concomitantly, the male and female teachers were surveyed to solicit their perceptions of and attitudes toward gender discrimination.

A random sample of 498 public school teachers and administrators from districts located through the State of Pennsylvania were selected to take part in this study. Questionnaires, interviews, and document analysis were utilized to collect the data, which were then recorded and manipulated by means of an SPSS program. The Chi-Square Test of Independence was utilized to test each hypothesis.

The results revealed that: (1) Women line administrative positions were almost non-existent. Though over 100 vacancies were filled since 1972, only one woman had been elevated to principal. (2) No effort had been made to recruit female or minority administrators outside of the district. (3) No written hiring and promotional policies and practices in easily accessible forms (i.e., booklets, manuals) existed in this particular school district. Additionally, the study revealed that politics played an important role in the selection process when men were selected over women for administrative positions. This implies that pressure is exerted upon the administrator who is responsible for making the personnel selection to choose a male candidate over a female candidate.

Hines (1985) implemented a study which attempted to identify professional and personal factors which were perceived by female educators in three counties in Delaware to have an impact on females securing administrative posts in public education. A questionnaire was mailed out to 654 female educators in Delaware Public Schools and the State Department of Public Instruction. Responses from 278 educators were used in the analysis. The Chi-Square test was used to analyze the data. The primary finding of this study was that sex-typing of occupations, inadequate

recruitment programs and discriminator selection and hiring practices existed in the three counties.

The Drier (1985) and Hines (1985) studies illustrate a situation which may occur in smaller municipal recreation and park agencies. Generally, in larger municipalities, hiring practices are monitored closely by the appointing department, the Personnel Department and local collective bargaining units, thus decreasing the potential for discriminatory hiring practices. There may be a small number of qualified Blacks in the work force of smaller units of government, but because of politics and the lack of an affirmative action program, qualified Blacks may not be selected.

In some instances, smaller municipal agencies often view it as impractical to search outside to broaden the pool of applicants, which would increase the probability of a Black candidate getting into the pool. In smaller agencies, the personnel selection practices may not be scrutinized as closely due to the size of the community. This may be true especially if Blacks comprise a small portion of the population and workforce and if the responsibility of monitoring compliance with regulations is not the sole charge of one individual or department. In addition to the possible impracticality of searching outside of the system to get qualified applicants, in some cases this process may be cost prohibitive. Reasons such as these provide a rationale for Black and female administrators being virtually non-existent in smaller municipal recreation and park agencies.

Silbert (1985) examined the perceptions and experiences of five Black attorneys in a major metropolitan city as they attempted to rise to the top of the legal profession. Each attempted to become a partner in a major law

firm. The study was conducted over a 15 month period and consisted of a series of in-depth interviews with the five Black partners. The results indicated that racial social structures exist as an ongoing normal process within society. The daily reality of the Black respondents was infused with the effects of being Black in a racially discriminatory society: the continual burden of having to overcome socially imposed assumptions of inferiority, the struggle with isolation and cultural identity, and the constant reality of a dual opportunity structure limiting access into upper level positions within the system.

The findings of this study supported the theoretical position that racial discrimination continues as an important variable influencing Black mobility into upper level positions within society. Even though this effort was the first study to provide a qualitative analysis of the process of Black mobility into top level positions of success within a professional hierarchy, the methods were not elaborated upon in detail. Also, the study did not expound upon ways in which the subjects were discriminated against which should be of primary interest. If barriers of discrimination are constantly placed in the career path of a Black employee, the probability of frustration and lack of job satisfaction may be great.

Cox (1985) conducted a study which explored the relationship between Black identification, organizational communication supportiveness, and messages about race. In the context of this study "messages" about race refers to perceptions about race which are communicated verbally or nonverbally. Data for the study were collected from 471 Black and White employees from three Midwestern universities. In addition, interviews were

scheduled with 42 Black employees which produced qualitative data that yielded information about Black identification, and messages about race. The messages about race pertained to stereotypes relating to Blacks in the work environment. Examples include: (1) Blacks are generally lazy and (2) Blacks cannot be trusted with responsibility. These messages are passed among the White employees of the organization.

The results indicated that race may affect an employee's perception of organizational identification and messages about race influenced White employees more than Black employees. Interviewee comments were used in this study to define specific types of messages about race. This study serves to illustrate the point that messages about race may be associated with prejudicial or discriminatory acts which include discrimination in respect to the personnel selection process.

Verdugo (1985) instituted a research effort which scrutinized the earning differences between Black, White and Hispanic, males and females. The purpose was to estimate the effects of over-education, under-education, and discrimination on earnings suggesting inequalities. A stratified random sample of data from the 1980 Census Micro-Data were selected. Black civilian wage and salary workers between the ages of 25 and 64 who worked at least 1,365 hours in 1979. This resulted in a sample of over 51,000 persons.

The principle finding of this study suggested earnings of minorities and females may have been reduced because of discrimination, specifically in terms of pay. Black males earned an average of \$2,025 less than White males and Black females earned an average of \$6,560 less than White males.

The author concluded that if minorities and women received the same returns on education, occupation and experience as those received by White males, a large portion of the male-female, minority-majority earnings gap would be closed. The author also notes that in spite of equalizing returns on education, occupation and experience and closing the earnings gap between non-minorities and minorities, a tremendous amount of discrimination in employment would still exist.

Salmon (1979) implemented a research effort which explored and analyzed the career and career satisfaction of Black executives. The sample of 75 Black executives was drawn from 32 companies, which were White owned and controlled and located in the metropolitan Chicago area. Each respondent was asked to complete a questionnaire which contained questions pertaining to their career, job satisfaction and discrimination. One of the major findings of this study was that among Black executives there was a strong correlation ($r=.54$) between the perception of being treated by "perculiaristic standards" based on race and job dissatisfaction. The term "perculiaristic standards" is defined as behaviors or practices conducted within the work environment that are not applicable to all employees. This study illustrates the fact that treatment which may be construed as discriminatory in nature may have an adverse impact on job satisfaction.

Shaffer (1978) conducted an investigation into the job mobility paths exhibited by mature male workers over the course of their working careers. The hypothesis tested was that there are barriers to mobility in the labor market in the sense that certain workers become trapped in undesirable job paths. Predictions were made about the relative magnitudes of inter-sector

mobility rates. Job sectors are defined as groups of jobs within a given classification. Examples include "blue-collar"/farm laborer or "white collar"/manager. Actual mobility rates among the sectors, from first job held to career peak job, were then generated using individual observations from a sample of mature (over 55 years of age) male workers. The mobility tables were then disaggregated by race and level of education. It was found that barriers to mobility do exist, especially for Black men. Shaffer concluded that the empirical evidence was consistent with the hypothesis that racial discrimination of one form or another affects the job mobility paths of Black males.

Conclusions

In summary, the findings of the previous research indicate that the variables of race, gender, and education, and experience have a significant impact on both income and occupational mobility for Black personnel. The studies conducted by Dunn (1970, 1977) and Kerr (1973) illustrate the circumstance that occupational mobility for Blacks closely parallels mobility for women. All of the aforementioned variables have a great impact on occupational mobility for both groups.

Consistently throughout the aforementioned studies (Verdugo 1985, Goodman 1977), White males are more occupationally mobile and have higher earnings over time than their Black male counterparts. Additionally, research (Shivers 1985, Riley 1984, Hall 1987) has indicated that affirmative action increases the likelihood that Blacks will become more occupationally mobile. The personnel selection procedures and policies of

agencies and politics both impact occupational mobility for Blacks. Again, this may be an indicator that the race and gender of the appointing authority may be the critical factors which perpetuates discriminatory personnel procedures, which in turn contribute to the lack of mobility for Blacks within the workforce (Hale 1985, Hines 1985, Shaffer 1978).

All of the previously mentioned factors impact in a very direct manner the degree of satisfaction that the Black employee derives from his or her job. In summation, the aforementioned factors have been shown to have an impact on occupational mobility and it is suggested that the results of this present study should be consistent with the findings of other researchers.

Summary of Occupational Mobility Research Designs

The majority of occupational mobility studies implemented have been based upon data obtained through five national surveys on males between the ages of 25 to 64 years of age (Jencks, 1979, p.4-5). These are as follows:

1. The 1962 Occupational Changes in a Generation Scale (O.C.G.) sample collected by the U.S. Current Population Survey (C.P.S.). This sample was analyzed by Blau and Duncan (1967); Duncan and Featherman and Duncan (1967); and Featherman and Hauser (1976a, 1976b, 1978).
2. The 1965 Productive Americans (PA) Sample collected by the University of Michigan Survey Research Center (S.R.C.).

3. The 1970 Census of Population's 1/1,000 Public Use Sample.
4. The 1971-72 Wave of the Panel Study of Income Dynamics (P.S.I.D.), collected by S.R.C.
5. The 1973 Replication of O.C.G. by David Featherman and Robert Hauser (1976a, 1976b, 1978).

The major shortcoming of all of the aforementioned studies is that none of them collected data pertaining to women. This is a very critical factor in that gender has been identified as a key variable in reference to occupational mobility for women (Kerr, 1973; Dunn, 1977; and McDonald, 1981).

To date, the only study that directly pertains to examining occupational mobility within the recreation and park field is the work of McDonald (1981). McDonald's work has drawn upon the research of Blau and Duncan (1967) and Jencks (1979).

The variables most frequently measured in occupational mobility research included the following: race, region of upbringing, father's education, father's occupation, number of siblings, father absent at 16, adolescent personality, adolescent test score, early adult test score, adult test score, years of education, degrees, occupation, earnings, weeks worked, brother's education, brother's occupation, brother's earnings, geographic mobility, number of parents in the household, and the head of household's education.

The methods of analyzing the data obtained from these research efforts included: simple linear and multiple regression techniques, analysis of covariance and Chi-square analysis. The procedures utilized required

controls for reliability in measurement and sampling error. Controls that were commonly utilized included using actual years of schooling completed as a measure of education attained and inserting various family background traits such as income and education level of the head of household or sibling into regression equations.

All of the studies mentioned previously focus on such factors as family background, cognitive and academic abilities of the respondent, and race as causal factors which influence occupational mobility. This research effort examined the variables of gender, attained level of education, number of years of work experience, presence of an affirmative action plan, race of the appointing authority and perceived job satisfaction.

The present study provides a novel perspective on the process of mobility from the standpoint that it focuses on those that are currently employed in municipal recreation and park agencies. Greater emphasis was placed on factors which were pertinent to the process of occupational mobility within a municipal employment system. This approach differs from the methods of researchers such as Blau and Duncan (1967); Jencks (1979) and McDonald (1981) who all placed emphasis on variables such as family background and geographic distance when examining occupational mobility.

Chapter 3

THEORETICAL MODELS AND HYPOTHESES

This chapter examines various theories, models and studies which served as the foundation for developing a model of occupational mobility for Black recreation and park personnel in Michigan. Additionally, the hypotheses which were tested in this study are developed in this chapter.

There are several management and sociologically based theories that are pertinent to the study of occupational mobility. The theories most pertinent to this study include the expectancy theory, the equity theory, the discrepancy theory and Herzberg's "Two-Factor" theory of motivation. The theoretical underpinnings of prejudice and discrimination were also of paramount importance to this research effort. All of these theories provide a unique perspective through which to view factors assumed to be associated with occupational mobility among Blacks within the recreation and park profession.

Management Theories

Expectancy Theory

The first management theory applicable to this study, expectancy theory, holds that work motivation is determined by individual beliefs regarding effort-performance relationships and the desirability of various work outcomes associated with different performance levels (Georgeopolous, Mahoney and Jones, 1957). Simply put, the theory is based on the notion that people will do what they can do, when they want to do it. Expectancy theory proposes that a person will choose a behavior alternative that is

likely to have favorable consequences. This theory also postulates a deliberate and rational choice process. There are four assumptions about the causes of behavior in organizations that serve as the basis of this theory. These four assumptions are as follows:

1. It is assumed that a combination of interacting forces in the individual and the environment alone determines behavior. Neither the individual nor the environment alone determine behavior.
2. It is assumed that people make decisions about their own behaviors in organizations. Many constraints are placed on people's behaviors such as rules, regulations, technology. For the most part, people generally make two kinds of conscious decisions: (a) decisions about coming to work and staying with or leaving an organization (membership decisions); and (b) decisions about the quantity and quality of work (job-performance decisions).
3. It is assumed that different people have different types of needs and goals. People generally want different types of outcomes from their work such as job security, a better salary or a promotion.
4. It is assumed that people decide among alternatives based on their perceptions of the degree to which a given behavior will lead to a desired outcome. There is a tendency for people to do the things that they perceive as leading to rewards they desire and avoid engaging in behaviors that they perceive as leading to outcomes they do not desire.

(Hellriegel, Slocum and Woodman, 1986, pp. 188-189)

In general, the expectancy theory views people as having their own needs and ideas of what they desire from their work (rewards). They act on these needs and ideas when making decisions about what company to join and how hard to work on the job. It holds true that people are not inherently motivated or unmotivated; motivation depends on the situation facing people and how it fits their needs.

The expectancy theory has four important operational variables. The first variable is "First and Second Level Outcomes". The first level outcomes are largely the result of behaviors that are associated with doing the job itself. They include productivity, absenteeism and the quality of work. Second-level outcomes are those events (positive or negative) that are likely to produce results, such as a pay increase or promotion.

The second variable "expectancy" is the belief that a particular level of effort will be followed by a particular level of performance. It can vary from the belief that there is absolutely no relationship between effort and performance to the certainty that a given level of effort will result in a corresponding level of performance.

The third variable "valence" can be defined as an individual's preference for a second-level outcome. An outcome is positive when it is preferred and negative when it is avoided. An outcome has a valence of "0" when indifference is present. For example, a person may attach a high positive valence to the outcome of being promoted. Because of this, the individual is motivated to work hard and perform effectively in order to obtain the promotion. If the person is successful and eventually promoted, he or she may find that the actual experienced value of the promotion is much

lower than was anticipated. Regardless, it is the valence (i.e., the anticipated value) of the promotion that motivated the person to work hard in order to obtain the promotion.

The fourth variable "instrumentality" defines the relationship between the first and second-level outcomes. It can have values ranging from -1 to +1. A value of (-1) indicates that attainment of the second-level outcome is inversely related to the achievement of a first-level outcome. A value of (+1) indicates that the first-level outcome is positively related to the second-level outcome.

This theory is important to the present study due to the fact that Black employees may exhibit excellent job performance, strive to continue professional education and remain in the service of the recreation and park agency with the expectation that this will lead to an opportunity to become occupationally mobile within or outside the agency. When expected outcomes are not achieved, this may lead to decreased job satisfaction.

The studies conducted by Jones (1980) and Hale (1985) have direct application to expectancy theory. One of the key findings in the study by Jones was that Black MBA managers expected to earn salaries equivalent to their White counterparts over time. In spite of equivalent education and experience (MBA degree and entering labor force between 1969-74), Blacks exercised less job authority and lagged significantly behind in earnings compared to their White colleagues. The findings of Jones (1980) illustrate the "first and second level outcomes" and "instrumentality" components of expectancy theory.

Research conducted by Hale (1985) found that Black managers who took part in the study developed and refined their professional abilities to

acquire, maintain and advance their professional status. A key implication of this finding is that in spite of efforts to obtain appropriate levels of education and related work experience, barriers such as discriminatory selection practices may be a barrier to upward mobility. As in Jones study (1980), the components of "first and second level outcomes", "expectancy" and "instrumentality", are directly applicable to the findings.

In both the Jones (1980) and Hale (1985) studies, members of the samples may have attained the necessary education and experience requirements to obtain their current positions. They may have worked hard and performed well in their jobs (first and second level outcomes), with the expectation that these factors would lead to pay increases and promotions. They may have believed that the outcome (pay increases and promotions) would be valued highly and would lead to satisfaction (valence). In spite of their performance and expectations (instrumentality), the outcome in both cases was negative. Because of the lags in salaries, job authority (Jones, 1980) and opportunities for advancement (Hale, 1985), job dissatisfaction may have occurred among the members of both samples.

Equity Theory

A second management theory that is applicable to this study is the "equity theory" (Adams, 1963). The equity theory focuses on an individual's feelings of how fairly he or she is treated in comparison to others. The theory has two key elements. First, it assumes that individuals evaluate their social relationships. The theory views social relationships as exchange processes in which individuals make contributions and expect certain results. Second, each person compares their situation with

that of others to determine the equity of their own situation. The extent to which people view an exchange favorably is influenced by what happens to them compared with what happens to others.

Equity theory is based on the relationship of two variables: inputs and outputs. Inputs represents what an individual contributes to an exchange; outcomes are what an individual receives from the exchange. Individuals assign weights to various inputs and outputs according to their perceived performance. After they arrive at a ratio of inputs and outcomes for themselves, they compare it with their perceived ratios of inputs and outcomes of others in the same or similar situation. Thus, others become the objects of comparison for people in determining whether they feel equitably treated. Equity exists whenever the ratio of a person's outcomes to inputs equals the ratio of incomes to inputs for others. Inequity exists when the ratios of outcomes to inputs are not equal (Hellriegel, Slocum, Woodman, 1986).

Inequity can lead to tension in the employee and other individuals within the organization. There are several methods for reducing this tension. The rationale for the use of this theory in this study, is that one of the options for reducing tension precipitated through inequity, is for the Black employee to make attempts to become occupationally mobile within the agency or outside of the agency. This is done to achieve a more favorable balance in a new work environment. Additionally, feelings of inequity may lead to increased feelings of discrimination, especially in the areas of wage compensation and career advancement.

The study conducted by Perry (1985) illustrates equity theory in

practice. One of the key findings in this research effort was that substantial differences existed between Blacks and Whites as related to compensation (salaries) and occupational status. Equity theory indicates that when an employee compares his/her inputs and outputs with those of their peers and if ratios are comparable and there is not an equivalent reward, then inequity exists. Perry concluded that these differences affected job satisfaction.

Discrepancy Theory

A third management theory that is applicable to this study is the discrepancy theory (Locke, 1969). This theory is based on the premise that satisfaction or dissatisfaction with some aspect of the job depends on the discrepancy between what a person perceives he/she is getting and what is desired. The desired amount of a job characteristic is defined as the minimum amount necessary to fulfill the person's current needs. A person will be satisfied if there is no discrepancy between desired and actual considerations. A person will be dissatisfied if there is less than the desired amount necessary to fulfill the person's current needs.

The greater the deficiency and the more important the object desired, the greater will be the dissatisfaction. If there is more than the minimally acceptable amount of some job factor and the excess is beneficial, a person will be even more satisfied than when there is no discrepancy between the desired and actual amount. However, if the excess is perceived to be detrimental, the person will be just as dissatisfied as when there is less than the desired amount (Wexley and Yuki, 1984).

In relationship to the study of occupational mobility discrepancy theory is useful. Black employees may engage in preparing themselves educationally and professionally for promotional opportunities if and when they arise. The desired outcome may be getting a promotion, but factors such as discrimination may impact the actual outcome (the employee not receiving the promotion). This in turn leads to dissatisfaction, decreased identification with the organization and exploring opportunities outside of the agency and/or profession for career advancement.

Herzberg's "Two-Factor" Model

Another management theory model that is important to this study is Herzberg's "Two-Factor" model of work motivation (Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman, 1959). According to Herzberg et al, characteristics of jobs fall into two separate and distinct categories, labeled motivators and hygiene factors. Motivators include factors that are inherent to the job, such as achievement, recognition, responsibility, advancement, and personal growth and development. Hygiene factors, on the other hand, refer to things such as company policies, supervision, working conditions, salary, interpersonal relationships, status, and security. Herzberg believed that satisfaction and dissatisfaction with work are not opposite ends of a single continuum, but are separate independent continua. Further, he argues that a person's satisfaction and motivation are solely determined by the extent to which the job contains motivators. Dissatisfaction, on the other hand, is caused by a lack of hygiene factors. Thus, hygiene factors must be present in a job in order to prevent dissatisfaction, but hygiene factors cannot generate positive motivation and satisfaction. That can

only be done by introducing motivators into the job. If individuals are to be motivated to perform effectively, their jobs must be high on motivators.

This theory provides a rationale for employees wanting to become upwardly mobile within the recreation and park profession. It identifies those factors which are principle in an employee's decision to stay in a position which may not meet their respective needs or to seek an employment environment that is more satisfying. If opportunities for advancement are blocked, this may lead to feelings of discriminatory practices being instituted, thus the employee will opt to seek employment outside of the organization and possibly pursue legal action.

Summary of Management Theories

All of the previously mentioned management theories play a role in explaining and predicting behavior related to occupational mobility. The expectancy theory explains motivation in terms of the expectations that people have about their ability to perform effectively on the job and about the kinds of rewards they expect to obtain if they do perform effectively. According to this theory, effort, performance and outcomes are the key factors that influence an employee's motivation to perform effectively.

The equity theory of motivation examines the issue of how fairly or equitably employees feel they are being treated in comparison to their peers by the organization. The comparison is made in terms of their ratios of inputs to outcomes. Inputs are defined as contributions made to the organization and outcomes are the rewards received from the organization. When the inputs are greater than the outcomes, then inequity occurs. The

consequences of inequity that are most pertinent to the study of occupational mobility are twofold. First, job dissatisfaction may occur, thus changing both job related inputs and outcomes. Secondly, one of the methods for reducing feelings of inequity and dissatisfaction is to leave the organization. Thus, the employee makes attempts to seek employment in other areas within the organization or outside of the organization (Arnold and Feldman, 1986).

The discrepancy theory of job satisfaction addresses the issue of what an employee feels he or she is getting versus what is desired in relationship to satisfaction or dissatisfaction with some aspect of their job. Generally, the greater the deficiency and the more the element is desired, the greater the dissatisfaction. If a promotion is the desired object and if it is not obtained, this may lead to dissatisfaction and attempts to leave the organization.

Lastly, Herzberg's two factor theory of job attitudes groups job characteristics into two categories, hygiene factors or dissatisfiers and motivators or satisfiers. Hygiene factors include pay, job security and status, while motivation factors include recognition, achievement and opportunities for advancement. If there is an insufficient amount of either of these factors, then job satisfaction will be jeopardized. If job dissatisfaction occurs, then the remedy of leaving the organization may be implemented by the employee.

Importance of Management Theories

The management theories that were previously discussed are important to this research effort for two key reasons. First, each of the theories provides insight into factors that influence job satisfaction. A person's attitude toward his or her job reflects pleasant and unpleasant experiences in the job and expectations about future experiences. Factors such as tangible returns on education and experience and perceptions of discrimination may have an impact on job satisfaction. Secondly, the expectations about future experiences may potentially impact an employee's desire to become occupationally mobile. In this study, it is assumed that job satisfaction will drive mobility. With this in mind, it is important to understand those factors that contribute to the level of perceived job satisfaction experienced by the employee.

Additionally, the models of occupational mobility which were examined to build a model for this study appear to be grounded in management theory. Both the "Organizational Boundaries and Upward-Shifts Model" (Sandefur, 1981) and the "Women's Occupational Attainment Model" (Robinson, 1986) appear to have been grounded in both expectancy theory and Herzberg's "Two-Factor" theory. The management theories and theoretical models of occupational mobility reviewed for this study were instrumental in developing the theoretical foundation and model of occupational mobility for this study.

Prejudice/Discrimination

Prejudice and discrimination occur in many situations. Prejudice becomes a problem when the preformed judgment remains unchanged even after

the facts become evident. The social problem of prejudice is not so much the prejudgment, (which in many cases is necessary for social interaction) but rather, it is the failure to discard that prejudgment in light of additional evidence. In common usage, prejudice generally refers to the narrow, biased and inflexible thinking rather than to all forms of prejudgment.

Prejudice against ethnic and racial minorities is always a learned behavior. An entire system of prejudice may be built into a culture. Research by Marger (1985) suggests that certain groups of people are more likely to be prejudiced against minority groups than others. These groups include those that are closest to the dominant group in physical appearance and culture. Because working class Whites compete with Blacks for jobs, they are usually more prejudiced against Blacks than are Whites of higher social standing.

Prejudice and discrimination are often regarded as inseparable and a natural pairing. It is important to note that prejudice refers to an attitude and discrimination refers to the manifestation of the prejudicial attitude into unfair or unequal treatment of individuals or groups. Prejudice and discrimination may or may not occur together, but the two typically reinforce one another. Many forms of discrimination stem from prejudicial attitudes and continuing discrimination can create prejudice (Popenoe, 1983).

The more serious forms of discrimination with much greater injury to minorities involve the denial of access to various opportunities in life such as employment opportunities, housing, education, justice, and political participation. Minority groups are placed in disadvantageous positions

with regard to these societal rewards and end up receiving less than they would if no barriers existed.

One of the basic problems gathering data concerning discrimination in employment is that different researchers employ different concepts of discrimination. Their definitions are rarely explicit, but become discernible only through careful examination of their writings and analyses. The various definitions are important because they have counterparts in the approaches to discrimination by governmental officials, employers, and the general public. The primary view of discrimination that is most relevant to this research effort is the perspective focusing upon the impact that various social institutions and processes have upon groups and individuals in terms of employment.

This view is derived from the "power-conflict" theories of prejudice and discrimination (Bernard, 1951). Simply stated, these theories view prejudice and discrimination as emerging from historical instances of intergroup conflict. In this view, discrimination serves as a means of injuring or neutralizing out-groups that the dominant group perceives as threatening to their position of power and privilege. When prejudice and discrimination are combined, they function to protect and enhance dominant group interests. And, once established, prejudice and discrimination are used as power resources that can be tapped as new conflict situations demand.

Studies by Cox (1985) where Whites were more influenced by perceptions of race in the work environment than Blacks and Salmon (1979) where Black

executives in Chicago experienced treatment which they perceived to be unequal and not of the norm for all employees, epitomize how prejudicial attitudes and perceived discriminatory acts impact the work place. The findings in both studies are illustrative of the "power-conflict" theories of prejudice and discrimination.

Economic Gain Theory

The principle "power-conflict" theory that is most germane to this research effort is the theory of "economic gain" (W.M. Newman, 1973). This theory emphasizes the economic benefits that derive from prejudice and discrimination. In a rudimentary sense, prejudice and discrimination yield profits for those who engage in them (Marger, 1985). Employment is directly related to economic gain and therefore has been a primary target for discriminatory practices. The studies by Jones (1980) and Verdugo (1985) address the economic outcomes of discrimination. Both studies found that Blacks earned less than Whites in reference to returns on education. Additionally, Jones (1980) found that the disparity in salaries between Black and White MBA managers increased over time.

Prejudice and discrimination against Blacks and other minorities in the United States continues to benefit at least some segments of the White population. The strong resistance to affirmative action during the past two decades can be interpreted as the negative reaction of Whites who see their economic gains threatened by Blacks and other minorities seeking upward social and occupational mobility (Marger, 1985). Taylor and Tuch (1986) found evidence in their study which supports the point made by

Marger (1985). In their survey of White Americans on issues of prejudice toward Blacks, they found that 53.9% of those responding opposed any change in seniority practices. They concluded that the strength of this attitude toward change may reflect a strong opposition to affirmative action.

Increasingly, Blacks and other minority groups have argued that equal applications of certain rules and procedures may produce differential results which are discriminatory. If hiring qualifications are unnecessarily stringent for particular jobs, and the result is to exclude a greater proportion of minority group members, this can be considered discrimination. Additionally, if employers place advertisements in newspapers read predominantly by the majority and seldom by the minority, that can be considered discriminatory, too.

Informal patterns of discrimination, some which may be extremely subtle occur frequently in daily life. The classic example is the anti-Black employer who turns down all Black applicants for a job, with claims that they are unqualified. In relationship to occupational mobility for Blacks, it may be the case of the appointing authority who denies a promotion for a qualified Black employee due to prejudicial attitudes which may have been formed over time.

Theoretical Models of Occupational Mobility

In the areas of status attainment and occupational mobility research, unquestionably Blau and Duncan are the pioneers. Their early research effort entitled "The American Occupational Structure" (1967) served as the focal point and knowledge base for later research efforts by Hauser and Featherman (1977), Jencks (1979), McDonald (1981), Sandefur (1981) and

Robinson (1986). Each of these efforts provided more insight into the process of occupational mobility and status attainment.

The research of Blau and Duncan (1967) and Jencks (1979) examined occupational mobility in respect to economic success. The effects of family background, academic ability, non-cognitive traits, education and race were examined closely in their work. Undoubtedly, the effects of achieved and ascribed variables have been proven to be important in relationship to occupational mobility and economic success. One of the major drawbacks of these prior studies is that there was no examination of factors which may aid or hamper mobility once an employee is working within an organization.

The work of McDonald (1981) focused on occupational mobility for Blacks working in the recreation and park profession. Sandefur (1981) who examined occupational mobility and status attainment from an "Organizational Boundaries and Upward Job Shifts" perspective. And lastly, Robinson (1986) developed a model of occupational attainment for women. Each of these models are directly related to the development of a model to be used for the purposes of this study.

The "Organizational Boundaries and Upward Shifts" model and the "Women's Occupational Attainment" model developed by Sandefur (1981) and Robinson (1986) respectively, are summarized below. Most importantly, these models focus on the impact of gender, education, years or work experience, the organizational personnel selection process and reward systems which may impact job satisfaction.

Organizational Boundaries and Upward-Shifts Model

In the analysis of this model, the important variables are job rewards

(wage and prestige), individual resources (any personal attributes that may be evaluated by an employer), age, and duration of job (years of experience). Each variable is predicted to be an important determinant of job change.

If rewards are used as a means of differentiating job shifts, three types can be identified. An upward shift featuring a move from one job to another with a higher level of rewards; secondly, a lateral shift with an individual moving from one job to another with equivalent rewards; and thirdly, a downward shift with the individual moving to a lower level position with a lower level of rewards. Changes in occupational prestige can only occur through a job shift.

Organizational boundaries do have implications for the effects of individual resources on upward mobility. The underlying assumption of these effects is that individuals are evaluated on the basis of their value or potential value to the organization. In addition, evaluations, promotions and hirings are mechanisms through which bureaucratic control is exerted. Bureaucratic control is defined as the formalized and institutionalized management of labor with the ultimate goal of maximizing profits.

Organizational boundaries creates a situation in which employees within an organization are considered first, before bringing in outsiders. This factor can be contributed to the fact that the job controllers will have an existing knowledge of the background and the individual's career history within the organization. The individual will have resources which are employer or organization-specific since it is to the advantage of the

employers to provide this type of training. Such resources have an important effect on organizational boundaries. Specifically, the higher the level of organization-specific resources, the more likely an upward shift within the boundaries of the organization.

In this model, education is treated as a general resource. Organizations use education as an indicator of general work related abilities. Education can be expected to affect both interorganizational and intraorganizational shifts positively.

With respect to age, this model indicates that age has a negative effect on job mobility. Research (Tuma, 1976) has indicated that organizations are less likely to promote individuals after they reach a certain age, and age also impedes interorganizational mobility.

Duration or job tenure serves as a measure of job-specific resources (Tuma, 1976). The match between the individual and job becomes more attractive to everyone concerned as the length of the match grows. This model suggests that duration will have an impact on intraorganizational shifts and a considerably greater impact on interorganizational shifts.

In summation, the key elements of the model presented by Sandefur indicate that job rewards (wages, prestige, or status which impact job satisfaction), individual resources (education, training and experience) and duration (years of experience or tenure) will impact a mobility shift positively. Age, on the contrary, may impact mobility in a negative manner.

Women's Occupational Attainment Model

The following model is in the status attainment tradition of Blau and

Duncan (1967). Key variables are education, first-job status, and current occupational attainment. This model includes variables which include the percentage of workers in the occupation who are women and the regional unemployment rate for women.

This model implies that demographic variables affecting current occupational attainment include age and marital status. Marital status is utilized to recognize the limitations of accepting opportunities for advancement due to marital constraints and that women may be absent from the workforce for a period of time for the purpose of bearing and raising children. The model also indicates that women with more years of experience can be expected to have a higher level of occupational attainment.

In reference to gender differences in terms of occupational attainment, the model implies that the difference can be attributed to occupational segregation. If at the aggregate level, occupations with a higher percentage female are those with fewer opportunities, then for an individual woman as the percentage female increases, status gains will be reduced (Robinson, 1986).

In summation, the key points of this model indicate that education and years of experience will positively affect occupational attainment. Age, marital status and gender may negatively impact occupational mobility. The "Women's Occupational Attainment Model" was used as a secondary source for building the study model.

Study Model

For the expressed purposes of this research effort, the "Occupational Boundaries and Upward Shifts" model developed by Sandefur (1981) and the

"Women's Occupational Attainment Model" (Robinson, 1986) were utilized to construct the model for the present study.

The variables contained within this model developed by Sandefur (1981) include the following: education, job rewards (wages, prestige or status; which impact job satisfaction); duration (years of experience or tenure) which will impact mobility positively; and age, which will have a negative impact on mobility. The model developed by Robinson (1986) contains the variable of gender. The aforementioned models suggested the variables that were selected for this research effort. Additionally the predictions about the variables contained within this model will assist in the development of hypotheses to be tested as a part of the proposed study.

These models do not address the impact of variables such as the presence of an affirmative action plan or the race of the appointing authority on occupational mobility. In spite of these factors, there is still sufficient research to make predictions about the aforementioned variables and their relationship to occupational mobility.

Based on the manner in which key variables were predicted to impact mobility in the models developed by Sandefur (1981) and Robinson (1986); and the manner in which the variables are treated in the literature, the following predictions are relevant to the variables selected for this study:

Positive Impact On Mobility

Variable

- Education
- Experience
- Affirmative Action Plan
- Job Satisfaction

Negative Impact On Mobility

Variable

- Gender (Female)
- Race of the Appointing Authority (Non-Black)

Figure 1 provides a graphic representation of the model of occupational mobility developed for the present study. In this model, the employee goes to work for an agency and brings with him or her an attained level of education and related work experience. Over time (tenure/duration), a level of job satisfaction is developed. To meet the organizational needs of the agency the employee is working for, as job opportunities arise, vacant positions must be filled. The organization begins an internal recruitment giving current employees who apply consideration. The attained level of formal education and amount of related work experience are considered at this time. Both of these variables are considered to be positive factors that will impact occupational mobility.

During the selection process, the gender of the applicant and the race of the appointing authority may serve as negative factors in the selection process. The underlying assumption is that the gender and racial biases of the appointing authority will prohibit the employee from being selected when race and gender are different between applicant and appointing authority. Also at this point in time, the affirmative action plan of the agency will serve as a positive factor in the selection process. The assumption is that if there is an imbalance in the workforce, the position may be earmarked for a minority.

Whether the employee is selected or not, a decision is made. If the employee opts to remain with the organization, he or she will experience intraorganizational mobility. If the employee opts to leave the organization as a result of not being selected or if opportunities arise outside of the current agency, then interorganizational mobility is experienced.

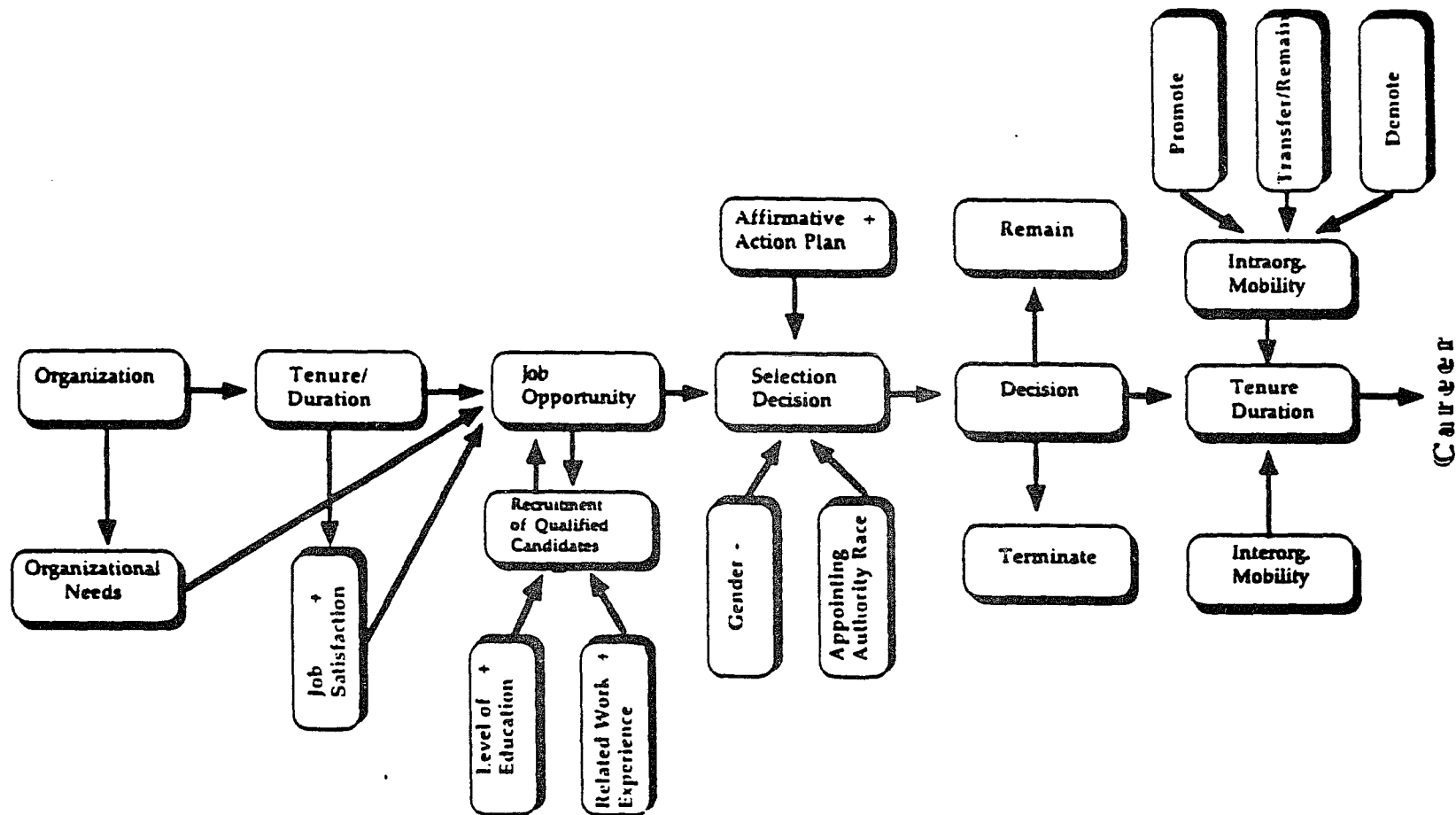


Figure 1: Model of Occupational Mobility
for Black Recreation & Park Personnel

Supporting Research

Education has proven to impact occupational mobility for Blacks (Blau and Duncan, 1967; Jencks, 1979; Sandefur, 1981; and McDonald, 1981).

Formal educational training and in-service training are considered to be organizational resources (Sandefur, 1981) and thus will increase the likelihood of intraorganizational and interorganizational mobility.

The number of years of experience is also a vital factor in occupational mobility. Tuma (1976), Sandefur (1981) and Robinson (1986) have all concluded that experience is a key factor directly related to occupational attainment. Women with more experience can be expected to have a higher level of occupational attainment (Robinson, 1986). Experience or duration will have an impact on intraorganizational shifts and a greater impact on interorganizational shifts (Tuma, 1976). Additionally, experience which is considered by Robinson (1981) to be an organization-specific resource and thus will increase the probability of an upward shift within the organization.

Research conducted by Lewis (1986), Shivers (1985) and Riley (1984) has implicated affirmative action as a factor in occupational attainment and mobility for Blacks. The results of the studies by Shivers (1985) and Riley (1984) indicated that affirmative action played a major role in the hiring and promotion of Black women. Additionally, affirmative action would play a major role in further career advancement.

In the present study, the primary focus is upon the impact of affirmative action that an employee has been employed by an agency over a five year period (1984-88). The underlying assumption is that some qualified employees may have been promoted into higher level positions to help

achieve a more balanced workforce. Additionally, hiring or promoting black and female employees may provide a remedy for any underutilization or underrepresentation that may have occurred in certain positions. In general, the presence of an affirmative action plan should play a positive role in facilitating occupational mobility for members of the sample.

The race of the appointing authority (if different than the applicant) is predicted to be another negative factor in relationship to occupational mobility experienced by the sample. Research by Taylor and Tuch (1986), Marger (1985), Cox (1985) and Salmon (1979) all imply that attitudes pertaining to race may have an impact on occupational mobility for Blacks. The underlying assumption is that because of racial and gender biases against Black women, discriminatory hiring practices will be implemented to suppress attempts to become occupationally mobile within the current organization. In the present study, it is assumed that the race of the appointing authority will have its greatest impact as promotional opportunities came about between 1984-88. It is in the personnel selection process that the prejudicial biases of the appointing authority may have intervened. As a result, attempts to become occupationally mobile within the agency may have been thwarted.

Job satisfaction has also been proven to be an important variable in the occupational mobility process. Expectancy theory, equity theory, discrepancy theory and Herzberg's "Two-Factor" theory all assist in making predictions in reference to job satisfaction. Job satisfaction, whether negative or positive, will impact mobility. Generally, job satisfaction will play a major role in perceptions of the organization by the employee and in terms of retention. Lower job dissatisfaction may lead to decreased

productivity, feelings of discriminatory practices being implemented on the part of the organization and the employee making attempts to become occupationally mobile outside of the organization.

Research conducted by Penn (1985) and Perry (1985), elude to the fact that occupational mobility drives job satisfaction. As implied in the previous paragraph, in the present study, the opposite approach is being examined. The examination of job satisfaction offers a novel approach to the study of occupational mobility. The underlying assumption is that the members of the sample were primarily concerned with compensation and job security related issues. The poor state of the economy in Michigan during the period of 1984-88 was the primary consideration in making this assumption.

During this period of economic distress, many municipal recreation and park agencies were down-sizing and experiencing reductions in staff. It seemed logical that during this period, to remain employed and be financially compensated at a reasonable level, would lead to a degree of job satisfaction. If the employee stayed with the agency and experienced a reasonable degree of job satisfaction, attempts to become occupationally mobile within the agency would be made as opportunities occurred.

In essence, education, coupled with experience and the presence of an affirmative action plan, will influence occupational mobility for Blacks in a positive manner. If rewards (promotional opportunities, compensation, responsibility) are issued in what is perceived to be an equitable manner, then job satisfaction may occur.

Gender has been proven to have an adverse impact on occupational

mobility for women (Robinson, 1986; McDonald, 1981). Robinson (1986) concluded that the fewer number of women within a given occupation, the greater the chances are that mobility will be reduced.

Another variable that may have a negative impact on mobility is age. Tuma (1976) indicates that age will have a negative impact on both intraorganizational and interorganizational mobility. In the models developed by both Robinson and Sandefur, age is used as a control variable.

The final variable that may adversely impact occupational mobility is the race of the appointing authority. Research conducted by Lewis (1986), Hines (1985) and Hudson (1978) all point to the fact that discriminatory selection practices have a tremendous impact on mobility for minorities and women. Because of the domination of White males in the managerial and supervisory ranks of many professions, the race of the appointing authority becomes even more important. Generally, it is at these levels that personnel decisions are made.

Summary

In summation, the theoretical model used in this study extracted components from the "Organizational Boundaries and Upward Shift" model developed by Sandefur (1981) and the "Women's Occupational Attainment Model" developed by Robinson (1986). The key variables encompassed within this model - education, duration or years of experience and job rewards - impact occupational mobility positively. Gender will have a negative impact on occupational mobility.

This research effort utilized the variables of gender, number of years of related work experience, attained level of education, the presence of an

affirmative action plan, race of the appointing authority and job satisfaction.

Research conducted by Robinson (1986) and McDonald (1981) address the negative impact of gender in relationship to occupational mobility. Lewis (1986), Hines (1985) and Hudson (1978) conducted studies which refer to the impact of White males dominating the upper supervisory and managerial positions where discriminatory selection procedures are practiced. This factor is directly related to the race of the appointing authority having an impact on occupational mobility. The results of studies conducted by Lewis (1986), Shivers (1985) and Riley (1984) all indicate that affirmative action has a positive impact on occupational mobility.

The predictions made pertaining to the variables contained in the study model and the supporting research pertinent to those variables not contained in the model played a major role in the development of the hypotheses which were tested in this research effort.

Hypotheses

For the expressed purposes of this study, the following null hypotheses were utilized:

1. Among Blacks employed within the municipal recreation and park profession in Michigan, there will be no difference in reported occupational mobility scores between males and females.
2. Among Blacks employed within the municipal recreation and park profession in Michigan, there will be no difference in

occupational mobility scores for those with varying number of years of related work experience.

3. Among Blacks employed within the municipal recreation and park profession in Michigan, there will be no difference in occupational mobility scores for those with varying number of years of education.
4. Among Blacks employed within the municipal recreation and park profession in Michigan, there will be no difference in occupational mobility scores for personnel working in agencies with perceived affirmative action plans versus those without perceived affirmative action plans.
5. Among Blacks employed within the municipal recreation and park profession in Michigan, there will be no difference in occupational mobility scores for personnel hired by Black appointing authorities versus non-Black appointing authorities.
6. Among Blacks employed within the municipal recreation and park profession in Michigan, there will be no difference in occupational mobility scores for those with higher levels of perceived job satisfaction versus lower levels of perceived job satisfaction.

Chapter 4

METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURES

The primary purpose of this study was to examine those factors which are related to the occupational mobility of Black personnel within the recreation and park profession. This chapter describes the methodology and procedures that were utilized to conduct this research effort. The following five sections: instrumentation; sampling plan/selection of subjects; control measures; collection of data; and data analysis outline the procedures that were utilized in the implementation of this study.

Study Instrument

The instrument consisted of four sections. Section one was designed to obtain the respondent's perceptions of the status of various occupational titles for the park and recreation profession. Occupational status rankings were derived by calculating percentages for high rankings (scores of one and two). Section two pertained to collecting information relevant to the respondents attempts to become occupationally mobile within and outside of the organizational structure, information pertaining to the perceived impact of affirmative action on employment, the appointing authority and perceived discrimination in employment. Section three solicited information pertaining to job satisfaction. Section four was designed to collect demographic information about the respondents.

As indicated in the aforementioned paragraph, section three of the instrument was designed to solicit information relevant to job satisfaction. To gather this data, a standardized instrument that was both

reliable and valid, yet easy to administer was utilized. After searching and reviewing instruments in the "The Ninth Mental Measurements Yearbook", the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire was selected for use in this study.

Occupational Titles

A comprehensive list of 18 occupational titles used in the municipal recreation and park profession was utilized for the purpose of determining occupational status and measuring occupational mobility. The primary model for developing the series of job titles used in the municipal recreation and park profession was extracted from the "National Survey Of Selected Public Recreation and Park Personnel", developed by Henkel and Godbey (1977). Those titles contained in the list were similar to those used by departments in Michigan. This was confirmed by contacting the directors and personnel departments of agencies included in the sample.

The "Occupational Mobility Survey", and "Occupational Status Scale" developed by McDonald (1981) and the "Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (short form)" developed by Weiss, Davis, England and Lofquist (1967) were the primary instruments utilized as models for the development of the instrument utilized in this research effort.

Occupational Status Scale

Occupational Status was established using procedures and instruments from the work of McDonald (1981). The respondents asked to rank each occupational title using a Likert type scale from one to five. One being a

high status position ranking and five being a low status position ranking. Occupational status scores were then derived by calculating the percentage of high rankings (scores of one and two) for each individual occupational title. The status scores for each occupational title were then ranked from high to low.

Occupational Mobility

To ascertain occupational mobility patterns for the sample, a procedure similar to the work McDonald (1981) was utilized. Each respondent was asked to indicate beginning with the current position held, all full time positions held over a five year period (1984-88) within the recreation and park field. The most current position indicated and the position held at the beginning of the five year period (1984) were then assigned occupational status scores. The occupational status scores assigned were based on the scores derived from the ranking of the 18 occupational titles.

Occupational mobility was measured by calculating the difference in occupational status scores of the most recent position reported and the position held at the beginning of the designated five year period. A positive score indicated upward mobility, no change in status score indicated stability and a negative score indicated downward mobility.

Job Satisfaction

The instrument utilized to measure job satisfaction was the short form of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire. General job satisfaction was measured by asking each respondent to rate their degree of satisfaction with specific aspects of their job utilizing a Likert type scale ranging

from "1" indicating "very dissatisfied" to "5" indicating "very satisfied." The instrument consists of twenty questions. A job satisfaction score was computed for each respondent. The range of scores for each respondent is 20-100 points. The job satisfaction scores were calculated by summing the scores for all items contained in the instrument.

Special Authorizations

Pursuant to the use of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (short form), special authorization had to be obtained to use the instrument. Permission was necessary to avoid violating applicable copyright laws and make arrangements to pay royalties on copies that were to be reproduced.

The Department of Vocational Psychology Research of the University of Minnesota in Minneapolis was contacted via telephone on April 13, 1988. The purpose of the call was to inform appropriate personnel of the proposed use of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (short form) as a part of the instrument used to collect data for this research effort. A written communication requesting permission to use the instrument along with the payment for one specimen set (a sample set of the questionnaire and booklet) were forwarded on the same date. On April 19, 1988 the specimen set and authorization to reproduce the questionnaire was received.

From May 10-26, 1988, the instrument to be used to collect data in this study was pilot tested. The instrument was pilot tested by ten Black recreation professionals who had a minimum of three years experience; who were employed by the Flint Community Schools Recreation and Community Education Office. These parties were not included in the study sample. After pilot testing, revisions were made.

After the instrument had been refined to its near final format, it was submitted to the University Committee on Research involving Human Subjects (UCRIHS) along with the methodology and procedures section of the research proposal for approval. The material was forwarded on June 16, 1988, and after revisions specifying confidentiality and anonymity, authorization to proceed with the proposed study was given by UCRIHS, on June 16, 1988.

Sampling Plan/Selection of Subjects

The sampling frame was a master list of Black employees who are employed by municipal recreation and park agencies in Michigan servicing populations of 30,000 or more people, selected from data according to the 1980 census. County recreation and park agencies and regional recreation and park authorities were not included in the analysis. This study pertained to municipal recreation and park agencies exclusively, therefore, county recreation and park agencies and regional recreation and park authorities such as the Huron-Clinton Metropolitan Authority (H.C.M.A.) surrounding Detroit were excluded.

County recreation and park agencies, with the exception of those located in the southeastern, mid-Michigan area and some counties located in the western area of the state (i.e. Ingham, Genesee, Kalamazoo, Kent, Oakland, Saginaw, Wayne, and Washtenaw), did not contain large populations of Blacks according to 1980 census data. County recreation and park agencies may not employ Blacks due to the limited supply of Blacks within the county populations. Municipalities within counties that have large concentrations of Blacks traditionally offer higher salaries and greater professional opportunities. Due to these factors, Black employees of

municipalities serving populations of 30,000 people were selected as the unit of analysis.

Regional authorities and/or special districts were excluded. Additionally, the employment status Blacks working full-time for H.C.M.A. is comparable to that of county recreation and park agencies.

The master list of agencies and subjects to be included in the sample were developed by utilizing the following methods:

1. From the 1980 census, a list of all municipalities in Michigan with populations of 30,000 or more people was compiled.
2. From this, a list of cities with a municipal recreation and park department was developed. The Michigan Recreation and Park Association directory and the directory of the Michigan Municipal League were utilized to verify that departments had recruitment and park departments contained in the list.
3. Department directors were contacted by letter to request a list of Black employees with three or more years of experience who were employed by their agency. The communication was mailed out on May 27, 1988. Each agency was given three weeks to respond to the request. Follow-up telephone calls were made on June 20-22 to those directors who had not responded. Employees who met the criteria were contacted by telephone to request their participation in the study.
4. In addition, members of the Minority Affairs Committee of the Michigan Recreation and Park Association were contacted

to obtain a list of Black employees who are employed in their respective departments.

As a result of employing the aforementioned measures, a list of 137 Blacks working in 14 different agencies was developed. From this listing, a sample of Black employees of a municipal recreation and park agencies serving a population of 30,000 or more people who have a minimum of three years of full time professional experience in the recreation and park profession was drawn.

Survey Administration

One of the principle administrative measures implemented as a part of the study was verification of parties who were included in the sample. Division superintendents or personnel officers from 13 agencies were contacted to verify the names and employment status of employees within their agencies. This procedure was implemented to ensure that persons included in the sample were employed with the agency and that they met the requirements as defined above. Additionally, support and cooperation for this research effort were sought.

The names contained in each respective agency list were read verbally via telephone to the division head or personnel officer for confirmation that the party was Black and had three years of experience in the field. Out of 137 names submitted from 13 agencies, there were only four (4) individuals (3%) that were erroneously included in the sample.

A second control measure that was instituted pertained to the collection of the instrument. The departments in Lansing and Ann Arbor requested that all individuals taking part in the study be granted the opportunity to

turn in their completed, sealed instrument to a staff member who would take responsibility for mailing back the group of instruments. As a result, the response rates for these two agencies was one hundred percent (100%).

The other agencies were given the same option, but refused due to the small number of persons from their agencies. It was stated that these staff members could easily take responsibility for mailing their own returns back. The Detroit Recreation Department did not take advantage of this option due to the fact that the number of persons who were included in the sample from their agency was large (52). The general feeling was that personnel were too dispersed in terms of job sites and that an effort such as this would be too time consuming.

Collection Of The Data

The survey instrument was mailed out to 133 potential respondents on July 21, 1988 and each party was given fourteen (14) calendar days to return the instrument. Each person was requested to return the instrument immediately upon completion. A brief letter was forwarded to agency directors on August 5, 1988 requesting that they encourage their employees who chose to be included in the sample to return their instrument in an expeditious manner.

A post card was sent on August 8, 1988 to those parties who had not responded to the initial mailing to determine their interest in taking part in the study. Telephone calls were then made to those who had not responded to the initial mailing on August 10-11, 1988.

A follow-up mailing was done on August 17, 1988 to those who had not

responded to their first mailing, but expressed an interest in participating in the study. These respondents were given seven (7) calendar days to respond. As an additional measure to increase the overall response rate, telephone calls were then made to those who had expressed an interest in participating in the study but had not returned their instrument by August 25, 1988. These calls were made August 26-28, 1988.

Data Analysis

Totally, 133 instruments were mailed out and 113 were returned. Two of the instruments that were returned were determined to be unusable, thus the number of usable instruments was 111. After the unusable instruments were excluded, the adjusted response rate was 84%.

The data was then cleaned, coded, and entered into the computer. Descriptive and inferential analyses were planned. One-Way Analysis Of Variance and T-Test were determined to be most appropriate for the purpose of hypothesis testing. The SPSS-PC+ (V.2.0) and Micro-Stat statistical packages were the statistical tools used to analyze the data.

Chapter 5

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

This chapter contains the analysis of data relevant to occupational mobility Black personnel in the recreation and park profession in Michigan. To ensure the confidentiality of responses obtained from personnel included in the sample, much of the data has been grouped into four occupational categories: (1) administrative; (2) supervisory; (3) leadership; and (4) support.

The data is presented in five sections. The first section includes data relevant to the demographic profile of Black municipal recreation and park personnel. The second section examines data pertaining to general job satisfaction, the third section analyzes data regarding occupational status and prestige among Black employees. The fourth section provides an analysis of data regarding the perceived motivations for and hinderances to career advancement. Lastly, the fifth section contains an analysis of the data relevant to occupational mobility for Black personnel in Michigan.

Additionally, Appendix A contains detailed tables of data pertinent to this research effort. The tables in Appendix A contain data segmented by position title and means tables for the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire.

Demographic Profile

Table 1 presents a profile of Black personnel currently employed in the municipal recreation and park profession in Michigan. Of the personnel

TABLE 1

DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF BLACK RECREATION
AND PARK PERSONNEL IN MICHIGAN

Category	Number	Column Percentage
<u>Gender of Respondents</u>		
Males	68	61.3 %
Females	43	38.7 %
Total	111	100.0 %
<u>Age of Respondents</u>		
21-30	17	15.3 %
31-40	54	48.7 %
41-50	25	22.5 %
51-60	15	13.5 %
Total	111	100.0 %
<u>Most Recent Diploma/Degree</u> (Completed by Respondents)		
High School/Associate	45	40.6 %
Bachelor's	46	41.4 %
Advanced	20	18.0 %
Total	111	100.0 %
<u>Salary Range of Respondent</u>		
\$10,000-\$24,999	42	37.8 %
\$25,000-\$39,999	61	55.0 %
\$40,000-\$54,999+	8	7.2 %
Total	111	100.0 %
<u>Employment Region</u>		
South-Eastern Michigan	58	52.3 %
South-Central Michigan	32	28.8 %
Western Michigan	21	18.9 %
Total	111	100.0 %
<u>Occupational Category</u>		
Administrative	15	13.6 %
Supervisory	31	27.9 %
Leadership	34	30.6 %
Support	31	27.9 %
Total	111	100.00%

who were included in the sample, sixty-eight (61.3%) were male and forty-three were female (38.7%). The respondents ranged in age between twenty-one to sixty. The majority of the respondents were over thirty years of age (84.7%). Over eighty percent of the sample population had pursued a college education. Approximately sixty percent of the sample had earned a four year degree. Of these, eighteen percent had earned advanced degrees (masters, specialist and doctorate).

In reference to the municipalities where Blacks are currently employed, 52.3% are employed by municipalities located in the South-Eastern sector of the state (Detroit, Highland Park, Farmington Hills, Inkster and Ann Arbor). The South-Central region of the state (Flint, Pontiac and Saginaw) accounted for 28.8% of Blacks employed in municipal recreation and park positions within Michigan. Lastly, 18.9% of the respondents were employed by municipalities located in the Western sector of the state (Lansing, Jackson, Battle Creek, Kalamazoo and Grand Rapids).

With respect to salaries earned by the respondents, 37.8% earned between \$10,000-\$24,999 annually. Approximately fifty-five percent of the sample earned between \$25,000-\$39,999 per year and 7.2% earned between \$40,000-\$54,999 plus annually.

In terms of occupational classifications, 13.6% of the sample held administrative positions. Those employed in the supervisory ranks comprised 27.9% of the sample. Those working in the leadership area constituted 30.6% of the sample, while the remaining 27.9% of the sample were employed in positions that were composed of support staff.

In each of the occupational classifications, there were positions that were not represented by anyone within the sample and therefore not included in the analysis. The positions with no representatives included: budget officer, park planner, and park patrol officer. Some of the occupational titles held by various respondents differed from those used in the analysis, thus a section entitled "other" was included in the list of titles used to indicate the current occupation held.

Positions in the "other" category which were included in the analysis included: Elder Abuse Specialist (a social worker who specializes in dealing with physical, emotional and financial abuse of the elderly), Account Clerk, Personnel Officer, Grants Administrator and Activity Supervisor. Personnel occupying these five positions accounted for 4.5% of the sample.

In the analysis of the data, these positions were included in with occupational categories with comparable functions. The list of occupational titles and descriptions used to establish occupational status ratings was utilized to accomplish this task. The positions classified as "other" were distributed within the various occupational categories as follows: Elder Abuse Specialist-Special Program Coordinator; Account Clerk, Personnel Officer and Grants Administrator-Administrative Assistant; and Activity Supervisor-Functional Supervisor.

Table 2 presents a summary of the number of Black personnel employed in each occupational category. Approximately two percent (1.8%) of the sample occupied the position of Director of Parks and Recreation. Directors of Recreation and Directors of Parks comprised 4.5% of the sample. Personnel occupying the positions of District Supervisor, Facility

TABLE 2
 PERCENTAGE OF BLACK RECREATION AND PARK PERSONNEL
 IN MICHIGAN BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY

Position	Count	Column %
Administrative Assistant	3	2.7 %
Assistant Director	4	3.6 %
Budget Officer	0	0.0 %
Custodian	6	5.4 %
Director of Parks and Recreation	2	1.8 %
Director of Recreation	4	3.6 %
Director of Parks	1	.9 %
District Supervisor	10	9.0 %
Facility Director	12	10.8 %
Functional Supervisor	9	8.1 %
Park Planner	0	0.0 %
Park or Operations Staff	16	14.4 %
Park Patrol Officer	0	0.0 %
Recreation Leader	22	19.8 %
Secretary	3	2.7 %
Special Program Coordinator	11	9.9 %
Senior Park or Operations Staff	3	2.7 %
Other	<u>5</u>	<u>4.5 %</u>
Total	111	100.0 %

Director and Functional Supervisor accounted for 27.9% of Blacks employed in municipal recreation and park departments. The greatest number of Black employees were found in the Recreation Leader (19.8%) and Park or Operations Staff (14.4%) occupational categories. Secretaries, Senior Park or Operations Staff and Administrative Assistants each represented 2.7% of the sample.

Gender

A demographic profile of Blacks, segmented by gender, is illustrated in Table 3. Fifty percent of the male and 46.5% of the female respondents were between 31-40 years of age. In terms of actual degree/diploma earned, 27.9% of males and 62.8% of females included in the sample held bachelors degrees. There was a marginal difference in the percentage of males (19.2%) versus females (16.3%) that held advanced degrees. Overall, the sample population was well educated with a greater percentage of females than males being the recipient of a four year degree or higher.

In terms of salary, 39.7% of male and 34.9% of female respondents reported that they earn \$10,000-\$24,999 annually which represents the low end of the range. Among males, 10.3% and among females 2.3% of the respondents reported earning between \$40,000-\$54,999 plus annually which represents the high end of the salary range. There was a greater percentage of female respondents (62.8%) compared to male respondents (50.0%) who earned \$25,000-\$39,999 annually. On the other hand, of all the respondents who reported earning between \$25,000-\$39,999, the majority were males (55.7%). Additionally, for all respondents who reported earning \$40,000-\$54,999, again the majority were males (87.5%).

TABLE 3

**DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF BLACK RECREATION AND PARK PERSONNEL
IN MICHIGAN BY GENDER**

Category	Male		Female	
	Count	Column%	Count	Column%
<u>Gender of Respondents</u>				
Males	68	61.3 %	0	0.0 %
Females	0	0.0 %	43	38.7 %
Total	68	61.3 %	43	38.7 %
<u>Age of Respondents</u>				
21-30	9	13.2 %	8	18.6 %
31-40	34	50.0 %	20	46.5 %
41-50	15	22.1 %	10	23.3 %
51-60	10	14.7 %	5	11.6 %
Total	68	100.00%	43	100.00%
<u>Most Recent Diploma/Degree Completed by Respondents</u>				
High School/Associate	36	52.9 %	9	20.9 %
Bachelor's	19	27.9 %	27	62.8 %
Advanced	13	19.2 %	7	16.3 %
Total	68	100.00%	43	100.00%
<u>Salary Range of Respondents</u>				
\$10,000-\$24,999	27	39.7 %	15	34.9 %
\$25,000-\$39,999	34	50.0 %	27	62.8 %
\$40,000-\$54,999	7	10.3 %	1	2.3 %
Total	68	100.00%	43	100.00%
<u>Employment Region</u>				
South-Eastern	29	42.7 %	29	67.5 %
South-Central	23	33.7 %	9	20.9 %
Western	16	23.6 %	5	11.6 %
Total	68	100.00%	43	100.00%
<u>Occupational Category</u>				
Administrative	10	14.7 %	5	11.6 %
Supervisory	18	26.5 %	13	30.3 %
Leadership	14	20.6 %	20	46.5 %
Support	26	38.2 %	5	11.6 %
Total	68	100.00%	43	100.00%

Overall, Black males represented the greatest percentage of respondents (by gender and collectively) whose salaries fell into the lowest and highest salary ranges as reported in Table 3. This finding appears to be consistent with the findings of research conducted by Verdugo (1985) and Kerr (1973). Both studies conclude that males consistently earn more, in terms of salary, than females.

With regard to the numbers of Black male and female employees who are currently working for municipalities included in the sample, among males 42.7% are employed in the South-Eastern region of the state. Of the remaining percentage of males in the sample, 33.7% are employed by agencies in the South-Central region. The balance of males in the sample (23.6%) are employed in the Western region. Among females included in the sample, the greatest percentage (67.5%) are employed in the South-Eastern region. Municipalities in the Western region employed the smallest percentage of females included in the sample (11.6%).

Occupational Distribution

The distribution of Black male and female respondents across occupational classifications, indicates that males occupied a greater percentage of positions in the administrative, and support classifications (Table 3). Females occupied the greater percentage of positions in the leadership and supervisory categories. Table 4 presents a breakdown of positions occupied by both male and female respondents by occupational category.

The positions encompassed in the administrative realm included: Director of Parks and Recreation, Director of Recreation, Director of

Parks, Assistant Director and Administrative Assistant. For those respondents who reported that they held administrative positions, 66.7% were males and 33.3% were females.

In those positions that were designated as being supervisory in nature; District Supervisor, Facility Director and Functional Supervisor, males comprised the greater percentage of supervisory employees (58.1% for males versus 41.9% for females).

For those positions classified as leadership in nature, females outnumbered males in all leadership positions (58.8% for females as compared to 41.2% for males). Positions in this category included Special Program Coordinator and Recreation Leader.

Lastly with regard to those positions classified as support positions, 83.9% of the respondents were male and 16.1% of the respondents were female. Males outnumbered females in the occupational categories of Senior Park or Operations Staff, Park or Operations Staff and Custodian. The only position in this realm that females outnumbered males, was in the position of Secretary. Additionally, males outnumbered females in the group of positions entitled "other", including Elder Abuse Specialist, Account Clerk, Grants Administrator, Personnel Officer and Activity Supervisor.

Overall, there were a greater number of males employees in the administrative, supervisory and support occupational categories. To further explain this finding, the hypothesis that no relationship existed between gender and the occupational category of the respondents was tested.

TABLE 4

PERCENTAGE OF BLACK RECREATION AND PARK PERSONNEL
IN MICHIGAN BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY BY GENDER

Occupational Category	Male		Female		Total	Row %
	Count	Row %	Count	Row %		
Administrative	10	66.7 %	5	33.3 %	15	100.0 %
Supervisory	18	58.1 %	13	41.9 %	31	100.0 %
Leadership	14	41.2 %	20	58.8 %	34	100.0 %
Support	<u>26</u>	<u>83.9 %</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>16.1 %</u>	<u>31</u>	<u>100.0 %</u>
Totals	68	61.3 %	43	38.7 %	111	100.0 %

Note: Chi-Square = 12.775 (df=3). Significant at $p = .05$

The Chi-Square test was utilized to test the hypothesis at the .05 level of significance. A Chi-Square value of 12.775 was obtained. Utilizing a critical value of 7.851 (df=3), the null hypothesis was rejected. Thus, there appears to be a relationship existing between the gender and occupational category of the respondents. This finding is consistent with research conducted by McDonald (1981) and findings published by Henkel and Godbey (1976) in their "Manpower Study".

The data obtained from their study indicated that females were noticeably absent from positions that were administrative and supportive in nature. The findings of this study are comparable to those of Henkel and Godbey (1976). When noting the distribution of males and females by occupational category, males occupy a greater percentage of positions in the administrative and support categories. The greatest difference can be found in the support category. This difference may be attributed to the number of males that are employed in park maintenance oriented positions.

Years In The Field

The average number of years in the field for the sample was 13.3 years with a range of 3-40 years. The average number of years in the field for male and female respondents was 12.5 years and 14.1 years, respectively.

Respondents who have worked in administrative positions as Director of Parks and Recreation were employed for an average of one year. Those respondents who were employed as Assistant Director 21.3 years, District Supervisor 21.0 years, Senior Park or Operations Staff 16.7 years and Functional Supervisor 16.3 years, have been in the field the longest.

Personnel employed in the supervisory occupation category have been employed in the field an average of 17.2 years. Those respondents who were employed in the leadership category have been employed in the field the shortest period of time, 11.0 years. Table 5 presents a summary of the mean number of years in the profession by occupational category for Black municipal recreation and park personnel in Michigan.

TABLE 5

MEAN NUMBER OF YEARS IN THE FIELD BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY

Occupational Category	Count	Mean Number Of Years In The Profession
Administrative	15	13.4
Supervisory	31	17.2
Leadership	34	11.0
Support	<u>31</u>	<u>11.6</u>
Total	111	13.3

Years In Current Position

Table 6 presents a summary of the mean number of years in the current position for Black municipal recreation and park personnel in Michigan. Personnel employed in the administrative category have been in their current position the least amount of time (2.9 years). Personnel working in the support category have been in their current position the greatest amount of time (8.1 years). From the administrative category, respondents who are working in the position of Director of Parks and Recreation and Assistant Director have been in their current positions for the fewest number of years in comparison to the other positions identified. Those in support positions such as custodians, park or operations staff have been in their current position for the greatest duration of time.

TABLE 6

MEAN NUMBER OF YEARS IN THE CURRENT POSITION

Current Position	Count	Mean Number Of Years In Current Position
Administrative	15	2.9
Supervisory	31	7.3
Leadership	34	5.9
Support	<u>31</u>	<u>8.1</u>
Totals	111	6.1

Salary Breakdown

In regard to the annual salary of Black recreation and park personnel

in Michigan, salaries ranged from \$10,000-\$54,999 annually. The party who reported earning this salary occupied a position in the "other" occupational category.

In relationship to reported earnings by occupational category, 46.7% of administrative personnel reported earning between \$25,000-\$39,999. Among supervisory employees, 87.1% reported earning \$25,000-\$39,999 per year. Among leadership employees, 64.7% reported earning \$10,000-\$24,999 per year. Additionally, 51.6% of the support personnel earned \$10,000-\$24,999 per year. Table 7 presents a summary of percentages of respondents represented in each occupational category by salary range.

TABLE 7
SALARY BREAKDOWN OF BLACK RECREATION AND PARK PERSONNEL
IN MICHIGAN

Occupational Category	10-24,999		25-39,999		40-54,999		Row Total	Row %
	Count	Row%	Count	Row%	Count	Row%		
Administrative	1	6.6%	7	46.7%	7	46.7%	15	100.0%
Supervisory	3	9.7%	27	87.1%	1	3.2%	31	100.0%
Leadership	22	64.7%	12	35.3%	0	0.0%	34	100.0%
Support	<u>16</u>	<u>51.6%</u>	<u>15</u>	<u>48.4%</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>0.0%</u>	<u>31</u>	<u>100.0%</u>
Totals	42	37.8%	61	55.0%	8	7.2%	111	100.0%

Degree/Diploma Earned

Across all respondents, 59.5% of the sample had earned a four year degree or higher. In addition, 40.6% indicated a high school diploma or associates degree as their highest diploma earned, while 41.4% of the

respondents indicated a bachelors degree as the highest degree earned. In regard to those respondents who indicated that they had pursued advanced degrees (18.0%), 15.4% earned masters degrees, 1.8% had earned a specialist degree and 1% of those pursuing graduate degrees had earned a doctorate.

For personnel working in administrative oriented positions, 53.3% held advanced degrees. Approximately 55.0% of the personnel that occupied supervisory and 58.8% of the respondents that held leadership positions reported the bachelors degree as the highest degree/diploma earned. For employees working in the support classification, 87.1% indicated the high school diploma/associate degree as the highest diploma earned. Table 8 presents a summary of the degrees/diplomas earned by Black personnel who were included in the sample.

TABLE 8

DEGREE/DIPLOMA EARNED BY BLACK RECREATION AND PARK PERSONNEL
IN MICHIGAN BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY

Occupational Category	H.S./Assoc. Count	Row%	Bachelors Count	Row%	Advanced Count	Row%	Row Total	Row %
Administrative	1	6.7%	6	40.0%	8	53.3%	15	100.0%
Supervisory	6	19.4%	17	54.8%	8	25.8%	31	100.0%
Leadership	11	32.4%	20	58.8%	3	8.8%	34	100.0%
Support	<u>27</u>	<u>87.1%</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>9.7%</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>3.2%</u>	<u>31</u>	<u>100.0%</u>
Total	45	40.6%	46	41.4%	20	18.0%	111	100.0%

Employment Regions

Among respondents employed in administrative positions, 53.4% are locate in the South-Eastern region, 33.3% are locate in the South-Central

region, and 13.3% from the Western region. Support personnel were about equally represented across each region. Table 9 presents data relevant to the numbers and percentages of Black personnel employed in each occupational category by region of the state.

TABLE 9

REGIONS EMPLOYING BLACK RECREATION AND PARK PERSONNEL
IN MICHIGAN BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY

Occupational Category	South-Eastern		South-Central		Western		Row Total	Row %
	Count	Row%	Count	Row%	Count	Row%		
Administrative	8	53.4%	5	33.3%	2	13.3%	15	100.0%
Supervisory	18	58.1%	7	22.6%	6	19.4%	31	100.0%
Leadership	22	64.7%	8	23.5%	4	11.8%	34	100.0%
Support	<u>10</u>	<u>32.3%</u>	<u>12</u>	<u>38.7%</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>29.0%</u>	<u>31</u>	<u>100.0%</u>
Totals	58	52.3%	32	28.8%	21	18.9%	111	100.0%

Perceptions of Job Satisfaction

To obtain a measure of general job satisfaction, the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ-short form) was incorporated into the survey instrument. The short form MSQ consists of three scales: extrinsic satisfaction scale, intrinsic satisfaction scale, and general satisfaction scale. For the expressed purposes of this study, the general satisfaction scale was the principle measure utilized. The general satisfaction scale was selected because the objective for using the questionnaire was to obtain a general measure of satisfaction. Obtaining intrinsic and extrinsic measures of job satisfaction were not of primary importance in this study. These two scales when combined comprise the general satisfaction scale.

The scale items that correspond to each of the twenty statements contained in the questionnaire are as follows: (1) ability utilization; (2) achievement; (3) activity; (4) advancement; (5) authority; (6) company policies and practices; (7) compensation; (8) co-workers; (9) creativity; (10) independence; (11) moral values; (12) recognition; (13) responsibility; (14) security; (15) social service; (16) social status; (17) supervision - human relations; (18) supervision - technical; (19) variety; and (20) working conditions.

General job satisfaction was measured by asking each respondent to rate their degree of satisfaction with specific aspects of their jobs utilizing a Likert scale, ranging from "1" indicating "very dissatisfied" to "5" indicating "very satisfied". The instrument contained twenty statements; each respondent rated their degree of satisfaction for each statement. A job satisfaction score was computed for each respondent. The job satisfaction scores were calculated by summing the scores for all items contained in the instrument. The range of possible scores varied from 20-100 points. The mean and median general satisfaction scores for the sample were 73.4 and 74.0 respectively. The mean general satisfaction scores for male and female respondents were 72.8 and 73.9 respectively.

Means Table For Statements In MSQ (Short Form)

Table 1 in Appendix A, presents a summary of the mean scores compiled for each of the twenty statements contained in the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (short form). The respondents were most satisfied with being able to keep busy (4.39) and opportunities to perform different tasks (4.28) on the job. Other aspects of employment that the respondents rated

high included: the chance to do things for other people (4.20) and being able to do things that didn't go against their conscience (4.19). Additionally, the opportunity to utilize their abilities (4.06); the chance to work alone (4.03); and the feeling of accomplishment obtained from the job (4.02) were also elements of their job that were the most satisfying to the respondents. Other elements such as: the chance to try my own methods of doing the job (3.86) and the freedom to use my own judgment (3.80) were ranked high, but not as high as the previously mentioned statements.

The items contained in the general satisfaction aspect of the questionnaire that the respondents were least satisfied with were the following components: pay and the amount of work done (3.00); the way company policies are put into practice (2.75); and the chances for advancement on the job (2.71). The mean scores that the aforementioned items received may be indicative of frustration with compensation; development and implementation of agency policy; and the lack of opportunities for advancement within the agency.

General Job Satisfaction

The vast majority of the Black recreation and park personnel included in the sample were satisfied with their jobs. Table 10 presents a summary of the mean general satisfaction scores by gender for the four occupational categories.

In the administrative category, the mean score of job satisfaction was 77.45 for both sexes, with female administrators obtaining a higher score than their male counterparts (78.80 versus 76.10). The mean general satisfaction scores for both sexes working in the supervisory, leadership and

support categories were 74.60, 75.60 and 65.95, respectively. In the supervisory and leadership categories, females achieved higher mean general satisfaction scores than males. In the support category, males attained a mean satisfaction score of 67.10, whereas females attained a score of 64.80. In the support category, there is only a marginal difference in the mean general satisfaction scores between males and females. On the whole, Black females may be slightly more satisfied with their jobs than Black males in the recreation and park profession in Michigan.

TABLE 10
GENERAL JOB SATISFACTION SCORE (MSQ-SHORT FORM)
BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY AND GENDER FOR BLACK RECREATION
AND PARK PERSONNEL IN MICHIGAN

Occupational Category	Count	\bar{X} Score Sample	SD	Count	\bar{X} Score Male	SD	Count	\bar{X} Score Female	SD
Administrative	15	77.45	.21	10	76.10	.10	5	78.80	.32
Supervisory	31	74.60	.34	18	73.40	.48	13	75.80	.21
Leadership	34	75.60	.16	14	74.80	.02	20	76.40	.30
Support	<u>31</u>	<u>65.95</u>	<u>.23</u>	<u>26</u>	<u>67.10</u>	<u>.37</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>64.80</u>	<u>.10</u>
Totals	111	73.40	.23	68	72.85	.24	43	73.95	.23

Levels of Job Satisfaction

To obtain an adequate representation of the level of job satisfaction experienced by those included in the sample, general satisfaction scores were segmented into quintiles by general satisfaction scores. The segmentation of general satisfaction scores into quintiles is recommended as a standard practice by the Department of Vocational Psychology Research at

the University of Minnesota when using the short form of the MSQ (Manual for the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, 1967).

When the normative data for other occupational groups (i.e. nurses, salesmen and machinists) was compared with the mean general satisfaction scores for this sample, the mean scores appeared to be similar. The mean general satisfaction scores for other occupational groups ranged from the mid to high seventies. The mean general satisfaction score for the sample of Black recreation and park personnel was 73.4. As a result, it can be assumed that the results were comparable to other studies using the questionnaire and that scores for this sample are within the expected range of scores observed in other applications of this instrument.

Table 11 presents a summary of the data. Approximately 54.0% of the sample attained scores that fell into the category that included the mean score (73.4). None of the respondents indicated that they were "not satisfied" with their jobs and 18.0% indicated that they were "extremely satisfied" with their jobs. The scores of those who were "extremely satisfied" ranged from 84.00-100.00 and comprised the 100th quintile.

The greatest percentage of respondents were "satisfied" (54.1%) with their employment situations. Approximately 28.0% of the respondents yielded scores indicating that they were either "dissatisfied" (6.3%) or had no strong feelings, "neutral" (21.6%) in terms of satisfaction. In summation, inspite of the diverse range of general satisfaction scores, the majority of the sample reported to be satisfied with their jobs.

TABLE 11
RANKINGS OF JOB SATISFACTION LEVELS FOR
BLACK PARK AND RECREATION PERSONNEL IN MICHIGAN

Quintile	Range	Level of Satisfaction	Count	Column%
20.00	20.00 - 35.00	Very Dissatisfied	0	0.0%
40.00	36.00 - 51.00	Dissatisfied	7	6.3%
60.00	52.00 - 67.00	Neutral	24	21.6%
80.00	68.00 - 83.00	Satisfied	60	54.1%
100.00	84.00 - 100.00	Very Satisfied	<u>20</u>	<u>18.0%</u>
Totals			111	100.0%

Occupational Status

To attain occupational status scores, the study participants were asked to provide their perceptions of 18 occupational titles used in the recreation and park profession. The titles were similar to those used in the "National Survey of Selected Public Recreation and Park Personnel" conducted by Henkel and Godbey (1977) and the "Occupational Mobility Survey" developed by McDonald (1981). All of these titles are currently utilized in municipal recreation and park agencies in Michigan.

A Likert scale ranging from one to five was utilized to indicate the perceived status of each occupational title. A score of one indicated high-status while a score of five indicated that the position was perceived to be of low status. To develop an occupational status score for each position, the percentage of high rankings (scores of one and two) were calculated for each occupational title. The occupational status scores were ranked from low to high. The occupational status scores ranged from a low

of .23 to a high score of .94. Positions with status scores of .50 and below were classified as low status positions whereas positions with status scores above .51 were considered to be high status positions.

The position of Director of Parks and Recreation received the highest occupational status ranking with a score of .94. The positions of Director of Recreation and Director of Parks received occupational status scores of .92 and .91, respectively. Among the low status positions, the position of Recreation Leader received the highest status score (.50). The positions of Custodian and Secretary received an occupational status score of .23, which was the lowest ranking of all positions.

Table 12 presents a summary of the status of positions contained within each occupational category for the total sample and by gender. Administrative positions received a mean ranking of .86 while positions within the support category received a mean status ranking of .27. Positions in the administrative and supervisory areas received the same mean scores (.86 and .77 respectively) from both male and female respondents.

Table 3 in Appendix A presents a summary of the occupational status scores by functional classification. For those positions in the administrative realm, the occupational status scores ranged from .72 to .94. The position of Director of Parks and Recreation received the highest status score (.94) and the position of Budget Officer received the lowest status score (.72). For positions classified as supervisory in nature, status scores ranged from .75 to .85. The positions of District Supervisor and Functional Supervisor received the highest and lowest status scores respectively (.85 and .75).

TABLE 12

MEAN OCCUPATIONAL STATUS RANKINGS BY
OCCUPATIONAL MOBILITY AND GENDER

Occupational Category	Count	Status Ranking	Count Male	Status Ranking	Count Female	Status Ranking
Administrative	15	.86	10	.86	5	.86
Supervisory	31	.77	18	.77	13	.77
Leadership	34	.54	14	.55	20	.54
Support	<u>31</u>	<u>.27</u>	<u>26</u>	<u>.30</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>.25</u>
Totals	111	.61	68	.62	43	.60

In the leadership area, scores ranged from .50 to .64. The positions of Special Program Coordinator received status scores of .64, Therapeutic Recreation Specialist .58, and Recreation Leader .50, respectively. Lastly, among those occupational classifications that were support oriented, the status scores ranged from .23 to .58. The position of Park Planner received the highest score (.58). The positions of Secretary and Custodian received scores of .23, which were the lowest scores in the support group of positions.

Only six percent of the sample worked in positions which had occupational status scores that exceeded .90. These positions included: Director of Parks and Recreation, Director of Recreation and Director of Parks. Approximately forty-six percent of the respondents are currently working in positions that had occupational status scores that ranged between .64 and .89. These positions included: Assistant Director, District Supervisor, Facility Supervisor, Functional Supervisor, Administrative Assistant and Special Program Coordinator.

A large percentage of the respondents (47.2%) were employed in positions that received occupational status scores between .23 and .50. Of this group of respondents, 19.8% are employed as Recreation Leaders. Table 3 in Appendix A summarizes the number of Black recreation and park personnel by occupational status score.

Changes In Occupational Mobility 1984-88

To ascertain occupational mobility patterns for the sample, a procedure similar to the work of McDonald (1981) was utilized. Each respondent was asked to indicate beginning with the current position held, all full-time positions held over a five year period (1984-88) within the recreation and park profession. The most current position indicated and the position held at the beginning of the five year period (1984) were then assigned occupational status scores.

Occupational mobility was measured by calculating the difference in occupational status scores of the most recent position reported and the position held at the beginning of the designated five year interval (1984-88). A positive score indicated upward mobility, no change in status score indicated stability and a negative score indicated downward mobility. Mobility scores for the sample ranged from $-.52$ to $+.28$. The mean mobility score for the sample was $+.07$. In regard to gender and mobility scores, males received a mean mobility score of $+.08$ compared to a mean score of $+.06$ for female respondents.

In terms of changes in occupational mobility during the period of

1984-88, 31.6% of the sample experienced upward mobility, 56.7% remained stable and 11.7% of the respondents experienced downward mobility. Of the respondents that were employed in the administrative classification, 66.7% experienced upward mobility. For those employees that comprised the supervisory, leadership and support classifications, the vast majority of these employees remained occupationally stable over the designated five year period. Table 13 presents a summary of changes in mobility for Black recreation and park personnel by occupational category.

TABLE 13

SUMMARY OF CHANGES IN OCCUPATIONAL STATUS SCORES 1984-88
FOR BLACK RECREATION AND PARK PERSONNEL IN MICHIGAN

Occupational Category	Upward Count	Row%	Stable Count	Row%	Downward Count	Row%	Row Total	Row %
Administrative	10	66.7%	2	13.3%	3	20.0%	15	100.0%
Supervisory	11	35.5%	18	58.1%	2	6.4%	31	100.0%
Leadership	9	26.5%	21	61.8%	4	11.7%	34	100.0%
Support	<u>5</u>	<u>16.1%</u>	<u>22</u>	<u>80.0%</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>12.9%</u>	<u>31</u>	<u>100.0%</u>
Totals	35	31.6%	63	56.7%	13	11.7%	111	100.0%

The mean mobility change scores by gender can be seen in Table 14. The mean changes ranged from +.08 for those working in administrative positions to +.10 for employees working in support positions. In the administrative and leadership categories, males experienced a greater degree of positive mean change in mobility than their female colleagues. In the

supervisory and support categories, females attained a slightly higher level of positive mean change in mobility than males in the sample.

TABLE 14

MEAN CHANGES IN OCCUPATIONAL MOBILITY BY GENDER FOR
BLACK RECREATION AND PARK PERSONNEL IN MICHIGAN 1984-88

Occupational Category	Count	Mean Change	SD	Count Male	Mean Change	SD	Count Female	Mean Change	SD
Administrative	15	.08	.15	10	.11	.23	5	.06	.07
Supervisory	31	.04	.14	18	.04	.16	13	.05	.13
Leadership	34	.06	.13	14	.10	.18	20	.03	.08
Support	<u>31</u>	<u>.10</u>	<u>.21</u>	<u>26</u>	<u>.09</u>	<u>.20</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>.11</u>	<u>.22</u>
Totals	111	.07	.15	68	.08	.19	43	.06	.12

Table 4 in Appendix A provides a detailed summary of the mobility patterns of the sample by position. Of the respondents who moved upward during this period, 14.3% were employed in the positions of District Supervisor and Special Program Coordinator, respectively. Respondents who worked in the positions of Assistant Director, Director of Recreation, Functional Supervisor, and Senior Park or Operation Staff accounted for 8.6% each of the percentage of personnel who experienced upward mobility.

Of the 56.7% of the sample which remained stable over the period of 1984-1988, 28.6% of employees in this group were employed as Recreation Leaders. The second largest occupational category which experienced stability were those employees who were classified as Park or Operations Staff. They constituted 19.1% of the group of personnel who were stable in

terms of occupational mobility. Facility Directors who comprised 14.3% of the stable group represented the third largest group of employees that experienced no mobility from 1984-88.

The mobility patterns of the respondents in this study are comparable to those of the sample in the study conducted by McDonald (1981). McDonald found that Directors of Parks and Recreation and District Supervisors experienced upward mobility. Those employees working as Facility Directors constituted a large percentage (83.33%) of the respondents who experienced stability. The McDonald (1981) study also found that Administrative Assistants, and Assistant Directors experienced downward mobility.

Perceptions of Factors Impacting Career Advancement

This section focuses upon analyzing responses from personnel included in the sample regarding career advancement. Primarily questions were developed to evoke responses relevant to five key areas: (1) career advancement; (2) continuing education; (3) affirmative action; (4) the appointing authority; and (5) perceptions of discrimination in employment.

Attitudes Toward Career Advancement

Table 15 presents a summary of the responses of Black personnel regarding career advancement. Approximately 67% of the respondents were actively seeking career advancement opportunities. Approximately ninety-three percent of the respondents stated that if their respective department or agency offered them a position that they considered to be a career advancement, they would accept it. Sixty-six percent of the respondents

TABLE 15

RESPONSES OF BLACK RECREATION AND PARK PERSONNEL IN
MICHIGAN TO QUESTIONS PERTAINING TO CAREER ADVANCEMENT

Question	Percent Yes	Percent No	Percent Undecided
Are you presently seeking a position which you consider to be a career advancement?	67.3%	32.7%	
If your Department offered you a position which you considered to be a career advancement, would you accept it?	92.6%	7.4%	
If you were offered a position in another city or state which you considered to be a career advancement, would you accept it?	33.3%	66.7%	
- If no, if the pay were greater, would you accept it?	24.5%	75.5%	
In the last year, have you been offered a position which you consider to be a career advancement?	21.5%	78.5%	
- If yes, did you accept the position?	33.7%	66.7%	
In the last five years, have you been offered a position within your department that is lower than the one you currently hold?	10.0%	90.0%	
- If yes, was this proposed change due to: (a) Budget Reductions	45.5%	54.5%	
(b) Disciplinary Reasons	9.1%	90.9%	
(c) Other	45.5%	45.5%	
- Political Reasons	20.0%	80.0%	
- Union Problems	20.0%	80.0%	
- Transfer	20.0%	80.0%	
- No Explanation	40.0%	60.0%	

stated that they would not accept a position in another state even if the opportunity was considered a career advancement. A large percentage (75.5%) of these respondents stated they would not accept the position if the pay were greater than their current salary.

In the last year, 78.5% of the respondents noted that they had not been offered a position which they considered to be a career advancement. For the 21.5% that stated they had been offered an opportunity, 66.7% did not accept the position. Additionally, over the past five years, ten percent of the respondents stated that they had been offered a position within their respective agency that was lower than the one they are currently occupying. Of the respondents that were offered positions with less advancement potential, 45.5% stated that budget reductions were the principle reason for the action. Other reasons stated for offers of positions at a lower level included: political reasons (20.0%); union problems (20.0%); and being transferred (20.0%).

Overall, the majority of the respondents are actively seeking opportunities for career advancement and if the opportunity were offered within the department or agency, it would be accepted. There seems to be a significant amount of interest in intraorganizational mobility as opposed to interorganizational mobility. The majority of the respondents would not accept a position outside the state. The two factors which may possibly influence the decision to take a position outside the state appear to be advancement (33.3%) and money (24.5%).

Attitudes Toward Continuing Education

Table 16 presents a summary of the responses obtained from Black municipal recreation and park personnel toward continuing education. Over the past five years, 63.6% of the respondents indicated that they had taken advantage of in-service training or continuing education opportunities provided by their employer or professional associations. Of the respondents who indicated that they had not taken advantage of these opportunities, approximately fifty-five percent indicated that they had no plans to do so in the future.

TABLE 16

RESPONSES OF BLACK RECREATION AND PARK PERSONNEL IN MICHIGAN TO QUESTIONS PERTAINING TO CONTINUING EDUCATION

Question	Percent Yes	Percent No	Percent Undecided
Within the last five years, have you participated in any in-service training or continuing education seminars sponsored by your employer or professional associations such as NRPA or MRPA?	63.6%	36.4%	
- If no, do you have any plans in the future to do so?	45.2%	54.8%	
Within the last five years, have you enrolled in a college or university to complete an undergraduate or advanced degree?	38.2%	61.8%	
- If no, do you plan to enroll in the future?	63.2%	36.8%	

In reference to returning to school to complete an undergraduate or advanced degree, 61.8% stated that they had not done so in the last five years. Of those respondents who had not returned to a college or university to continue their education, 63.8% indicated that they plan to do so in the future.

Generally speaking, the respondents took advantage of continuing education opportunities offered by their employers and professional associations. This may be attributed to the fact that normally these opportunities take place during working hours and may not demand commitment of time outside of the workshift.

Returning to a college or university to finish undergraduate or graduate level work appears to be a difficult option for continuing education. This attitude may be a function of lack of time to take courses, and the general unavailability of financial assistance needed to return to school. In spite of these factors, the majority of the respondents plan to enroll in an institution of higher learning in the future. Allowing the degree program to remain uncompleted may result in lost opportunities for occupational mobility. Overall, the sample had a positive attitude toward continuing education. These findings are also consistent with those of the study conducted by McDonald in 1981.

Affirmative Action

Table 17 details the responses of the subjects included in the sample to questions pertaining to affirmative action. The overwhelming majority (86.4%) of the respondents indicated that the municipality that they are employed by had an affirmative action program.

TABLE 17

RESPONSES OF BLACK RECREATION AND PARK PERSONNEL IN MICHIGAN
TO QUESTIONS PERTAINING TO AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

Question	Percent Yes	Percent No	Percent Undecided
Does the city that you work for have an affirmative action program?	86.4%	.9%	12.7%
In your opinion, did you obtain your current position because of affirmative action?	14.8%	78.7%	6.5%

It may be assumed that all municipalities have affirmative action programs, especially when a great percentage of cities are receiving state and federal funds. It is a general prerequisite for receiving funding that the municipality show a commitment to equal employment opportunities. In many instances, lower level employees may not be certain that their agency has an affirmative action program by virtue of the fact that personnel related functions are generally handled in the administrative ranks. This may account for the 13.6% who responded "no" or "undecided" to this question. Additionally, approximately seventy-nine percent of the respondents indicated that they did not feel that they obtained their position because of affirmative action.

In summation, the majority of the municipalities in Michigan which employ Black recreation and park personnel have affirmative action plans/programs. The majority of the respondents felt that affirmative action played no role in them obtaining their position with their agency. These findings are consistent with the attitudes of the sample regarding affirmative action in the study conducted by McDonald (1981).

The Appointing Authority

Table 18 provides a summary of responses to questions regarding the appointing authority (the party who was responsible for hiring the respondent) of the agency. The respondents indicated that the following persons were responsible for the hiring practices within their agency: immediate supervisor (27.8%); division superintendent (18.5%); department director (21.3%); personnel director (24.1%). This indicates that the majority of personnel practices are administered within the department.

The majority of the respondents indicated that they were hired by an employee that was Caucasian (64.5%). Approximately thirty-three percent of the respondents indicated that they were hired by Black administrators. Lastly, 84.5% of the respondents indicated that they were hired by a male administrator. The reported findings relevant to the race and gender of the appointing authority are consistent with the findings of studies conducted by Henkel and Godbey (1977) and Dunn (1977). The key findings in both studies imply that White males occupy a greater percentage of positions in the administration and supervisory ranks where administrative functions such as personnel operations are conducted. As a result, opportunities for advancement into administrative and supervisory positions may be limited for Blacks and females if there is very little turnover.

TABLE 18

RESPONSES OF BLACK RECREATION AND PARK PERSONNEL IN MICHIGAN
TO QUESTIONS PERTAINING TO THE APPOINTING AUTHORITY

Question	Percent Yes	Percent No	Percent Undecided
Who in your department was responsible for hiring you?			
- Immediate Supervisor	27.8%		
- Division Superintendent	18.5%		
- Department Director	21.3%		
- Personnel Director	24.1%		
- Other	8.3%		
What was the race of the person that hired you?			
- Black	32.7%		
- White/Caucasian	64.5%		
- Hispanic	.9%		
- Other	1.8%		
What was the gender of the person that hired you?			
- Male	84.5%		
- Female	15.5%		

Perceptions of Discrimination

Table 19 presents a capsulization of the responses from Black municipal recreation and park personnel in Michigan relevant to perceived feelings of discrimination in employment. Approximately fifty-eight percent of

TABLE 19

RESPONSES OF BLACK RECREATION AND PARK PERSONNEL IN MICHIGAN
TO QUESTIONS PERTAINING TO PERCEPTIONS OF DISCRIMINATION

Question	Percent Yes	Percent No	Percent Undecided
Have you ever felt as though your race, gender or both prevented you from obtaining a promotion?	57.8%	42.2%	
- Race	38.1%		
- Gender	15.9%		
- Explanations			
(a) Low seniority was a factor	4.8%		
(b) In early 50's, there were more Whites than Blacks	1.6%		
(c) Blacks worked only as temporary employees	1.6%		
(d) Forced to start in lowest level jobs	1.6%		
(e) Told not enough experience	1.6%		
(f) Whites had best jobs	3.2%		
(g) Whites have more seniority	4.8%		
(h) Race held me back from better opportunities	1.6%		
(i) Too many men in decision-making positions	3.2%		
(j) Too much racism	4.8%		
Have you ever felt as though your race or gender helped you to obtain a promotion?	23.6%	76.4%	
Have you ever filed charges of discrimination against any of your employers, past or present?	11.9%	88.1%	

the respondents felt that their race, gender or both prevented them from obtaining a promotion. With regard to the term "race" as it is used in the context of the aforementioned statement and Table 19, it is specifically used to identify being Black. Additionally, the term "racism" is defined as the perceived feeling of prejudicial and perhaps discriminatory actions being used against those who are Black.

Of the respondents who answered in the affirmative to the aforementioned question, 38.1% felt that race was the variable which may have prevented them from obtaining the desired promotion. Gender was cited by 15.9% of the respondents as another variable that may have impacted a decision to grant a promotional opportunity. Other responses (28.8%) such as low seniority and racism were a few of the other explanations provided as variables which may have had an impact on promotional opportunities.

In terms of perceptions of race or gender helping to obtain promotions, 76.4% of the respondents felt they had no impact on decisions regarding promotions. Additionally, 88.1% of the respondents reported that they have never filed charges of discrimination against any of their employers, past or present. In summation, a majority (approximately (58%) of Black personnel perceive race and gender as factors which may prevent them from obtaining promotions. This finding is consistent with the findings of research conducted by Silbert (1985) and Salmon (1979). Race followed by gender are the two most important factors which may prevent promotional opportunities from being offered to qualified employees. The majority of the respondents felt that race nor gender help in terms of obtaining a promotion. Even though there is an acknowledgement that race

and gender may serve as barriers to occupational mobility, the vast majority of the respondents have never filed charges of discrimination against any of their employers. If charges are not filed when the employee perceives that a discriminatory act has occurred, then the problem may continue. Most importantly, if discriminatory acts are allowed to continue, then possible opportunities for occupational mobility may be jeopardized for minorities and females.

Occupational Mobility of Black Recreation and Park Personnel In Michigan

The primary focus of this study was to explore further the nature of occupational mobility and the implications for Black municipal recreation and park personnel in Michigan. Based upon an extensive literature review and the examination of theoretical models of occupational mobility, six independent variables were selected which were perceived to be related to occupational mobility for Black recreation and park personnel in Michigan. The study variables were as follows: gender; number of years of related work experience; attained level of education; the presence of an affirmative action plan; the race of the appointing authority; and perceived job satisfaction. To specify the possible relationships between the aforementioned variables and occupational mobility, the following null hypotheses were tested:

1. Among Blacks employed within the municipal recreation and park profession in Michigan, there will be no difference in reported occupational mobility scores between males and females.

2. Among Blacks employed within the municipal recreation and park profession in Michigan, there will be no difference in occupational mobility scores for those with varying number of years of related work experience.
3. Among Blacks employed within the municipal recreation and park profession in Michigan, there will be no difference in occupational mobility scores for those with varying number of years of education.
4. Among Blacks employed within the municipal recreation and park profession in Michigan, there will be no difference in occupational mobility scores for personnel working in agencies perceived to have affirmative action plans versus those perceived not to have affirmative action plans.
5. Among Blacks employed within the municipal recreation and park profession in Michigan, there will be no difference in occupational mobility scores for personnel hired by Black versus non-Black appointing authorities.
6. Among Blacks employed within the municipal recreation and park profession in Michigan, there will be no difference in occupational mobility scores for those with higher levels of perceived job satisfaction versus lower levels of perceived job satisfaction.

The t-test and one-way analysis of variance statistics were utilized to test the hypotheses. With the dependent variable consisting of interval level data and the independent variables being nominal in nature, t-test and one-way analysis of variance were the most appropriate statistics to use. These statistics were also allowed for the examination of possible differences between two or more groups on a given dependent variable. Hypotheses 1, 4 and 5 were tested utilizing the t-test. Hypotheses 2, 3 and 6 were tested employing the one way analysis of variance statistic. All of the hypotheses were tested at the .05 level of significance.

Gender

Table 20 summarizes the results of the t-test for the hypothesis:

Hypotheses 1:

Among Blacks employed within the municipal recreation and park profession in Michigan, there will be no difference in occupational mobility scores between males and females.

The pooled variance estimate was utilized to conduct the t-test. Being that the hypothesis was non-directional in nature, a 2-tailed test was conducted. A t-value of 1.05, (DF = 109; $p < .15$) was obtained, thus the null hypothesis was not rejected. Overall, the mobility scores are not significantly different for Black males and females in the sample when gender is taken into consideration.

TABLE 20

T-TEST FOR GENDER AND OCCUPATIONAL MOBILITY 1984-88

Group 1: Gender = 1, Male Group 2: Gender = 2, Female

t-test for: Mobility Score

N=111

Valid Cases = 111

Missing Cases = 0

	Number of Cases	Mean	Standard Deviation
Group 1	68	.08	.19
Group 2	43	.06	.12

Pooled Variance Estimate			
	t Value	DF	2-Tail Prob.
	1.05	109	.15

Years Of Related Work Experience

The second hypothesis tested relating to occupational mobility for Black recreation and park personnel was the following:

Hypotheses 2:

Among Blacks employed within the municipal recreation and park profession in Michigan, there will be no difference in occupational mobility scores for those with varying number of years of related work experience.

To test the hypothesis under scrutiny, one way analysis of variance was conducted to determine if the years of related experience had an impact on occupational mobility. The respondents in the sample were segmented by

the number of years of related experience (1-10, 11-20, 21-41). As indicated in Table 21, an F-ratio of .34 (DF = 2,108, p. <.71) was obtained. As a result, the null hypothesis was not rejected. Experience appears to make no difference in determining occupational mobility.

TABLE 21
ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE
YEARS OF EXPERIENCE AND OCCUPATIONAL MOBILITY 1984-88

One-Way ANOVA For: Years of Related Experience and Mobility

N=111

Valid Cases = 111

Missing Cases = 0

ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

<u>GROUP</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>MEAN</u>	<u>SD</u>
1 = 1-10 YEARS	46	.09	.15
2 = 11-20 YEARS	43	.06	.17
3 = 21-41 YEARS	<u>22</u>	<u>.06</u>	<u>.14</u>
	111	GRAND MEAN	.15

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: MOBILITY

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>SUM OF SQUARES</u>	<u>D.F.</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARE</u>	<u>F-RATIO</u>	<u>PROB.</u>
BETWEEN	.020	2	.0099	.34	.71
WITHIN	3.138	108	.029		
TOTAL	3.157	110			

Attained Level of Education

The third hypothesis relating to occupational mobility for Black recreation and park personnel reads as follows:

Hypotheses 3:

Among Blacks employed within the municipal recreation and park profession in Michigan, there will be no difference in occupational mobility scores for those with varying number of years of education.

To test this hypothesis, one-way analysis of variance was conducted to test the impact of education on occupational mobility. The reported number of years of education and the mobility scores were utilized to conduct the test. As noted in Table 22, an F-ratio of .99 was obtained (DF = 2,108, $p < .38$). As a result, the null hypothesis under scrutiny was not rejected. It may be concluded that the attained level of education does not make a difference in terms of occupational mobility for Black recreation and park personnel.

Affirmative Action Plan

The fourth hypothesis relates to the presence of an affirmative action plan and occupational mobility. The hypothesis containing these two variables is as follows:

TABLE 22
ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE
LEVEL OF EDUCATION AND OCCUPATIONAL MOBILITY 1984-88

One-Way ANOVA For: Level of Education and Mobility

N=111

Valid Cases = 111

Missing Cases = 0

ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

<u>GROUP</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>MEAN</u>	<u>SD</u>
1 = 9-12 YEARS OF EDUCATION	21	.04	.13
2 = 13-16 YEARS OF EDUCATION	59	.07	.15
3 = 17-20 YEARS OF EDUCATION	<u>31</u>	<u>.10</u>	<u>.18</u>
111 GRAND MEAN		.07	.15

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: MOBILITY

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>SUM OF SQUARES</u>	<u>D.F.</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARE</u>	<u>F-RATIO</u>	<u>PROB.</u>
BETWEEN	.057	2	.028	.99	.38
WITHIN	3.101	108	.029		
TOTAL	3.157	110			

Hypotheses 4:

Among Blacks employed within the municipal recreation and park profession in Michigan, there will be no difference in occupational mobility scores for personnel working in agencies with perceived affirmative action plans versus those without perceived affirmative action plans.

TABLE 23

T-TEST FOR PRESENCE OF AN AFFIRMATIVE ACTION PLAN
AND OCCUPATIONAL MOBILITY 1984-88

Group 1: Affirm. Act.: Yes = 1 Group 2: Affirm. Act.: No = 2

t-test for: Presence of an Affirmative Action Plan

N=111

Valid Cases = 111

Missing Cases = 0

	<u>Number of Cases</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Standard Deviation</u>
Group 1	95	.08	.18
Group 2	16	.06	.13

Separate Variance Estimate			
	<u>t</u>	<u>DF</u>	<u>2-Tail Prob.</u>
	.35	109	.36

A t-test utilizing separate variance estimates was utilized to test the null hypothesis. A non-directional hypothesis was in force, therefore a 2-tailed t-test was utilized. As noted in Table 23, the t-value obtained was .35 (DF = 109; $p < .37$). As a result, the null hypothesis was not rejected. Based upon these findings, there appears to be no significant difference in mobility scores between those working in agencies with perceived affirmative action plans versus those without perceived affirmative action plans.

Race Of The Appointing Authority

The fifth hypothesis tested was related to the impact that the race of the appointing authority has on occupational mobility for Black recreation and park personnel. The hypothesis reads as follows:

Hypotheses 5:

Among Blacks employed within the municipal recreation and park profession in Michigan, there will be no difference in occupational mobility scores for personnel hired by Black versus non-Black appointing authorities.

A t-test utilizing a separate variance estimate was used to test the null hypothesis. The pertinent hypothesis was non-directional in nature, therefore a 2-tailed test was conducted. As indicated in Table 24, t-value of .79 (DF = 109; $p < .51$) was obtained. As a result, the null hypothesis under scrutiny was not rejected. Based upon this finding, the race of the appointing authority appears to make no difference in mobility scores for Black recreation and park personnel.

TABLE 24

T-TEST FOR RACE OF APPOINTING AUTHORITY
AND OCCUPATIONAL MOBILITY 1984-88

Group 1: Race = 1, Black Group 2: Race = 2, Non-Black

t-test for: Race of the Appointing Authority

N=111

Valid Cases = 111

Missing Cases = 0

	<u>Number of Cases</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Standard Deviation</u>
Group 1	36	.08	.18
Group 2	75	.06	.13

Separate Variance Estimate			
	<u>t Value</u>	<u>DF</u>	<u>2-Tail Prob.</u>
	.79	109	.51

Job Satisfaction

The final hypothesis tested pertained to perceived job satisfaction and its relationship to occupational mobility. The hypothesis read as follows:

Hypotheses 6:

Among Blacks employed in the municipal recreation and park profession in Michigan, there will be no difference in occupational mobility scores for those with higher levels of perceived job satisfaction versus lower levels of perceived job satisfaction.

To test this final hypothesis, one way analysis of variance was utilized. The job satisfaction and mobility scores were utilized as variables to conduct the test. As indicated in Table 25, an F-ratio of 1.58 (DF = 2,108, $p < .21$) was obtained. As a result, the null hypothesis was not rejected, thus indicating that job satisfaction does not make a difference in the mobility scores for Black recreation and park personnel in Michigan.

TABLE 25
ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE
JOB SATISFACTION AND OCCUPATIONAL MOBILITY 1984-88

One-Way ANOVA For: Job Satisfaction and Mobility

N=111

Valid Cases = 111

Missing Cases = 0

ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

<u>GROUP</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>MEAN</u>	<u>SD</u>
1 = DISSATISFIED/NEUTRAL	31	.11	.18
2 = SATISFIED	60	.06	.13
3 = VERY SATISFIED	<u>20</u>	<u>.05</u>	<u>.15</u>
111 GRAND MEAN		.07	.15

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: MOBILITY

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>SUM OF SQUARES</u>	<u>D.F.</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARE</u>	<u>F-RATIO</u>	<u>PROB.</u>
BETWEEN	.090	2	.045	1.58	.21
WITHIN	3.067	108	.028		
TOTAL	3.157	110			

Multiple Regression Analysis

To provide an opportunity to look at the relationship between these variables simultaneously, multiple regression analysis was conducted. In addition to the six independent variables selected for study, a seventh independent variable, age, was inserted into the equation. In the models of occupational mobility developed by Sandefur (1981) and Robinson (1986), age, is noted to have a negative impact on mobility. To determine if age played a role in determining occupational mobility for the sample in the present study, the variable was added to the equation.

Being that three (3) of the independent variables (gender, presence of a perceived affirmative action plan, and race of the appointing authority) contained nominal data, dummy variables were utilized so they could be included in the equation. The variables were inserted into the equation in the order that the hypotheses tests were conducted.

Table 26 presents the results of the multiple regression analysis. An R Squared vlaue of .08 was obtained. This is indicative of the fact that only 8% of the variation in the mobility scores of the sample can be explained when the seven independent variables are included in the regression equation together. The remaining 92% of the variation in mobility scores of the sample may be attributed to the other factors not included in the equation.

TABLE 26

MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS WITH OCCUPATIONAL MOBILITY
1984-88 AS THE DEPENDENT VARIABLES

<u>INDEX</u>	<u>VARIABLE NAME</u>	<u>MEAN</u>	<u>STD. DEV.</u>
1	Gender	.39	.49
2	Related Work Experience	13.31	7.47
3	Attained Level of Education	15.29	2.23
4	Affirmative Action Plan	.14	.35
5	Race of Appointing Authority	.68	.47
6	Level of Job Satisfaction	73.40	.60
7	Age	34.80	7.62
TOTALS		.07	.15

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: Occupational Mobility

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: Occupational Mobility

<u>VARIABLE</u>	<u>REGRESSION COEFFICIENT</u>	<u>STD. ERROR</u>	<u>T(DF=103)</u>	<u>PROB.</u>	<u>PART. r 2</u>
Gender	- .02470	.03692	- .669	.50472	.00430
Experience	- .00007	.00226	- .319	.75014	.00098
Education	- .00096	.00775	- .125	.90096	.00015
AAP	- .01470	.04663	- .315	.75321	.00096
Race. Ap. Auth.	- .02140	.03643	- .587	.55837	.00330
Job Satis.	- .00334	.00165	-2.025	.04548	.03830
Age	- .00227	.00237	- .957	.34065	.00098

CONSTANT = .51

STD. ERROR OF ESTIMATE = .17

ADJUSTED R SQUARED = .02

R SQUARED = .08

MULTIPLE R = .29

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE TABLE

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>SUM OF SQUARES</u>	<u>D.F.</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARE</u>	<u>F-RATIO</u>	<u>PROB.</u>
REGRESSION	.260	7	.036	1.31	.25
RESIDUAL	2.900	103	.028		
TOTAL	3.16	110			

Summary of Hypotheses Testing

The following is a brief summary of the findings of the statistical tests conducted on the study hypothesis:

Hypotheses 1:

The null hypothesis was not rejected. There was no difference found in the mobility scores of Black males and females in the sample. Gender appears to make no difference in regards to occupational mobility scores for Black municipal recreation and park personnel in Michigan.

Hypotheses 2:

The null hypothesis was not rejected. The number of years of related work experience makes no difference with respect to occupational mobility scores for Black municipal recreation and park personnel in Michigan.

Hypotheses 3:

The null hypothesis was not rejected. The attained level of education appears to make no significant difference in reference to occupational mobility scores for Black municipal recreation and park personnel in Michigan.

Hypotheses 4:

The null hypothesis was not rejected. The mobility scores for Black municipal recreation and park personnel were not significantly different for those in agencies with perceived affirmative action plans or without perceived affirmative action plans.

Hypotheses 5:

The null hypothesis was not rejected. The race of the appointing authority appears to make no difference in relationship to occupational mobility scores for Black municipal recreation and park personnel in Michigan.

Hypotheses 6:

The null hypothesis was not rejected. The level of perceived job satisfaction appears to make no difference in determining occupational mobility for Black municipal recreation and park personnel in Michigan.

The following chapter will provide further discussion of the findings of the analysis of the data relevant to occupational mobility for Black municipal recreation and park personnel in Michigan.

Chapter 6

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The principle purpose of this study was to examine those factors which are related to the occupational mobility of Black personnel within the recreation and park profession in Michigan. This research effort included the objective of providing a detailed descriptive analysis of the occupational status of Blacks employed by municipal recreation and park agencies in Michigan.

The literature pertaining to occupational mobility from several disciplines was reviewed carefully. A theoretical model of occupational mobility was developed for the purposes of this study (note Figure 1, Chapter 4). The independent variables contained in the model were as follows: (1) gender; (2) the number of years of related work experience; (3) the attained level of education; (4) the perceived presence of an affirmative action plan; (5) the race of the appointing authority; and (6) perceived level of job satisfaction.

In this model of occupational mobility, the employee goes to work for an agency and brings along an attained level of education and related work experience. Over time (tenure/duration), a level of job satisfaction is developed. To meet the organizational needs of the agency the employee is work for, as job opportunities arise, vacant positions must be filled. The organization begins an internal recruitment giving current employees who apply consideration. The attained level of formal education and amount of related work experience are considered at this time. Both of these variables are considered to be positive factors that will impact occupational mobility.

During the selection process, the gender of the applicant and the race of the appointing authority may serve as negative factors in the selection process. The underlying assumption is that the gender and racial biases of the appointing authority will prohibit the employee from being selected. Also, at this point in time, the affirmative action plan of the agency would serve as a positive factor in the selection process. The assumption is that if there is an imbalance in the workforce, the position may be earmarked for a minority.

Whether the employee is selected or not, a decision is made. If the employee decides to remain with the organization, he or she will experience intraorganizational mobility. If the employee opts to leave the organization as a result of not being selected or if opportunities arise outside of the current agency, then interorganizational mobility is experienced.

Based upon this model, six hypotheses were developed and tested to determine the relationship between the independent variables and occupational mobility for Black personnel employed by municipal recreation and park agencies in Michigan.

The summary and conclusions of this study are presented in five sections: (1) summary and discussion of key findings; (2) general conclusions; (3) an evaluation of the model of occupational mobility developed for this study; (4) recommendations and implications; and lastly, (5) the researcher's closing remarks.

Discussion of Key Findings

Pursuant to the results of this research effort, several key findings were made. These key findings are discussed under the following individual

variables contained in the theoretical model of occupational mobility:

Gender

In the tests of gender, no differences in mobility were observed. The null hypothesis was not rejected ($t=1.05$, $DF=109$; $p < .15$). Overall, no difference was found in the mobility scores between males and females in the sample. On the whole, Black males and females in the sample experienced the same degree of occupational mobility.

In relationship to the theoretical model of occupational mobility developed for my study, gender was predicted to have a negative impact on occupational mobility. The findings related to gender are in direct conflict with the manner in which gender is treated in the model of occupational mobility developed for this study and the literature. Research conducted by Kerr (1973), Dunn (1977), Henkel and Godbey (1977), and Robinson (1986), all conclude that gender has been a factor that has adversely impacted the progress of women in the recreation and park profession. These studies imply that women have been denied access to top level positions which have been traditionally occupied by males.

One possible explanation is that perhaps over the last five years, the employment status of women in the recreation and park profession has improved. More women have entered the profession since the studies by Kerr (1973) and Dunn (1977) were conducted. As a result, women in the recreation and park profession have possibly achieved comparable amounts of education and training that allows them to compete with men for available positions.

Others have argued that there has been an improvement in the employment status of women. Blum and Smith (1988) in a paper entitled "Women's Mobility In The Corporation: A Critique of the Politics of Optimism", note that the percentage of women in executive, administrative, and managerial occupations increased from 18.5% in 1970 to 36% in 1985. In this same essay, the authors note that the improved qualifications and abilities of women to compete for higher level positions in the workplace have assisted in breaking down barriers to occupational mobility. Blum and Smith (1988) argue that the critical issue facing women and minorities is no longer the lack of equal opportunity, but it is an issue of gaining equal ability to take advantage of opportunities as they arise. The authors conclude that, in general, women have advanced considerably in the paid labor market. Progressive employment policies and public awareness of gender inequality within the workplace have helped to open the doors of opportunity for women (Blum and Smith, 1988).

To further substantiate the position that the employment status of women, in general, has improved, extracts from a paper written by Sokoloff (1988) entitled "Evaluating Gains and Losses by Black and White Women and Men in the Professions, 1960-80" are noted. The author reports that according to the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (1982) between 1960-1980, White men declined 83.5% to 58.9% of all professionals. This decline saw increases for Black and other racial/ethnic women and men in the professional labor force. Findings such as these conclude that White men have experienced losses whereas women and Blacks have made important gains in the most prestigious jobs in U.S. society. The author also notes that this conclusion is supported by a Bureau of Labor Statistics study

which indicated that in 1986, for the first time, women were a majority of those in the nearly 50 occupations regularly surveyed by the Census Bureau. Sokoloff (1988) concluded that women are now moving into the more elite, prestigious and higher paying White male dominated professions and that Black women appear to be the most mobile group of all.

In noting the occupational distribution of this sample, women are represented well in the administrative and supervisory categories. In the leadership occupational category, women occupy a greater percentage of positions than their male colleagues. Overall, in relationship to the size of the sample, women occupied a substantial percentage (38.7%) of positions across the four occupational categories. This may indeed be one indicator of the improving position of women in the recreation and park profession.

There are other factors which may have contributed to the finding that gender made no difference in the mobility scores for this group of Black recreation and park personnel. First, it may no longer be necessary for an employer to hire Black females over Black males to meet affirmative action goals. The workforce of municipal agencies may be balanced enough to bypass the process of earmarking positions which must be filled by female employees. If this is the case, then gender may not be an important factor in terms of the personnel selection process. The ultimate goal of the employer is to select the most qualified applicant for the position.

Secondly, many municipalities through the collective bargaining process, are bound into a competitive examination and seniority system in reference to promotional opportunities. After establishing seniority and competing in the competitive examination process, the chances for upward mobility are equalized for all employees. The opportunities are equalized

in the sense that objective measures are used to determine eligibility for promotional opportunities. Generally, without regard to gender, the most qualified employee will be selected.

In sum, the principal discovery was that gender made no difference in relationship to occupational mobility for the sample in this study.

The Number of Years of Related Work Experience

A second key finding of this research effort relates to the number of years of related work experience. The results of the hypothesis test relating to this variable indicated that experiences makes no difference in determining occupational mobility ($F=.34$; $DF=2,108$; $p < .71$).

This finding contradicts the manner in which experience is treated in the model of occupational mobility developed for my study. In the study model, the number of years of related work experience is predicted to be positively related to mobility. The underlying assumption is that the experience acquired during the time in a job will prepare the employee for a higher level position within the agency if the opportunity becomes available.

One possible explanation as to why the results differed in the present study relates to the type of experience that the employee acquires during his or her tenure with the agency. In some instances, tremendous amounts of experience may not be sufficient to be selected for a specific position. An employer may be attempting to fill a position that requires a specialized type of skill (i.e. computer analyst, marketing specialist, budget analyst). An employee may have several years of general experience in leadership or lower level supervisory positions, but may not have the

required technical skills or experience to justify his or her selection for the position. As a result, the type of experience, not the number of years of experience, may be the determining factor. Korn (1988), in his article entitled "Blocked", states that opportunities for mobility are often lost due to the limitations of the employee. These limitations manifest themselves in not having the appropriate skills to make one's self "promotable". Korn (1988) notes that in order for the employee to remove the "self-imposed" barriers to occupational mobility, he or she must take the initiative to find out what experiences or skills are needed to become "promotable" within the organization. In essence, the author is indicating that employees who do not have the type of experiences that may be needed to get promoted should acquire them through some form of continuing education.

In summary, inspite of the longstanding notion that substantial amounts of experience may lead to greater opportunities for upward mobility, the results differed for this sample. No difference was found in the mobility scores of the sample when the number of years of related experience is considered.

Attained Level of Education

There was no difference found between the level of education of the respondents and occupational mobility ($F=.99$; $DF=2,108$; $p < .38$).

Education, for this sample, was not found to be related to occupational mobility for Black municipal recreation and park personnel in Michigan.

This finding is certainly inconsistent with the manner in which education is treated in the study model. In the model of occupational mobility

developed for the present study, education is treated as a general resource that will have a positive impact on mobility. The underlying assumption is that increased levels of education generally leads to increased opportunities for upward mobility. The work of Sandefur (1981), Jencks (1979), Hudson (1978) and Blau and Duncan (1967) all point to the fact that educational attainment plays a major role in determining occupational mobility for Blacks.

The findings of my study relevant to education and occupational mobility are similar to those found in the work of McDonald (1981) which relates directly to occupational mobility for Black personnel in the recreation and park profession. In her study, no relationship was found between education/schooling and occupational mobility. Perhaps there is some linkage between the two variables that is peculiar to the recreation and park profession exclusively. It may be possible that education is used as a mere "tool" to meet the minimum entrance requirements to enter the workforce and then is no longer considered as a vehicle for advancement.

One of the findings that may be directly related to education and mobility is the fact that over the last five years, 61.8% of the sample had not enrolled in a college or university to complete an undergraduate or advanced degree. In many instances, for administrative and supervisory positions, a minimum of a bachelors or masters degree may be required to be considered for the position. If the candidate does not meet the minimum educational requirements, he or she may be ruled ineligible to compete for the position. As a result, an opportunity to become upwardly mobile may be lost.

A second explanation for why the results of the present study differed from the results of the aforementioned studies lies in the value that the employer places on formal education after the employee enters the workforce. In some cases when new positions are developed or the educational requirements for existing positions are re-evaluated, the educational requirements may be lessened. This process is common in agencies that operate in highly unionized work environments. The underlying motive is to create opportunities for employees who have a number of years of service, but little formal education. In practice, this happens with some degree of frequency when entry level professional positions that require an undergraduate degree are created or re-evaluated. Entry level professional positions such as: Recreation Leader, Parks Supervisor and Forestry Technician may be targeted. In essence, the value of a formalized education is diminished.

Another explanation that may shed light on the findings relevant to education in the present study, lies in the renewed interest in continuing education. In many instances, both the employee and the employer stand to gain more from various forms of continuing education rather than traditional methods of educational advancement. Forms of continuing education such as attending workshops and seminars are often less costly and less time consuming when compared to the costs and time spent when taking professional coursework at a college or university.

To further support the aforementioned explanation, a study conducted by Cato (1986), relating to the attitudes and behaviors of practitioners in the recreation and park profession is referenced. The purpose of the study was to ascertain the attitudes and behavioral intentions of practitioners

toward continuing education. A sample of 400 members of the American Park and Recreation Society (APRS) branch of the National Recreation and Park Association were mailed questionnaires. A response rate of 58% was achieved. Multiple regression was used to test the related hypotheses. Some of the significant results suggested that: (1) encouragement from the employer was an important motivational factor in the employee's choice to engage in continuing education activities; (2) continuing education programs do not have to give credit towards a college degree to be important; and (3) employees are willing to pay for continuing education opportunities themselves.

In summary, the results of the study by Cato may be indicative of a preference toward continuing education as opposed to formal education after entering the workforce. The findings, as reported in the study by Cato (1986), are consistent with the attitudes of the sample in my study that relate to continuing education. In the present study, 63.6% of the sample indicated that they had participated in some form of continuing education, while 61.8% of the sample reported that within the last five years, they had not enrolled in a college or university to complete an undergraduate or graduate degree.

In relationship to the theoretical model of occupational mobility developed for the present study, formal education may have its strongest impact at the time of organizational entry. Thereafter, the employee and the employer may be best served by the employee's participation in continuing education activities. Continuing education may be the mechanism for acquiring specific job-related skills that the employer is looking for.

Acquiring specific job-related skills may assist in facilitating occupational mobility.

Overall, the sample was well educated. Approximately eighty percent of the sample had completed an undergraduate degree or higher. Those who had completed four year degrees held a great number of positions in the leadership, supervisory and administrative classifications.

In summation, the finding that the attained level of education of the respondents made no difference in the mobility scores is rather unique. It contradicts much of the literature and many of the theoretical models that are related to occupational mobility. It appears that education may be most useful in gaining entry into an organization or agency. After initial entry, the role that formalized education plays in facilitating upward mobility may decline or have less impact.

The Presence Of A Perceived Affirmative Action Plan

Contrary to the study model, the work of Hall (1987), Shivers (1985), and Riley (1984), affirmative action was not a factor in determining the occupational mobility of Black recreation and park personnel in this study. In the theoretical model of occupational mobility developed for this study, the presence of a perceived affirmative action plan was predicted to have a positive impact on the mobility scores of the respondents. No significant difference in mobility scores was found between Black personnel working in agencies with or without perceived affirmative action plans ($t=.35$; $DF=109$; $p<.37$). Affirmative action plans may be adopted as an organizational policy, but may have little impact on advancing Blacks and other minorities within the hierarchy of the organization after entry.

Inspite of the finding that affirmative action had no impact on mobility for this sample, when there is a clearly defined pattern of underutilization and underrepresentation, the agency may be mandated by policy to remedy the problem on a case by case basis. In this situation, qualified minorities and women may be placed into these positions to remedy disparities. This circumstance may be the primary example of the impact that affirmative action has after an employee has been in the system for a length of time.

Specifically, the results of the studies conducted by Shivers (1985) and Riley (1984) indicated that affirmative action played a direct role in occupational attainment and mobility for Blacks. The results of this research effort indicate that the presence or absence of a perceived affirmative action plan made no difference at all in the occupational mobility scores of the sample. Approximately seventy-nine percent of the sample indicated that they did not think that they obtained their current position because of affirmative action. Subsequent to this finding, it may be construed that the role of affirmative action has been somewhat diminished, especially when related to its impact in terms of the process of occupational mobility.

It should be noted that the results of the statistical test and the descriptive data used in the preceding paragraph should be interpreted with caution. The problem is that many employees may not be certain whether they obtained their position as a result of affirmative action. Often, in practice, employees are seldom told as to whether the position they were about to fill was designated as one that was earmarked for a minority of women. Generally, the appointing authority and the personnel officer are

the only two parties that have access to this information. As a result, the respondents may have answered the question with only an "educated guess".

Additionally, it must be noted that in many instances, affirmative action may have its greatest impact at the time of organizational entry. Frequently, it is used as a measure to remedy existing disparities in the workforce. Nalbandian (1989) in his article which summarizes the Supreme Court's position on affirmative action, concluded that the high court is primarily concerned with limiting affirmative action tightly within the scope of the problem it is supposed to solve. Principally, this problem has been one of remedying disparities in the workforce and eliminating barriers to equal employment opportunities for women and minorities.

After an employee has entered the system, if the workforce is balanced, there may be no need to utilize affirmative action. Opportunities for mobility may be a direct function of the competitive examination process, and the seniority and merit systems. This is especially common in municipalities whose workforce may be bound by one or more collective bargaining agreements. In essence, affirmative action may be most beneficial to Blacks in the recreation and park profession and other professions as a means of organizational entry. Affirmative action may not be useful after one has already entered the personnel system of the municipality.

Braddock and McPartland (1987) present an interesting argument that relates directly to the ineffectiveness of affirmative action after the employee has been in an organization over a period of time. Their argument is based upon the fact that often minorities are not tied into jobs that

have designated career paths and opportunities for training. They also contend that the methods by which knowledge of a job opening is transmitted may be a detrimental factor in relationship to minorities applying for available positions.

The authors note that, in some instances, information about openings are not publicly posted but passed along through informal channels. In some cases, available openings may be filled by laterally transferring non-minorities into these positions. The general outcome is that minorities may not apply for an open position due to a lack of information or because the vacancy has been filled through a lateral transfer of a non-minority employee. In essence, the affirmative action process is never activated due to a lack of minority applicants. The general assumption being made is that there are no minorities available or interested in the internal labor pool because no minorities applied.

Considering the insignificant role that affirmative action practices play in facilitating upward mobility, other means of facilitating upward mobility may warrant serious consideration. Blacks and other minorities may be forced to opt for both formal and informal networking and mentoring programs to facilitate upward mobility. These opportunities may take place within or outside of the agency.

In summation, the presence of a perceived affirmative action plan made no difference in the mobility scores of the sample. Affirmative action, as a practice, is perhaps most effective as a means of allowing Blacks and other minorities to enter organizations. It may not be an effective measure to facilitate upward mobility within the agency hierarchy. There may be a substantial number of other variables such as union contracts and

quotas that may intervene into the process. It may be more advantageous for Blacks in the recreation and park profession to examine alternative means for facilitating upward mobility.

The Race of the Appointing Authority

Another key finding of this research endeavor evolved around the role of the appointing authority in the process of occupational mobility. The relevant null hypothesis was tested and not rejected ($t=.79$; $DF=109$; $p<.51$). The results of the statistical test indicated that the race of the appointing authority did not make a significant difference in the mobility scores of the respondents.

This finding is not consistent with the results of studies conducted in the area of discrimination in employment. Lewis (1986), Taylor and Tuch (1986) and Cox (1985) conducted research on discrimination in employment in the public sector. The results of the statistical test conducted in my study did not confirm the manner in which the variable of the race of the appointing authority is treated in the theoretical model of occupational mobility developed for the study. In the model, this variable is predicted to make a significant difference in the mobility scores of the sample. The variable was predicted to be a negative factor in terms of occupational mobility. The underlying assumption was that racial biases and discriminatory selection practices would stifle attempts to become occupationally mobile when promotional opportunities arose.

The literature cited suggests that the race of the appointing authority may be a key factor which may impact occupational mobility for Blacks.

Research conducted by Lewis (1986), Taylor and Tuch (1986), and Cox (1985) all underscore this statement. A key finding in the study conducted by Lewis (1986) serves to further substantiate the position that the race of the appointing authority impacts mobility for Blacks. Lewis concluded the following:

"People in staff positions may exercise substantial impacts on their agencies' policies and hiring practices, thus influencing mobility for Blacks through the personnel selection process" (p. 27).

In spite of these findings, in the present study, no evidence was found that would assist in substantiating their positions. Perhaps the race of the appointing authority and its impact on occupational mobility for Blacks needs to be re-evaluated. It may be possible that the party who acts in this capacity may not be the party who makes the decision to employ initially or make promotions years later. This decision may come in the form of a recommendation from a subordinate who acts in a supervisory capacity.

It is highly probable that the appointing authority may have been acting on someone else's decision. The key question is who was the actual party that made the initial decision to hire and/or promote? In the present study, the data needed to address this issue was not available. The appointing authority may have been the party who signed the selection affidavit, but may not have been the party who actually made the decision. The answer to this question cannot be easily discerned with the available data.

There are three possible explanations for why no difference was found

with respect to the race of the appointing authority and mobility for the respondents in this sample. First, it is generally a standard practice for the agency director or personnel director to "sign-off" on all personnel transactions. Records relating to the composition and distribution of the workforce are supplied to those with personnel related responsibilities. A list of eligible employees is also forwarded for selection purposes. Upon making a selection, the party must justify the selection and have the agency director or personnel director affix his or her signature to the document. This system of checks and balances may be a factor in preventing racially motivated prejudices and biases from entering into the selection process.

Secondly, the appointing authority may have changed during this five year period. Even though the duration of time spent in "exempt" positions is usually considerable, in many cases, a turnover of personnel can occur. Positions in the exempt class, such as Assistant Director and Superintendent of Parks, are usually sought as "stepping stones" to a directorship. The person that hired an employee may not be the same party who may make a decision about promoting the same employee a few years later. Because of this turnover factor, the immediate supervisor may be the party that makes the recommendation for hiring or promoting an employee.

Another reason for this contradiction is that fact that the personnel practices of many cities are governed by strong civil service systems. Inherent in these personnel systems are mechanisms such as objective testing procedures and mandates for reporting personnel practices which may

ensure equitable application of personnel policies and procedures. With a system of checks and balances, much of the decision making responsibility of the appointing authority, in the personnel selection process, may be taken away.

With the onset of legislation governing employment and personnel practices and the stiff penalties for discrimination in employment, it may not be practical or worthwhile to attempt to discriminate. The employee has recourses available through labor unions and civil service commissions, in the public sector. Primarily, grievances and requests for civil service hearings are the two principal recourses employees have as a mechanism for dealing with perceived discrimination. This factor may be the reason why 88.1% of the sample had never filed charges of discrimination against any of their employers, past or present.

The findings related to the hypothesis pertaining to the race of the appointing authority and the supporting literature previously mentioned do not relate to any theories of discrimination discussed in Chapter 2. There was no evidence found in my study which would serve to validate this theory. Perhaps the use of primary data sources, such as actual statistical data from the agency, may have yielded different results.

As indicated in Table 18, 64.5% of the sample were hired by a party that was White. Additionally, 57.8% of the sample indicated that their race, gender or both may have been factors which kept them from obtaining promotions. The key point is that the feelings expressed by the respondents are indeed perceptions. Considering the results of the hypothesis test, the perception of the denial of promotional opportunities after the

employee is in the system for prejudicial reasons may not be a realistic one. Other factors, such as misunderstanding the personnel system or dismay stemming from not meeting the requirements for competing for a higher position, may have led to the perception of discriminatory practices being employed.

In conclusion, the race of the appointing authority made no difference in the mobility scores of the sample. Factors associated with discrimination in employment are extremely difficult to prove without examining primary data sources and utilizing better research methods. Even though there may be perceptions of discrimination expressed by employees, there may not have been an act of discrimination committed. With recourses (civil service commissions, grievance procedures) available to contest perceived acts of discrimination, formal charges may not always be filed. The stringent penalties for violation of federal, state and local legislation pertaining to discrimination in employment may persuade employers not to sanction questionable hiring and promotional practices. Both the Civil Rights Act of 1964 as amended, at the federal level, and the Elliot-Larsen Civil Rights Act, at the state level, allow very substantial punitive awards to be made to the plaintiff if the agency is found guilty of discrimination in employment.

The Perceived Level of Job Satisfaction

In relationship to job satisfaction, no significant differences were found between the mobility scores of the respondents and their general satisfaction scores ($F=1.58$; $DF=2,108$; $p<.21$). As a result, it may be

assumed that job satisfaction does not play an important role in determining occupational mobility for Black municipal recreation and park personnel in Michigan.

This finding was not consistent with the manner that job satisfaction is treated in the model. In the model developed for this study, job satisfaction has been designated as a factor which may impact occupational mobility in a positive manner. The underlying assumption in the study model was that increased levels of job satisfaction may lead to upward mobility within the agency as opportunities presented themselves. An additional assumption relating to general job satisfaction was that the employee would experience a sufficient amount of general job satisfaction derived from items such as job security and compensation (extrinsic factors). This perceived level of job satisfaction would in turn keep the employee working in the agency seeking opportunities for mobility within the agency.

The findings related to job satisfaction in this study are also inconsistent with the results of the studies conducted by Penn (1985) and Perry (1985). Both studies imply that job satisfaction plays an important role in relationship to occupational mobility. In the present study, the perceived level of job satisfaction was predicted to impact occupational mobility. It was observed that job satisfaction played no role in the occupational mobility experienced by the sample. The general assumption was that the level of perceived job satisfaction evolved around issues relating to compensation and job security. If compensation was satisfactory and job security were provided, then the employee should be generally

satisfied. If the employee is satisfied with his or her employment situation, then he or she will remain with the same agency and attempt to become upwardly mobile within the system.

In practice, managers and subordinates are often concerned about the amount of input that they are actually given in the development, implementation and evaluation of agency policies. In many instances, agency staff may be compelled to abide by, or implement policies that they may not agree with. As a practice, it is not uncommon for lower level employees not to be consulted when agency policy is formulated. Policy formulation is generally a task reserved for top level managers (Directors, Division Superintendents). As a result, there may be an amount of disenchantment with agency policy, thus contributing to lower levels of job satisfaction. This factor may have an impact on an employee's perception of the agency, and may be a determining factor in his or her decision to take advantage of promotional opportunities as they arise or the choice to seek opportunities outside of the agency.

Wright, King, Berg and Creecy (1987), in their study of job satisfaction among Black female managers, made an important finding that is related to the current study. They concluded that those managers who perceived themselves as having the qualifications necessary for advancement and are satisfied with their work, are more likely to obtain more opportunities for advancement than those who do not. This factor may account for the small percentage of the sample that were dissatisfied with their jobs in the current study.

There may have been those in the sample that were preparing themselves

for a promotional opportunity through continuing their education or doing increased amounts of work and the opportunity never availed itself. There may have been those in the sample who were granted the opportunity to compete for a higher level position and did not receive it. As a result, some dissatisfaction with their jobs may have been experienced, thus affecting their general job satisfaction score.

Another possible explanation as to why the perceived level of job satisfaction of the respondents made no difference in their mobility scores lies in the manner in which general job satisfaction was defined in the model. As previously indicated, the underlying assumption in terms of defining job satisfaction as used in the model, was that the job satisfaction was related to issues evolving around job security and compensation or the extrinsic factors. This approach offers another way to examine job satisfaction and its relationship to occupational mobility.

Yankelovich and Immerwahr (1983), in their study "Putting the Work Ethic to Work", made some important findings that are directly related to this study. The primary conclusion drawn from this study was that values relating to work have changed, but managerial practices have not. The first major finding was that the incentive system, mainly money and status rewards, are not sufficient in motivating most people. Pay, in itself, is no longer an accurate predictor of job satisfaction.

Secondly, although job security remains an important value to many, especially in light of high unemployment rates in some occupational areas, there is more interest today in the content of work. More employees today are seeking to develop themselves in their work, to learn new skills and

knowledge. It has also become important that the work be interesting, allow for autonomy and creativity, and be challenging.

The last important finding related to the work of Yankelovich and Immerwahr (1983) relates to the employee's perception of work and employment. The employee of today is focusing on work as means to a career as opposed to solely working for economic gain. Jobs are more than paid activities. They are a mechanism for contributing to organizations and, in general, they are a way to make a difference. As a result of this perception, management must design work to be an enriching and beneficial experience. Work should meet the objectives of the organization as well as the career objectives of the employee.

A study conducted by Edginton, Neal and Edginton (1989), reinforces the conclusions drawn by Yankelovich and Immerwahr (1983) relating to job satisfaction. The study was developed in the context of Herzberg's "Two-Factor" theory of motivation. In their study involving recreation and park professionals from Australia, Canada, Hong Kong and the United States, the authors noted that the members of the sample perceived job satisfaction as being a function of motivators such as: job growth, interesting work and important/worthwhile work. Providing opportunities for job growth can lead to the acquisition of new skills which, in turn, may lead to new job assignments and opportunities for mobility. Many individuals will select work environments that provide opportunities for growth and development. The lack of motivators may be one of the reasons why the perceived level of job satisfaction made no difference in the mobility scores of respondents in the present study.

In summary, work and job satisfaction must be viewed from a holistic

standpoint. What may be perceived as the traditional forms of motivation, pay and job security, are no longer solely responsible for job satisfaction. Factors such as respect, the opportunity to develop skills and abilities and recognition are now increasingly important in relationship to job satisfaction. The optimal way to sustain employee job satisfaction is to supply ample amounts of both intrinsic (motivators) and extrinsic (hygiene) factors.

A final explanation as to why the hypothesis relating to job satisfaction and occupational mobility relates to the economic climate of the state during the five year period of 1984-88. The economic climate of the state and its cities during the period of 1984-88 may have contributed to the perception of the lack of opportunities for advancement within agencies. During this period, many agencies were retrenching and attempting to do more with less. Some agencies were eliminating positions and instituting hiring freezes as cost saving measures. As a result, opportunities for advancement in the recreation and park profession may have been limited both from an intraorganizational and interorganizational perspective. This factor in itself may be directly related to the fact that 56.7% of the sample experienced no mobility at all during this time period.

Regardless of the finding that the level of job satisfaction experienced by the respondents made no difference in their mobility scores, the majority of the sample (54.1%) were satisfied with their jobs. Overall, it may be concluded that the perceived level of job satisfaction was not related significantly to mobility for this sample of Black recreation and park personnel.

General Conclusions

Mobility Patterns

One of the key conclusions of this study relates to the mobility patterns of Black recreation and park personnel in Michigan. Of the 111 respondents that were included in the sample, 31.6% experienced upward mobility, 56.7% experienced stability, and 11.7% experienced downward mobility.

The greatest percentage of the sample (56.7%) experienced stability over the five year period. There are several factors that may shed light upon this finding. The first and probably the most important factor is the economic climate of the state and urban areas from 1984-88 described above.

Secondly, family and other personal and social issues may have had an impact on mobility for the sample. Greater credence is lent to this argument when it is noted that the majority of the sample (48.7%) was between the ages of 31-40 years of age, and the mean number of years in the field was 13.3. These two factors, coupled with other factors, such as having school age children not wanting to change schools, strong community and family ties, as well as financial responsibilities such as home ownership, may heighten the need for job security. Together, these factors may have contributed to the degree of occupational stability observed in this study.

For those respondents whose mobility was determined to be downward, there were two principle reasons why this occurred. The first reason was due to budget reductions experienced by agencies in the state during the test period. As a cost saving measure, it is a common practice to reduce higher level employees to positions of lower levels in times of economic

distress. Often this practice is mandated by collective bargaining agreements if the position is in classified service.

The second reason was a function of the changing of municipal administrations or disciplinary action. For the respondents in the sample that experienced downward mobility, many worked in positions that were probably protected by a civil service system. Therefore, they are not subject to removal from service due to a change in municipal administrations.

It is also not unusual to find that an employee who violates personnel rules and guidelines or may not be functioning up to appropriate levels of productivity may be demoted as disciplinary measure. This is a common practice in local units of government which operate in highly unionized environments. Often demotions are used as a final step before termination in the process of administering progressive disciplinary action.

Another important conclusion relevant to the mobility patterns of Black personnel pertains to the concepts of intraorganizational and interorganizational mobility. Intraorganizational mobility is when the opportunities come from within the agency that the employee is currently working for. Interorganizational mobility relates to an employee leaving one agency and seeks opportunities for mobility in another.

In the sample, 92.6% of the respondents stated that they would accept a promotional opportunity if their agency offered one, and 66.7% of the sample stated that they would not accept a position in another city or state. Based upon these findings, it may be concluded that the preference is toward intraorganizational mobility as opposed to interorganizational mobility. This preference may be directly related to the large percentage

of the sample that remained stable over the period of 1984-88.

An Evaluation of the Model of Occupational Mobility Developed
for the Present Study

Judging from the results of this study, the model of occupational mobility used appears to be most applicable to the Black recreation and park personnel who are entering an agency for the first time. The variables of gender; the number of years of related experience; attained level of education; the presence of a perceived affirmative action plan; the race of the appointing authority; and the perceived level of job satisfaction, made no difference in the mobility scores of the respondents who had been in the system.

Finding that none of the aforementioned variables made a difference in the mobility scores of the respondents is indicative of the fact that other processes and variables may intervene after the employee has been employed with the agency over a period of time. As noted in the analysis of the data through multiple regression analysis, the variables tested in the study, when considered together, explained only 8% ($R^2 = .08$) of the variation of the mobility scores of the respondents. This leaves a large percentage (92%) of the variation in mobility scores of the respondents to be explained by variables other than those used in the model. To possibly present a more concise picture of what the process of occupational mobility entails for employees already in the system, the model was modified.

Modification of the Model

Noting the findings of the current study and the most recent literature relating to the variables contained in the initial model, modifications to the existing model were made. Figure 2 represents a more definitive model of occupational mobility for Black recreation and park personnel. This model incorporates many of the variables from the initial model and also adds new variables which were derived from the newest literature.

As indicated by the model, at the time of entry into the organization, the variables of gender, education and experience are considered to be factors external to the organization. Gender may have a negative impact at this point. The attained level of education and related work experience will be positive factors in terms of attempting to enter an organization. Additionally, at the time of organizational entry, internal organizational factors such as an affirmative action plan and the race of the appointing authority may come into play. Affirmative action may be a positive factor and the race of the appointing authority may or may not be a negative factor.

Over time or the tenure of the employee, the work related needs of the employee must be considered by the organization. To facilitate meeting the needs of the employee, the employer must provide relevant work experiences and opportunities for growth and development through continuing education. Meeting these needs may lead to job satisfaction. In relationship to job satisfaction, both the intrinsic and extrinsic needs of the employee must be considered.

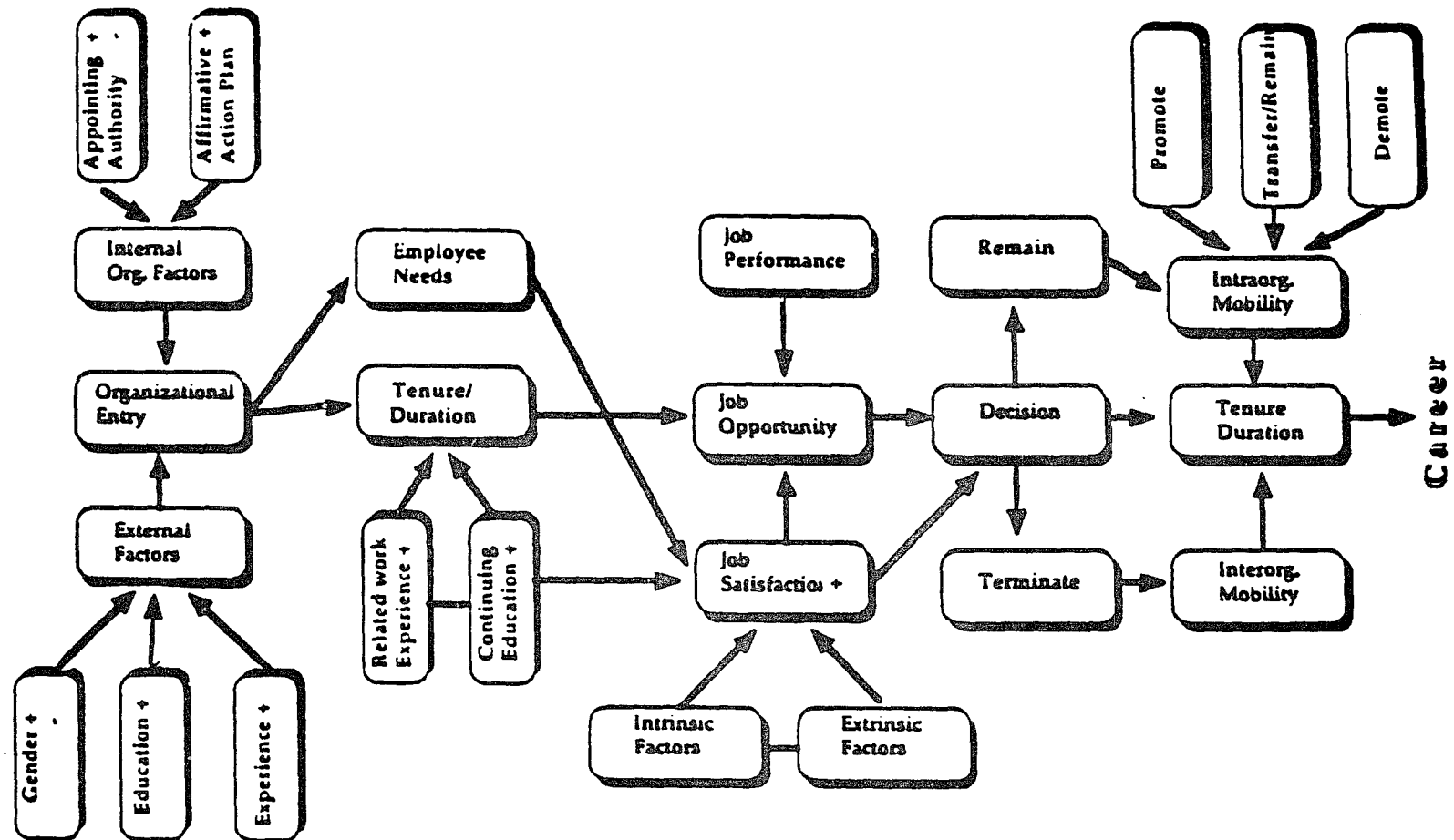


Figure 2: Revised Model of Occupational Mobility
for Black Recreation & Park Personnel

As time progresses, job opportunities within the agency may arise. The level of job satisfaction and the employee's perception of his ability to perform the work may be factors which may influence his or her decision to apply. If the employee applies and then is offered the job, then the employee must make a decision whether to remain or bypass the opportunity and look outside of the agency. If the employee chooses to remain and accepts the position, then intraorganizational mobility is experienced. Under this circumstance, mobility may be attained through promotion, lateral transfer or demotion. If the employee opts to look outside of the current agency, then he will experience interorganizational mobility. In essence, the employee terminates employment with one agency and goes to work for another to facilitate occupational mobility.

This model will hopefully address the issue of occupational mobility for those already in the workforce in a more effective manner than the initial model.

Recommendations and Implications

As a result of this empirical investigation, listed below are a series of recommendations and implications for further research in the area of occupational mobility in the recreation and park profession and other disciplines.

Recommendations

1. Additional research is needed to compare the occupational status and mobility patterns of Blacks, women, and other minorities against those of Caucasians in the recreation and park profession. As indicated in the

literature review, much of the data pertaining to mobility and occupational attainment in this profession was collected in the seventies and early 1980's. Factors such as the changing image of the profession and the increasing number of minorities and women entering the field have contributed to antiquating the data.

The aforementioned factors have both demographic and mobility related implications. We no longer can be certain about the numbers of personnel employed in the recreation and park field, or whether minorities and women are advancing in the recreation and park field without taking another assessment. Additionally, by having no other racial group to compare and contrast with, many questions relevant to the process of mobility patterns of Blacks and other minorities compare with those of Caucasians? Do Caucasians perceive the status of certain jobs in the profession the same as Blacks? Do Caucasians feel that the race of the party making the personnel selection help or hurt their chances for mobility within an agency? These are just a few of the questions that must be addressed to further advance the understanding of some of the issues relating to occupational mobility within the recreation and park profession.

2. A study of occupational mobility from the intraorganizational and interorganizational perspective is needed. The responses to questions contained in Table 15 regarding career advancement seem to indicate that there is interest in intraorganizational mobility for this sample of recreation and parks personnel.

The primary focus should be placed upon identifying those factors which may be considered as organizational assets and liabilities,

(education, experience, work history, etc.) as indicated in the "Organizational Boundaries and Upward-Shifts" model developed by Sandefur (1981). Generally, these factors help or hinder an employee's chance to become occupationally mobile. Education, both in terms of the pursuit of a degree or in-service training, may help when opportunities arise. Considering the fact that the amount of education one has may not be helpful in one's quest to become occupationally mobile, perhaps the value of a formal education after entry into the organization needs to be re-evaluated.

From an intraorganizational perspective, an examination of these factors may assist employers in helping employees understand their potential for mobility within the agency and how to prepare to meet the qualifications for positions at higher levels once they become available. From an interorganizational perspective, an understanding of the process of occupational mobility relevant to the agency may help the employee prepare to exit the employ of an agency where the opportunities for mobility may be limited. Training and career counseling programs may be developed to help facilitate upward mobility when opportunities arise within or outside of the organization.

3. Further research should be conducted into the value and effectiveness of equal opportunity and affirmative action programs using primary data sources. The results of this study indicated that Black personnel perceive affirmative action programs being ineffective in terms of facilitating occupational mobility once they are in the employ of an agency. Perhaps the examination of agency records or reports filed with state or federal

government may reveal a different conclusion.

4. A study of the processes of mentoring, coaching and networking engaged in by minority and female professionals should be conducted. With the perception of the diminishing role of affirmative action in the occupational mobility process, an examination of this topic may be in order. An investigation of this nature may provide greater insight into the occupational mobility process from a personnel intraorganizational and interorganizational perspective.

5. A more detailed analysis of the role that job satisfaction plays in the process of occupational mobility may be warranted. The results of this study indicated that the perceived level of job satisfaction did not make a significant difference in the mobility scores of the sample. For the expressed purposes of this study, the general satisfaction scale was used to assess perceived levels of job satisfaction. This particular measure does not fully utilize all the data that may be obtained when using the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (short-form).

Utilization of both the intrinsic and extrinsic scales will allow for more detailed analysis of the data. The role that items such as pay, opportunity for advancement, agency policy and general working conditions play in overall job satisfaction may provide greater insight into the issue of occupational mobility. In many instances, job satisfaction may lead to occupational mobility, but it is also possible that occupational mobility may lead to increased job satisfaction. A closer examination of this issue may lead to clarification in terms of how the variable of job satisfaction may relate to occupational mobility.

Implications

1. The sample used for this study did not include all Blacks employed in agencies in Michigan, therefore, the following questions need to be addressed to allow for further generalization to all Black recreation and park personnel in the State of Michigan. How do the findings relevant to the study sample compare with: (1) Blacks employed in the recreation and park profession that were not included in the sample; (2) other minorities; and (3) non-minorities.
2. The results of the study indicated that the attained level of education made no difference in the mobility scores of the respondents. One of the primary implications of this finding is that pursuing a formal education after one is employed for a period of time may not be the most productive way to facilitate upward mobility. What appears to be most productive is pursuing continuing education through training sessions sponsored by the employer and attending workshops and seminars sponsored by the employer and attending workshops and seminars that are related to the work the employee is performing (Cato, 1986). Employers may need to re-evaluate the educational requirements for jobs within their agencies. Employers, regardless of the profession, will have to place greater emphasis on preparing employees for opportunities for advancement through continuing education.
3. Based upon the results of this study, there appears to be an underrepresentation of women in some positions in the support classification such as planning, or park related work. These positions have historically been dominated by males in the recreation and park profession.

Marketing the career and career opportunities to targeted groups such as women; mentoring; and networking may be possible solutions to this problem. The management of local agencies may want to set up pilot programs to address this issue. A detailed study of factors influencing occupational choice may bring about further understanding of this problem and aid in facilitating succession and manpower planning done in local agencies.

4. The results of this study and the study conducted by McDonald (1981) indicated that affirmative action had little or no impact on occupational mobility for Black personnel currently working in an agency. The perceived role of affirmative action programs needs to be examined and evaluated more thoroughly. There are implications for further research in the areas of public administration and public policy studies.

5. As a result of the small body of literature and research pertaining to occupational mobility in the recreation and park profession, there are implications for replication and further research. Considering the projected economic, employment and demographic trends (i.e. an increased percentage of Blacks, Hispanics, and Asian Americans in the workplace and general population of the U.S.) leading into the 1990's and into the year 2000, an assessment of manpower needs and present and future mobility patterns may be necessary. A study of this nature would be invaluable in terms of projecting: (1) future supply and demand for personnel in the recreation and park profession; (2) trends and methods for service delivery; and (3) the impact of a multi-cultural workforce on the process of occupational mobility.

Researcher's Closing Remarks

There is no question that research related to occupational mobility has its place in the recreation and park profession. Like employees working in other professions, one of the primary goals of most employees is to better one's position in life, and in one's profession through advancement. To facilitate this process of occupational mobility, management must understand the factors that comprise the process.

One of the principal discoveries that came out of this research effort was that the process of occupational mobility is extremely complex. No significant relationships were observed between the variables tested in this study suggesting others will need to be identified and tested.

Along with the variables that appear in much of the literature related to mobility (education and gender), there are those that we know little about. Factors which may intervene into this process, such as ties in the community and family composition, that may have impact on the process of occupational mobility. Understanding the manner in which these variables work in relationship to occupational mobility may help to understand why people enter this profession and may lead to increased job performance and satisfaction; better managerial practices and better service delivery.

In tough economic times, opportunities for advancement may be very limited. An understanding of occupational mobility may provide insight for agencies in terms of how to cope with this potential shortage of opportunities for advancement. Strategies may be developed to facilitate growth and development without the benefit of a promotion. Lateral transfers, job rotation and job enrichment may be possible options.

This study and the study conducted by McDonald (1981) are perhaps the only two research efforts in this area that relate directly to the recreation and park profession. The results of both studies provide interesting findings that may serve as a starting point for future research.

A common pitfall of both studies is that neither study utilized another racial group to compare and contrast findings. Use of another group will allow for the generalization of results to the broader population of recreation and park personnel in Michigan. Overall, better methods of data collection and the use of more advanced statistical techniques may provide additional insights into the relationships between variables.

Ideally, this study has contributed to the body of knowledge related to the study of occupational mobility within the recreation and park profession in Michigan. Additionally, it will serve as a useful resource or starting point for future research endeavors both within the profession and among allied human service and resource management organizations.

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APPENDIX A

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These consist of pages:

181-182, Appendix A

U·M·I

APPENDIX A - TABLE 3

OCCUPATIONAL STATUS RANKINGS BY OCCUPATIONAL FUNCTION

Occupational Title/ Occupational Function	Count	Status Score	Column %
<u>Administrative (15)</u>			
Director of Parks and Recreation	2	.94	1.8%
Director of Recreation	4	.92	3.6%
Director of Parks	1	.91	.9%
Assistant Director	4	.89	3.6%
Administrative Assistant	4	.74	2.6%
Budget Officer	0	.72	0.0%
<u>Supervisory (31)</u>			
District Supervisor	10	.85	9.0%
Facility Director	12	.79	10.8%
Functional Supervisor	9	.75	8.1%
<u>Leadership (34)</u>			
Special Program Coordinator	12	.64	10.8%
Therapeutic Recreation Specialist	0	.58	0.0%
Recreation Leader	22	.50	19.8%
<u>Support (31)</u>			
Park Planner	0	.58	0.0%
Senior Park or Operations Staff	6	.41	5.4%
Park Patrol Officer	0	.39	0.0%
Park or Operations Staff	16	.30	14.4%
Custodian	6	.23	5.4%
Secretary	<u>3</u>	.23	<u>2.7%</u>
Totals	111		100.0%

APPENDIX A - TABLE 4

SUMMARY OF CHANGES IN OCCUPATIONAL STATUS SCORES 1984-88
FOR BLACK RECREATION AND PARK PERSONNEL IN MICHIGAN

Occupational Category	Upward		Stable		Downward	
	Count	Column%	Count	Column%	Count	Column%
Administrative Assistant	2	5.71%	0	0.00%	1	7.70%
Assistant Director	3	8.57%	0	0.00%	1	7.70%
Custodian	0	0.00%	5	7.94%	1	7.70%
Director of Parks and Recreation	2	5.71%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
Director of Recreation	3	8.57%	1	1.59%	0	0.00%
Director of Parks	1	2.86%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
District Supervisor	5	14.29%	3	4.76%	2	15.38%
Facility Director	3	8.57%	9	14.28%	0	0.00%
Functional Supervisor	3	8.57%	6	9.52%	0	0.00%
Park or Operations Staff	2	5.71%	12	19.05%	2	15.38%
Recreation Leader	2	5.71%	18	28.58%	2	15.38%
Secretary	0	0.00%	3	4.76%	0	0.00%
Special Program Coordinator	5	14.29%	4	6.35%	2	15.38%
Senior Park or Operations Staff	3	8.57%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
Other	<u>1</u>	<u>2.86%</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3.17%</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>15.38%</u>
Totals	35	100.00%	63	100.00%	13	100.00%

APPENDIX B

TITLE:

**AN ANALYSIS OF THE PERCEIVED BARRIERS TO
OCCUPATIONAL MOBILITY AS REPORTED BY
BLACKS EMPLOYED IN MUNICIPAL
RECREATION AND PARK AGENCIES IN
MICHIGAN**

Steven N. Waller

Doctoral Candidate

*Department of Park and Recreation Resources
Michigan State University*

INSTRUCTIONS

Thank you for taking the time to be a part of this research effort. Your participation in this study is **STRICTLY VOLUNTARY**. You indicate your voluntary agreement to participate by completing and returning this questionnaire. The time and energy that you are about to put into answering this questionnaire booklet is appreciated.

Please take your time and answer every question to the best of your ability. All responses to items contained in the questionnaire will be **STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL**.

The questionnaire has four sections:

- Section I - Occupational Status Scale** - rate the status of several occupational titles.
- Section II - Mobility Information** - provide a history of your job changes over the past five years.
- Section III - Job Satisfaction Survey** - provide information pertaining to how satisfied you are with your current job.
- Section IV - Demographic information** - asks you to provide some basic background information about yourself.

When you have completed the questionnaire, please return it in the stamped, self-addressed envelope which is attached. Please make every effort to return the questionnaire no later than Friday, July 29, 1988.

If there are any questions pertaining to the content of this questionnaire, please contact Steven Waller at (313) 766-7463 between the hours of 8:00 a.m. - 5:00 p.m., Monday thru Friday or (313) 743-6403 after 6:00 p.m. daily.

Thank You!

Section I: Occupational Status Scale

For each of the occupational titles mentioned below, please select the statement that most accurately indicates your opinion of the status of each job by placing an (x) in the appropriate column. "Status" is defined as the perceived importance of the position within the agency structure:

- (1) High Status
- (2) Moderately High Status
- (3) Average Status
- (4) Below Average Status
- (5) Low Status

Occupational Title

1. **Administrative Assistant - Assistant to the Director of the Department or Division.** Responsible for administrative functions such as budgeting, personnel management, purchasing and related support functions. No direct supervision of other employees.

1	2	3	4	5

2. **Assistant Director - May be called "Deputy Director".** The assistant is responsible for delegated functions including planning, administration, and supervision as delegated by the Department Director.

1	2	3	4	5

3. **Budget Officer - May be called "Budget Accountant" or "Fiscal Operations Manager".** Responsible for budgeting and financial administration for the Department of Parks and Recreation.

1	2	3	4	5

4. **Custodian - Under the supervision of a higher level employee, is responsible for maintaining recreation facilities and grounds.**

1	2	3	4	5

5. **Director of Parks and Recreation - Chief Administrative Officer in a department that has recreation and park functions.** Ultimately responsible for all departmental operations.

1	2	3	4	5

6. **Director of Recreation - May also be referred to as "Superintendent of Recreation".** Chief administrative officer responsible for all facets of the recreation program delivery system within a Department of Parks and Recreation.

1	2	3	4	5

7. **Director of Parks - may also be known as "Superintendent of Parks".** Chief administrative officer responsible for planning, developing and maintaining specialized or general recreation facilities such as play areas, parks and other green belts comprising the parks system.

1	2	3	4	5

8. District Supervisor - Under direction, responsible for the supervision of the work of others in all phases of the recreation program for a district or large geographic section of an urban area.

1	2	3	4	5

9. Facility Director - Under direction, responsible for the administration of a special facility such as a swimming pool/ ice rink complex, zoo, community center, golf course or camp facility. Duties may include supervision of lower level employees, planning, programming for the operation of the facility.

1	2	3	4	5

10. Functional Supervisor - Under direction, responsible for the supervision of lower level employees in the planning and organizing of an assigned function or specialized field of the community wide program. Recreation supervisors may be responsible for programs such as athletics, cultural arts or special events. Park supervisors may be responsible for landscape design, facility maintenance or equipment repair.

1	2	3	4	5

11. Park Planner - May also be called Landscape Architect. Duties may include planning and design of park areas and facilities, preparing bid documents and cost estimates; preparation of drawings and sketches and master plans.

1	2	3	4	5

12. Park or Operations Staff - Under supervision responsible for performance of routine grounds, forestry, or facility maintenance work.

1	2	3	4	5

13. Park Patrol Officer - As a certified law enforcement officer, patrols park and recreation area and facilities, enforces laws and park ordinances; lends assistance to the public.

1	2	3	4	5

14. Recreation Leader - Under supervision, responsible for planning and implementing a wide range of programs for a park area or recreation facility.

1	2	3	4	5

15. Secretary - performs routine and specialized clerical tasks for a recreation or park facility or main office.

1	2	3	4	5

16. Senior Park or Operations Staff - Under supervision, responsible for a variety of skilled grounds, facility, equipment or construction work. May supervise a crew of lower level employees.

1	2	3	4	5

17. Special Program Coordinator - Under supervision responsible for implementation of specialized programs such as athletics, special events or cultural arts on a city-wide basis for a facility.

1	2	3	4	5

18. Therapeutic Recreation Specialist - Responsible for planning, implementation and evaluation of a therapeutic recreation program in a clinical or community-based environment.

1	2	3	4	5

Section II: Mobility Information

Instructions: Please place an (x) in the appropriate space which most accurately indicates your response to the following items:

A. Present Occupation: Of the occupational titles listed below, which one most accurately describes your current position? Please place an (x) in the appropriate space. Check one only. (Refer to Part I for position descriptions).

- ☐ 01. Administrative Assistant
- ☐ 02. Assistant Director
- ☐ 03. Budget Officer
- ☐ 04. Custodian
- ☐ 05. Director of Parks and Recreation
- ☐ 06. Director (Superintendent) of Recreation
- ☐ 07. Director (Superintendent) of Parks
- ☐ 08. District Supervisor
- ☐ 09. Facility Director
- ☐ 10. Functional Supervisor
- ☐ 11. Park Planner
- ☐ 12. Park or Operations Staff
- ☐ 13. Park Patrol Officer
- ☐ 14. Recreation Leader
- ☐ 15. Secretary
- ☐ 16. Senior Park or Operations Staff
- ☐ 17. Special Program Coordinator
- ☐ 18. Therapeutic Recreation Specialist
- ☐ 19. Other : Please Specify: _____

B. Using the occupational titles listed above, BEGINNING WITH YOUR CURRENT POSITION, list the title number, location, number of years you worked in that job, and the year you started that position. Place this information in the table presented below.

<i>Position#</i>	<i>Agency/City-State</i>	<i># of Years</i>	<i>Year Started</i>
*			

* - Place Your Current Position Number in This Place

C. Are you presently seeking a position which you consider to be a career advancement?

20. _____ Yes 21. _____ No

D. If your Department offered you a position which you considered to be a career advancement, would you accept it?

22. _____ Yes 23. _____ No

E. If you were offered a position in another city or state which you considered to be a career advancement would you accept it?

24. _____ Yes 25. _____ No

If no, if the pay were greater would you accept the position?

26. _____ Yes 27. _____ No

F. In the last year, have you been offered a position which you consider to be a career advancement?

28. _____ Yes 29. _____ No

If yes, did you accept the position? 30. _____ Yes 31. _____ No

G. In the last five years have you been offered a position within your department that is lower than the one you currently hold?

32. _____ Yes 33. _____ No

If yes, was this proposed change due to:

34. _____ Budget Reductions 35. _____ Disciplinary Reasons

36. _____ Other (Please Explain):

H. Within the last 5 years, have you participated in any in-service training or continuing education seminars sponsored by your employer or professional associations such as NRPA or MRPA?

37. _____ Yes 38. _____ No

If no do you have any plans in the future to do so? 39. _____ Yes 40. _____ No

I. Within the last 5 years have you enrolled in a college or university to complete an undergraduate or advanced degree?

41. _____ Yes 42. _____ No

If no, do you plan to enroll in the future? 43. _____ Yes 44. _____ No

J. Does the city that you work for have an affirmative action program?

45. _____ Yes 46. _____ No 47. _____ Uncertain

K. In your opinion, did you obtain your current position because of affirmative action?

48. _____ Yes 49. _____ No 50. _____ Uncertain

L. Who in your department was responsible for hiring you?

(Place an (x) in only one space).

51. _____ Immediate Supervisor 52. _____ Division Superintendent

53. _____ Department Director 54. _____ Personnel Director

55. _____ Other- Title _____

M. What was the race of the person that hired you?

56. _____ Black 57. _____ White/Caucasian 58. _____ Hispanic 59. _____ Asian

60. _____ Other

N. What was the gender of the person that hired you?

61. _____ Male 62. _____ Female

O. Have you ever felt as though your race, gender or both prevented you from obtaining a promotion?

63. _____ Yes 64. _____ No

If yes, please indicate whether race or gender and explain in the space provided below:

P. Have you ever felt as though your race or gender helped you obtain a promotion?

65. _____ Yes 66. _____ No

Q. Have you ever filed charges of discrimination against any of your employers, past or present?

67. _____ Yes 68. _____ No

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These consist of pages:

192-193, Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire

U·M·I

Part IV: Employment and Demographic Information

Instructions: Please complete the following items listed below to the best of your ability. Your cooperation is appreciated.

1. Please indicate the name of the city where you are employed.

2. Please print the title and title number of the position you are currently working in and the number of years you have worked in this position (refer to occupational titles listed on page 5).

Title of Current Position Held	Title No.	Number of Years In this Position

3. Please indicate the total number of years that you have been employed in the field of recreation and parks.

Total Number of Years in the Field

4. Please indicate your gender by placing an (x) in the appropriate space.

_____ Male _____ Female

5. Please indicate your age

6. Please circle the number of years of schooling you have completed.

4 5 6 7 8	9 10 11 12	Fr. 13	So. 14	Jr. 15	Sr. 16
Grade School	High School	College			

17 18 19 20

Graduate Or Professional Degree

7. Please indicate your most recent diploma/degree you have been awarded by placing an (x) in the appropriate space.

High School Diploma	Associates Degree	Bachelor's Degree	Master's Degree
Specialist Degree	Doctorate		

8. Please place an (x) in the appropriate space that most accurately reflects your salary range.

<input type="checkbox"/> \$10,000 - \$14,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$35,0000 - \$39,999
<input type="checkbox"/> \$15,000 - \$19,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$40,0000 - \$44,999
<input type="checkbox"/> \$20,000 - \$24,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$45,0000 - \$49,999
<input type="checkbox"/> \$25,000 - \$29,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$50,0000 - \$54,999
<input type="checkbox"/> \$30,000 - \$34,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$55,0000 +

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION. PLEASE PLACE YOUR COMPLETED QUESTIONNAIRE IN THE ENCLOSED ENVELOPE AND MAIL IT TODAY.

CODE	DATE MAILED	RETURNED
------	-------------	----------

APPENDIX C

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

UNIVERSITY COMMITTEE ON RESEARCH INVOLVING
HUMAN SUBJECTS (UCRIHS)
206 BERKEY HALL
(517) 353-9738

EAST LANSING • MICHIGAN • 48824-1111

June 16, 1988

Steven Waller
3468 Evergreen Pkwy.
Flint, MI 48503

Dear Mr. Waller:

Subject: "A PERCEPTUAL STUDY OF THE OCCUPATIONAL MOBILITY
PATTERNS OF BLACKS EMPLOYED IN MUNICIPAL RECREATION
AND PARK AGENCIES IN MICHIGAN IRB# 88-203"

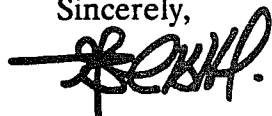
The above project is exempt from full UCRIHS review. I have reviewed the proposed research protocol and find that the rights and welfare of human subjects appear to be protected. You have approval to conduct the research.

You are reminded that UCRIHS approval is valid for one calendar year. If you plan to continue this project beyond one year, please make provisions for obtaining appropriate UCRIHS approval one month prior to June 16, 1989.

Any changes in procedures involving human subjects must be reviewed by the UCRIHS prior to initiation of the change. UCRIHS must also be notified promptly of any problems (unexpected side effects, complaints, etc.) involving human subjects during the course of the work.

Thank you for bringing this project to our attention. If we can be of any future help, please do not hesitate to let us know.

Sincerely,



John K. Hudzik, Ph.D.
Chair, UCRIHS

JKH/sar

cc: J. Fridgen

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

DEPARTMENT OF PARK AND RECREATION RESOURCES
NATURAL RESOURCES BUILDING

EAST LANSING • MICHIGAN • 48824-1222

May 27, 1988

Dear Colleague:

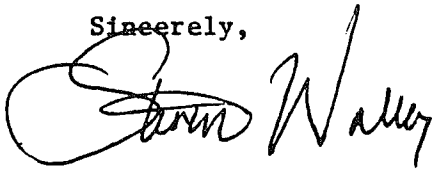
As you are aware, opportunities for career advancement and especially "upward mobility" are common concerns that professionals employed by municipal recreation and park agencies share.

With your assistance and cooperation, I would like to implement a study which will examine factors which may have an impact on occupational mobility for black personnel employed by municipal recreation and park agencies in Michigan. This research effort is entitled "A Perceptual Study of the Occupational Mobility Patterns of Blacks Employed in Municipal Recreation and Park Agencies in Michigan." I am conducting this project as part of my Ph.D. dissertation in the Department of Park and Recreation Resources at Michigan State University.

To conduct this study a sample of black employees must be contacted. If you have black employees currently working in your agency who have a minimum of three years of full-time experience, please forward their names, business addresses and business telephone numbers so that I may contact them and invite them to take part in the study. You should know that data analyses will not be conducted at the city or individual level; results will be discussed in terms of the state of Michigan as a whole. All information collected will be held in the strictest of confidence, and their participation is voluntary. A self-addressed, stamped envelope has been enclosed for your convenience.

I thank you in advance for your valuable time, patience and professional concern. Your assistance in promptly returning the requested information is greatly appreciated. The results of this study will be available for your review upon request.

Sincerely,



Steven Waller
Ph.D Candidate



Joseph D. Fridgen
Associate Professor
Guidance Committee Chairman
Dept. of Park and Recreation
Resources
Michigan State University

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

DEPARTMENT OF PARK AND RECREATION RESOURCES
NATURAL RESOURCES BUILDING

EAST LANSING • MICHIGAN • 48824-1222

July 21, 1988

Dear Colleague:

Opportunities for career advancement are common concerns that black professionals employed by municipal recreation and park agencies share. I am conducting a study which will examine factors which may have an impact on occupational mobility.

This research effort is entitled "An Analysis of the Perceived Barriers to Occupational Mobility as Reported by Blacks Employed In Municipal Recreation and Park Agencies in Michigan". I am conducting this study as a part of my Ph.D. dissertation in the Department of Park and Recreation Resources at Michigan State University.

Your participation in this study is strictly voluntary. You indicate your voluntary agreement to participate by completing and returning the attached questionnaire. All responses collected will be held in the strictest of confidence and data collected will not be analyzed on an individual or agency basis; results will be discussed in terms of the state of Michigan as a whole. This will ensure your anonymity as a participant in this study.

It would be greatly appreciated if you would complete and return the attached questionnaire no later than Friday, July 29, 1988. For your convenience, a self-addressed, stamped enveloped has been enclosed.

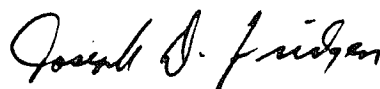
To address any questions or concerns about the study or the content of the questionnaire, I can be contacted at 313-766-7463 between the hours of 8:00 a.m. and 5:00 p.m., Monday thru Friday or 313-743-6403 after 6:00 p.m. daily.

I thank you in advance for your cooperation and invaluable assistance. Your assistance in promptly returning the questionnaire is greatly appreciated. The results of this study will be made available to you upon request.

Sincerely,



Steven Waller
Ph.D. Candidate



Joseph D. Fridgen, Ph.D.
Associate Professor
Guidance Committee Chairperson
Dept. of Park and Recreation Resources
Michigan State University

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

DEPARTMENT OF PARK AND RECREATION RESOURCES
NATURAL RESOURCES BUILDING

EAST LANSING • MICHIGAN • 48824-1222

August 1, 1988

Dear Colleague:

Opportunities for career advancement are common concerns that black professionals employed by municipal recreation and park agencies share. I am conducting a study which will examine factors which may have an impact on occupational mobility.

This research effort is entitled "An Analysis of the Perceived Barriers to Occupational Mobility as Reported by Blacks Employed In Municipal Recreation and Park Agencies in Michigan". I am conducting this study as a part of my Ph.D. dissertation in the Department of Park and Recreation Resources at Michigan State University.

Your participation in this study is strictly voluntary. You indicate your voluntary agreement to participate by completing and returning the attached questionnaire. All responses collected will be held in the strictest of confidence and data collected will not be analyzed on an individual or agency basis; results will be discussed in terms of the state of Michigan as a whole. This will ensure your anonymity as a participant in this study.

It would be greatly appreciated if you would complete and return the attached questionnaire no later than Friday, August 5, 1988. For your convenience, a self-addressed, stamped enveloped has been enclosed.

To address any questions or concerns about the study or the content of the questionnaire, I can be contacted at 313-766-7463 between the hours of 8:00 a.m. and 5:00 p.m., Monday thru Friday or 313-743-6403 after 6:00 p.m. daily.

I thank you in advance for your cooperation and invaluable assistance. Your assistance in promptly returning the questionnaire is greatly appreciated. The results of this study will be made available to you upon request.

Sincerely,



Steven Waller
Ph.D. Candidate



Joseph D. Fridgen, Ph.D.
Associate Professor
Guidance Committee Chairperson
Dept. of Park and Recreation Resources
Michigan State University

STEVEN WALLER
3468 EVERGREEN PKWY.
FLINT, MICHIGAN
48503

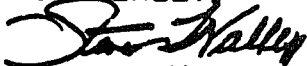
HELP!

DID YOU FORGET TO COMPLETE AND RETURN THE QUESTION-
NAIRE PERTAINING TO OCCUPATIONAL MOBILITY FOR BLACK
EMPLOYEES WORKING IN RECREATION AND PARK AGENCIES
IN MICHIGAN?

IF SO, PLEASE TAKE 15 MINUTES OF YOUR TIME AND
COMPLETE THE QUESTIONNAIRE. A STAMPED, SELF-ADDRESSED
ENVELOPE WAS ENCLOSED WITH THE QUESTIONNAIRE FOR
YOUR CONVENIENCE.

IF THERE ARE ANY QUESTIONS, PLEASE CALL ME AT
1-313-766-7463-B OR 1-313-743-6403-H. I THANK YOU
FOR YOUR TIME AND PROMPT RESPONSE TO THIS REQUEST.

SINCERELY,



STEVEN WALLER
PH.D. CANDIDATE
MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY