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The Relationship Between Job Satisfaction and Job Persistence of Female Faculty in Higher Education

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND JOB PERSISTENCE OF FEMALE FACULTY IN HIGHER EDUCATION

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my husband Michael, who without question, supports me to the moon and back; for the unconditional love you have shown me, the extra slack you have picked up, the encouragement to press on. I love you for holding me to my goals and listening to my insistent chatter about the topic of job satisfaction.

To our precious children who make us the McMahan party of six: Libby, Chloe, Lincoln, and Vanessa—I certainly hope you have learned it is never too late to pursue a goal and to better yourself. Thank you for encouraging me with hugs, doing extra chores, and making funny comments along the way about Mom working on her "disorientation." You never once complained about the hours I spent away, and I thank you for the grace you have shown me. I consider each of you a treasure.

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To the faculty who participated in my study: May your roles in higher education provide opportunities for you to flourish and to know what a difference-maker you are.

To my classmates who kept pushing me to persevere. Thank you for your gift of friendship. To Stephen and Michelle, for supporting me so well.

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this quantitative study was to understand facets of job satisfaction and levels of burnout and to determine the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment of female faculty across various career stages at a regional Kentucky university. Due to increasing workload and expectations for performance, greater understanding is warranted of the need for balance between work duties and personal responsibilities, in order to avoid burnout. Regardless of the growth in the field of Organizational Psychology, female faculty continue to leave academia. This study helps to clarify for organizational leaders facets of job satisfaction which lead to commitment and persistence, as well as separation of employment. The research questions focused on the relationship between indicators of job satisfaction and job persistence of female faculty between different years of service, as well as perceived burnout. The Job Satisfaction Survey (Spector, 1985) provided the basis of this study and guided the collection of the findings. The study should inform higher education leaders of best practices to create and promote healthy work environments in order to retain faculty. The research participants were selected based on gender and were invited by the researcher to participate. The findings in addition to the implications and conclusions from this study convey considerations that could have a direct influence on an institution's ability to retain faculty.

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

This quantitative dissertation investigates the relationship between job satisfaction and job persistence of female faculty in higher education as it pertains to organizational commitment. Rosser (2004) conveyed there is little evidence in the literature to measure how demographic variables, work-life issues, and job satisfaction intermingle to clarify faculty persistence at a national level and further maintained that the demands for culpability of faculty members' load and output are at the center of policy debates, contributing to the already increasing pressure on faculty workload and performance. As the culture of higher education is ever changing with current trends toward fully online programs and the push for institutions to retain and graduate higher rates of students, higher education institutions should consider factors to promote retention and persistence of the faculty. Job satisfaction is the fundamental forecaster of a faculty member's intention to persist in or leave an academic appointment (Hagedorn, 1996; Rosser, 2004; Smart, 1990). Despite the demand for and increased urgency to produce more work in the three traditional areas, there is little understanding nationally concerning the ultimate effect institutional work-life problems have on the job satisfaction of faculty members and ultimately on intentions to leave the institution or career altogether. For these reasons, faculty job satisfaction warrants examination.

The following study is a quantitative study conducted in a rural Appalachian Kentucky university to measure the relationship between the levels of job satisfaction, burnout, and ultimately persistence among female faculty members at various career stages. Faculty statistics (from this study) at this particular institution indicated female

faculty are represented in the following categories: department chair, full-time, part-time, adjunct, and lecturer roles across the university (www.ir.eku.edu, 5/8/2017). According to data from the Office of Institutional Research (2017), faculty from this university held a variety of teaching, service, and research appointments and represent varying disciplines. At the time of this study, Institutional Research reported a total of 604 female faculty in several categories, including: 18 Chair/Faculty, 28 extended campus part-time faculty, 22 faculty in 11-12 month positions, 307 in 9 month positions, 225 part-time faculty, and 4 retirees/retirement transition faculty (www.ir.eku.edu, 5/8/2017).

Those invited to participate in the research study were asked to complete the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS; Spector, 1985), which evaluated nine facets of job satisfaction, in addition to overall satisfaction (see Appendix A). There were seventeen additional questions added to the survey to obtain demographic information about the participants. These question gathered information about age, marital status, discipline, length of service, children in the home, faculty rank, tenure status, hours worked per week, exercise habits, sleeping patterns, calling, work-life balance, commitment to institution, and feelings of burnout.

This study is valuable because job satisfaction has been studied in human service fields for several decades and the term "burnout" has been well established; however, research on the topic of female faculty and job satisfaction is limited. This phenomenon of the relationship people have with their work and the challenges that present when the relationship sours grew in popularity in the 1970's in the United States (Maslach, Schaufeli, Leiter, 2001).

Job dissatisfaction is among the leading causes of employee turnover in organizations, and faculty turnover is no exception. In this study, participants identified: organizational health and strengths of the university; core areas for improvement in caring for faculty; key indicators of job satisfaction among female faculty; common positive organizational traits among faculty with high job satisfaction; and barriers that exist to job satisfaction. Permission was granted to administer Spector's (1985) Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS). The survey was supplemented with seventeen additional research questions designed to gain understanding from the participants concerning job satisfaction in order to inform administration about the organizational health of the university. The relationship people have with their occupation and the challenges that can surface when that relationship becomes strained have been considered substantial phenomena of our time (Maslach, Schaufeli, Leiter, 2001).

This chapter will include details of women in the workplace, attrition rates, tenure among female faculty, the statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research questions, limitations, and definition of terms.

Women Versus Men in the Workforce

The presence of women compared to men in the workforce has seen substantial increase such as those in 2010 when women accounted for 25% of dentists, 31% of lawyers, 32% of physicians, 17% of clergy, and 36% of judges (Deutsch & Yao, 2014). Comparatively, in stark contrast in 1970, women were represented as only 3% of dentists, 5% of lawyers, 9% of physicians, 3% of clergy, and 7% of judges. Similarly, the presence of women in the professorate has seen growth comprising of 27% of college

faculty in 1971-1972. Women were later represented in 47% of college faculty in the Fall of 2009.

Attrition Rates and Job Satisfaction for Women in the Workforce

Deutsch and Yao (2014) conducted a study to determine why female faculty leave their institutions. This study produced findings regarding attrition rates and job satisfaction for women in the workforce. Despite the success of women entering professions in the United States, this study reports attrition rates among female professionals was nearly three times the rate of male counterparts among MBAs, newspaper journalists, and physicians. In addition, while typical American research on faculty attrition has surrounded work conditions or workplace inequities as the cause for females leaving higher education, the research of Deutsch and Yao instead concentrated on work-family conflict. The findings of their study showed that overall, study participants left the institution due to work-family conflict (27.3%), career opportunities (18.2%), termination of position (18.2%), and negative social dealings (11.4%).

One's feelings of job satisfaction feed into organizational commitment and persistence among faculty or quite the opposite, as some have intentions to leave or separate from the institution. With an expected shortage of college faculty representative of a diverse student population, action needs to be taken to recruit female faculty and minorities into positions that are suitable fits for the role and the employee.

As Scruton and Gross (2013) wrote, a substantial objective of education is to develop and foster opportunities for each individual to pursue an occupation or profession. However, Scruton and Gross postulated that many women in higher education express that societal and organizational obstacles drastically limit admittance to

the upper levels of their professions. Women earn half of all terminal degrees and enter the initial level of the tenure track at roughly the same rate as do their male counterparts, yet few are granted tenure and see promotion. In addition, many leave academia altogether before reaching appointments. The work of Scruton and Gross further discussed unequal representation of women in the workforce. Women have been earning bachelor's degrees at a greater rate than men since 1982, and more master's degrees than men since 1981. In 2007, the U.S. Department of Labor reported that in the following year women would earn 58.6% of all bachelor's degrees, 61.3% of all master's, and 51.2% of all doctorates and first professional degrees (U.S. Department of Labor, 2009). It should also be noted that women earn 51% of all awarded doctorates to U.S. citizens each year (Scruton & Gross, 2013), yet the route for those in higher education to tenure and full professorship tapers significantly due to a variety of factors deserving of the attention of higher education (Scruton & Gross, 2013). Identifying and changing the culture will safeguard impartial and equal admittance for women into these university roles in the future.

Spector (1997) wrote of the importance of job satisfaction and found that there were three significant causes of why the topic of job satisfaction was pertinent for organizations to study. There are three purposes according to Spector for appreciating job satisfaction. First, humanitarian values should be the guiding force of an organization as its leaders strive to deliver honorable and respectful treatment to their employees. Spector claims a satisfaction assessment tool will often reveal how an organization treats its employees. High levels often correlate with emotional wellness and psychological fitness of an employee, including a willingness to align with organizational objectives.

Second, operations of an organization are affected directly by the levels of employees' job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Spector (1997) believes that positive, desirable work behaviors are the result of job satisfaction, whereas behaviors of a negative variety are generated as a result of job dissatisfaction. Finally, Spector offers that levels of job satisfaction can be a gauge of productivity within single departments which ultimately impact overall organizational output.

Employers benefit from having satisfied employees on their payroll, and have greater outcomes when employees are satisfied and turnover is kept at a minimum. However, there are other considerations of which an organization or college/university should be mindful. Rose and Ozcan (2004) wrote about job satisfaction in relation to organizational effectiveness. They reported that The European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions stressed the significant factors of personal fulfilment, self-respect, self-esteem and personal development are job satisfaction and success in one's work. The foundation further emphasized that an employee with positive levels of job satisfaction is bent toward a more resourceful, flexible, innovative, and loyal than an employee who is dissatisfied (Rose & Ozcan, 2004).

Faculty Women and Tenure

While is commonplace for aspiring faculty to have the goal of obtaining a tenure-track position with the subsequent achievement of tenure, these sorts of positions, at one time the cornerstone of academia, are becoming less commonplace as universities continue to employ part-time faculty or extend full-time positions without tenure as an option (Scruton & Gross, 2013). This begs the question surrounding the job satisfaction

levels of female colleagues compared to their male colleagues. Compared to men, women are more often hired into lower ranked positions within the college or university (Harper, Baldwin, Gansneder, & Chronister, (2001). Greater than half (55.4%) of new full-time faculty hires in the year 2001 were offered non-tenure track positions (NCES, 2004) and of all faculty two of every five (43%) were employed as part-time faculty (NCES, 2002). Wolfinger (2009) wrote that "female doctorate recipients are 25% more likely to be employed in non-teaching university positions than they are in tenure-track jobs" and 156% more likely to be out of the labor force than they are to have tenure-track jobs" (p. 1602).

August and Waltman (2004) reveal that feelings of perceived control in career growth is of great importance to faculty as they pursue the work of research, teaching, and service, as are high levels of autonomy, and challenges found in the work itself. August and Waltman wrote that criticism of college professors is high, likening higher education to a modern-day sport, for which there is no shortage of participants or spectators. The media, to include television, radio, and newspapers, depicts higher education professors as lazy, complacent, and conceited. Academic jobs are thought to be low-pressured, complete with short working hours, elevated salaries, and job security to last a lifetime (August & Waltman, 2004). On the contrary, Hagedorn (2000) described the work environment of higher education is often high pressure in nature, multidimensional, and filled with ambiguous roles and unclear margins. As this dissertation literature is reviewed in chapter two, popular views are debunked to depict a more realistic picture of the university faculty member in relation to job satisfaction.

Women are under-represented in academia despite the traction gained in the women's movement of the 1970's (Jaschik, 2009) and the preceding years of affirmative action in the 1960's (Sander & Taylor, 2012). While the number of women in the professorate is on the rise, the schism in equality persists. Flaherty (2016) purported "women's faculty head count growth nearly doubled that of men between 1993 and 2013, at approximately 375,300 additional women and 196,900 men." Flaherty also conveyed "women's growth in full-time appointments quintupled that of men, and a major change was observed in women's appointment to tenured positions in particular: an increase of about 46,700 women compared to a decrease among men of about 14,900." Women are over-represented in non-tenure track positions with full-time status of lecturer and instructor—employment which lacks job security and reflects the lowest salaries (Harper et al., 2001; NCES, 2004). Flaherty discussed the disparity: "The magnitude of women's growth in full-time and tenured or tenure-track appointments pales in comparison to their growth in part-time appointments, however, at about 144 percent, and full-time, non-tenure-track appointments, at about 122 percent" (www.insidehighered.com).

Women are promoted and approved tenure at a slower rate, are employed by less prestigious colleges and universities, and work in less prominent fields than male colleagues (Scruton & Gross, 2013). Women are hired less frequently and hired into positions with lower rank within the institution than their male counterparts (Moore & Sagaria, 1993), and it is more probable for women to be employed in lower status fields at institutions of less prestige (Valian, 1998).

Scholars have identified that women in academic settings are less satisfied with their work than their male colleagues, but the literature also points out scarce research

regarding the factors that subsidize job satisfaction levels of female faculty in higher education institutions (Scruton & Gross, 2013). The research of Scruton and Gross (2013) was intended to identify influential factors in job satisfaction for full-time female faculty at four-year institutions and to discover what the repercussions would be for policies and practices of academic establishments. There are job duties found in academia which are unlike other professions. Distinctions such as the tenure path for job security, the conflict between research and teaching, the idea of autonomy, and academic freedom. The lifestyle adaptation in the academic profession is more involved than many other professional career tracks and the job satisfaction of postsecondary faculty has documented deterioration since the 1950's and 1960's. Possible causes of this problem are common concern facets such as pay, supervision, fringe benefits, nature of work, and communication (Spector, 1997). The connections between job satisfaction and these facets often produce results which deserve recognition and research. Compiled in *The Oxford Handbook of Positive Organizational Scholarship*, there are positive individual attributes, emotions, relationships, human resource practices, and organizational practices which have been shown to contribute to thriving, functioning organizations (Cameron & Spreitzer, 2012).

Many studies have been conducted over the last half century utilizing a surplus of questionnaires, scales, and a variety of job satisfaction/job stress measurement instruments, all of which point to emerging trends and areas for improvement (Hurrell & Nelson, 1998).

Statement of the Problem

There is a persisting problem in higher education. In a career of choice, with personal interest in the field of study, employed in one's own discipline, and an often 10-month work schedule, faculty retention is a challenge to colleges and universities. As colleges and universities strive to build a diverse faculty to be reflective of the student populace and society in general, faculty retention plays a central role in building the intellectual community, therefore the need is incredibly important for colleges and universities to appreciate the factors which contribute to faculty retention (Scruton & Gross, 2013). Research has shown female faculty to be less satisfied in their positions than male colleagues due to requirements to sacrifice personal life balance to meet the demands of the job (Tack & Patitu, 1992). The instrument gathered data about persistence by inquiring of the respondents how likely they were to stay at their current institution for the next three years. The relationship between job satisfaction and job persistence should be further examined to inform higher education administrators of the impact of job satisfaction in the retention of female professors.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the relationship between job satisfaction and job persistence among female faculty members at a selected Kentucky university using Spector's Job Satisfaction Survey (1985). This study also assessed barriers (i.e., role ambiguity, burnout, work/life imbalance, and change) and contributors to varying levels of job satisfaction including a healthy work/life balance, possessing a calling to their work, having work that is meaningful, and working in collegial environments where recognition is practiced. Levels of job satisfaction were

assessed using Spector's Job Satisfaction Survey (1985). This study was assessed with a survey question surrounding likelihood to stay at the current institution for three years. Through this study, norms in the climate of higher education were identified which could be evaluated to improve job satisfaction of faculty, and ultimately persistence in employment at the university or institution.

Research Questions

The following research questions were designed to guide this study as it sought to investigate the relationship between job satisfaction and job persistence in female faculty in a regional Appalachian Kentucky university:

1. What is the relationship between indicators of job satisfaction and job persistence of female faculty?
2. Are there differences in job satisfaction between female faculty with different years of service?
3. What is the relationship between job satisfaction and perceived burnout of female faculty?

Study Limitations

There are limitations to the study which should be taken into consideration. One such limitation comes from the findings, collected from university faculty. Considering only women faculty were included in this study, it is recommended that the results not be generalized in a widespread manner to male faculty populations. Although comparisons could be made, the faculty at each university are unique.

As with all surveys, responses may not completely reflect the feelings of study participants. Despite the restrictions to this study, the discoveries are expected to offer

useful information to researchers and university administrators alike for studying the effects of job satisfaction on job persistence in the academe. The findings of this study will further provide valuable information to those in university leadership and human resources, specifically in regards to creating a positive workplace/environment which ultimately aids in the retention of talented faculty.

Definition of Terms

Autonomy: "A degree or level of freedom and discretion allowed to an employee over his or her job. As a general rule, jobs with high degree of autonomy engender a sense of responsibility and greater job satisfaction in the employee(s) (Business Dictionary, May 7, 2017).

-*POS (Positive Organizational Scholarship)*: "An umbrella concept used to unify a variety of approaches in organizational studies, each of which incorporates the notion of *the positive*" (Cameron & Spreitzer, 2012).

-*Job Satisfaction*: "Contentment (or lack of it) arising out of interplay of employee's positive and negative feelings toward his or her work" (Business Dictionary, May 7, 2017).

-*Callings in Work*: "Those who view their work as a calling understand their work to be an end in itself, rather than a means to some other end" (Wrzesniewski et al., 1997)

-*Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)*: "Extent to which an individual's voluntary support and behavior contributes to the organization's success" (Business Dictionary, 5/7/2017).

-*Two Factor Theory of Motivation*: Herzberg's theory postulates employee satisfaction is related to factors which motivate and factors which cause dissatisfaction (Business Dictionary, 5/7/2017).

-*Burnout:* "A prolonged response to chronic emotional and interpersonal stressor of the job, is defined by the three dimensions of exhaustion, cynicism, and inefficacy" (Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001).

-*Organizational Commitment*: "Belief in the organization's goals and values, willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization" (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982).

-*Intent to Leave*: Intent to leave the institution, or higher education altogether.

-*Job Persistence*: Remaining at one's current role or at one's current institution.

The following section provides a framework for the research study. Designed by this researcher, the framework outlines the impact of healthy organizational practices versus the impact of organizations with poor practices as it relates to job satisfaction and job persistence (Figure 1.1).

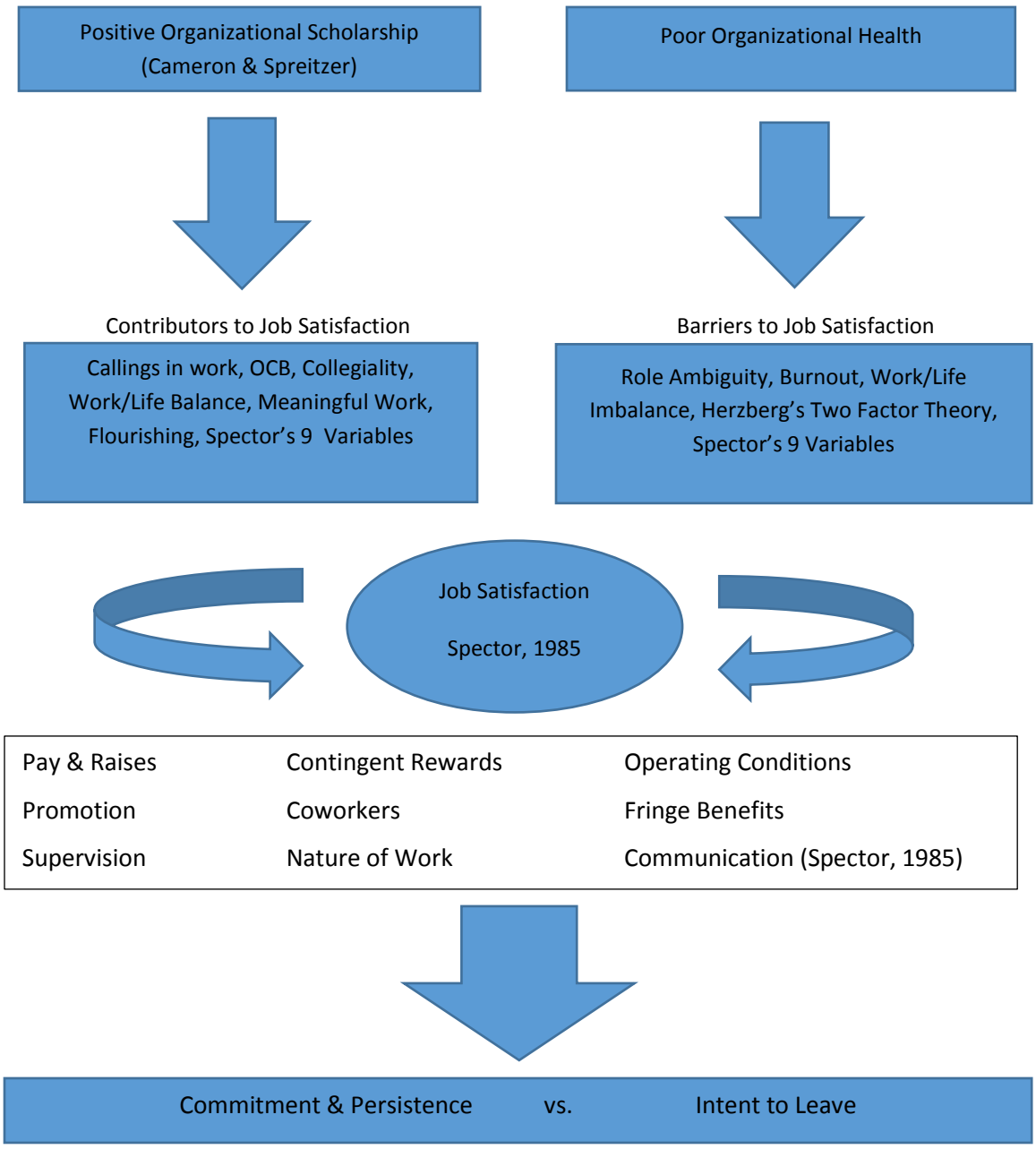

Figure 1.1. McMahan Conceptual Framework

The relationship a faculty member has with her work and the work environment has direct impact on levels job satisfaction, persistence, and perceived burnout. This study provided valuable insight into predictors of job satisfaction and considerations for administrators who seek to retain faculty members by creating and fostering healthy work environments.

CHAPTER II

Review of the Literature

Introduction

This dissertation literature review investigates job satisfaction, employee persistence, frameworks found in organizational psychology, common predictors of job satisfaction, and other common practices found in the workplace. The themes discussed provide a spring board to leaders and administrators in higher education for developing and fostering environments which encourage the flourishing of employees.

Job Satisfaction

While some individuals express enjoyment in work and find it to be a central part of life, others dislike working and do so simply because it is requisite. This leads to a working definition that job satisfaction is the degree to which people like their jobs (Spector, 1997). As job satisfaction is studied among faculty, strong concerns emerge. Hensel (1991) champions that the welfare of a university is contingent on its ability to recruit and preserve a talented group of faculty, further postulating that "the wellbeing of the nation depends on our ability to develop a happy, emotionally healthy, and productive next generation" (Hagedorn, 2000, p. 5). Research completed by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (https://www.carnegiefoundation.org/) stresses a college campus is traditionally a friendly place where individuals share ideas and work side by side. However, in actuality, Boyer (1987) reported the prescribed decision-making instruments at most institutions are not working effectively. Harshbarger (1989) discussed the importance of faculty member commitment to one's

higher education institution as key to the success of a university, but even in the late 1980's, little research had been done on the mechanism of faculty commitment. Harshbarger declared that without studies in the field of faculty persistence, there would be little chance of reinforcing the pledge to commit to an institution for the long haul. Since that time, research by Islam, Rasul, and Ullah, (2012) discussed common characteristics of job satisfaction. The first is that job satisfaction is an employee's subjective impression of their job, wherein it is not evident but discernable by observing the employee's behavior. The second characteristic seen in employees is that satisfaction in the job is dependent on the expectations perceived by the employee. Finally, Islam and colleagues (2012) postulate job satisfaction is comprised of many attitudinal attributes to include the job itself, pay, and environment.

Faculty Commitment

In addition to discussing job satisfaction, Harshbarger (1989) studied faculty commitment and applied the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979) to faculty members in higher education with the purpose of identifying which specific factors separate lower and higher levels of commitment. The OCQ is built around a sequence of studies in 2563 employees in nine differing organizations and is useful for predicting employee persistence. The OCQ is a 15-question scale using a 5-point Likert format. Harshbarger's (1989) operating definition was framed with the understanding that employees who espouse organizational commitment possess a belief in the organization's goals and values, have a willingness to put forth significant effort on behalf of one's organization, and show a strong desire to remain a member of the organization. The work of Mowday and colleagues (1982)

supports commitment as a broad umbrella term under which job satisfaction falls. Commitment demonstrates a general response stemming from one's feelings about the entire organization and its mission, vision, and objectives; whereas job satisfaction is much more closely related to the specific tasks of one's job and the work environment (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982).

Despite the extent to which the topic of job satisfaction is of interest in the business sector and labor workforce, there are few existing theoretical models to explain, predict, or understand job satisfaction. Present literature relies on aged models, determining a general conclusion that the idea of job satisfaction is multifaceted and complex (Hagedorn, 2000). Harshbarger (1989) wrote that universities in the United States are excellent places to investigate commitment at the organizational level because in the last half of the twentieth century the climate, mission, and goals have changed. Bonner (1986) coined the term "unintended revolution" in his explanation of the changes in the landscape of American higher education. Harshbarger discussed the history of enrollment dating back to 1940, when the numbers of public and private school enrollments was nearly equal, forward to the 1980's when 80 percent of all college students were enrolled at public institutions. The schools with more than 10,000 students which had only enrolled one in every five students decades before, now boasted enrollment of over 60 percent of all enrolled college students across the nation. In the postwar years, there was a shuffling of faculty and growth of programs that occurred which made reaching an agreement on what the liberal arts core program should comprise. Requisite compromise by faculty and administrative authority resulted in a

new backdrop that scarcely resembled the curriculum for liberal study in the same schools in 1940.

The fallout of wide-ranging changes in the several decades since World War II brought forth instability and disorder to universities in the United States (Harshbarger, 1989). Among characteristics that added to the chaos were goal ambiguity and environmental weakness. This was in part due to the vague and multi-faceted goals of the university and the fact that universities often embrace new goals. These alterations in the higher education climate have made identifying with and developing a personal commitment to an institution more difficult for faculty members.

Harshbarger on Faculty Commitment

Well-known in the literature on job satisfaction and commitment, and especially relevant to this dissertation, Harshbarger's (1989) study sought to determine the differences between highly committed and less committed faculty members at four doctoral-granting universities. The research questions were:

1. Do certain individual demographic characteristics relate to faculty members' levels of commitment to their current institution of employment?
2. What other factors contributing to personal feelings of institutional commitment by faculty differ in relation to the measured level of commitment?
3. What other factors contributing to personal feelings of institutional alienation by faculty differ in relation to the measured level of commitment?

In this same study, Harshbarger (1989) surveyed participants using the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire, or OCQ (Mowday et al., 1979), as well as additional open-ended questions on specific factors contributing to feelings of

commitment or alienation. The OCQ was selected because of its documented reputation relating to behavioral outcomes within institutions and organizations. Demographic variables were supplemented including age, gender, tenure status, rank, and years on the faculty at one's current institution, in addition to groupings by discipline. The results were analyzed using content analysis by independent coders to determine a coefficient of inter-coder reliability. The findings in the narrative responses fell into four classifications: personal characteristics, job factors, work experiences, and institutional structure.

Personal Characteristics

Personal Characteristics are defined as an investment of personal resources expended on the job or institution (Mowday et al., 1979). The investment may be of personal assets like reputation which affords opportunities, or liabilities which could boil down to a lack of options in promotion. Personal values are pre-established values rooted in personality, tendencies, or point of view.

Job Factors

Factors which influence employee commitment on the job are financial rewards, personal rewards, the work itself, physical environment, psychological environment, and support and funding (Mowday et al., 1979). Personal rewards on the job come in the form of sentimental returns or satisfaction from involvement in the work. Specific duties within the job and day-to-day tasks define the work itself. Perceived impact of the geographical location of the institution, the building in which one works, and the space in which respondents complete their job describe the physical environment. The psychological environment defines the affective "climate" of the work environment. The

final job factor revealed in the 1989 study was support and funding. Support and funding was evidenced in tools, resources, and often support personnel that contribute to or aid in the quality of job productivity.

Work Experiences

Work experiences which faculty identified as contributors to job satisfaction were relationships with colleagues, students, leadership at department and institutional levels; institutional policy; and personal treatment (Mowday et al., 1979). Dealings with colleagues was defined as the influence of faculty or staff peers on a respondent's commitment to the institution. The impact of interaction with student affected respondent's commitment levels. Respondents also identified leadership from deans and department heads to have influence on commitment. There was also impact on respondents' institutional commitment due to impact of official decision and courses of action set in place by institutional policy or plans. Personal treatment, the final factor identified by faculty in the work experience, is made up of observed equality and appropriateness of how respondent is treated.

Institutional Structure

Respondents reported shared governance, hierarchy, and institutional standing as contributors to institutional commitment (Mowday et al., 1979). Shared governance is whether the respondents participate in the planning processes and decision-making at their institution. Hierarchy is the levels of administrative offices and divisions governing the institution's day-to-day procedures. Institutional standing is the college or university's rank, reputation, or prestige.

Harshbarger (1989) evaluated the results using Pearson "r" correlations pairing commitment score with age, and time since attainment of the most recent degree paired with time served at the college or university, as measured in years. One-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) was used to test for significant systematic differences between commitment scores and faculty rank, as well as between commitment scores and the six classifications of academic discipline. Findings showed no significant differences between OCQ score by academic discipline, however it was determined that faculty who were highly committed were significantly more likely to mention personal investments, support and funding, collegial relationships, leadership, and shared governance as sources of commitment than were faculty who reported to be less committed. One of the most meaningful findings is that the respondent's perception of autonomy seemed to be the pivotal factor separating more and less committed faculty. Those members who felt free to pursue their own academic priorities self-reported higher commitment levels. When freedom was perceived to be constrained by limitations of the university, feelings of alienation were the result.

Harshbarger (1989) shared one respondent's sentiments here:

> When I came to this university, I was permitted to work in my own way. I have found this to be a tremendous advantage. By the time the overall university policy changed, I had received tenure and the new policies did not apply to me. I enjoy continuing to work as I have in the past, escaping the increased bureaucracy and the proliferation of "make work" activities. (p. 42)

Furthermore, the narrative responses to Harshbarger's 1989 study echo the sentiment that an impersonal environment is a second key to lowered levels of

commitment. Many in the 1989 study report feelings of not fitting in, of being unappreciated and of there being no sense of campus unity. The stress of transitional periods in the life of a university is exemplified as many teachers' colleges move their emphasis to research and graduate education. The implication, in the eyes of some respondents, is a disassembling of long-valued beliefs systems. One said "No one has the guts to stop the process of vain emulation of major research universities" (p. 42).

A final finding from the study (Harsbarger, 1989) mentioned above is the congruence or incongruence of individual values and perceived institutional values, appearing frequently in deliberations of promotion and tenure. Varying points of view of the "old guard" and the "new blood" as Harshbarger coins the two groups, often present themselves in interpersonal clashes among junior and senior faculty. One participant described his experience as a frequent tangle with senior faculty from the teachers' college. As a result of the negative collection of responses, Harshbarger concluded that commitment is at risk in times of transition, demonstrated in a glaringly obvious decline of commitment among the professors at the associate level. Harshbarger urged colleges and universities to have concern for the transitional period in the advancement of individual faculty members, reporting this is key to maintaining bonds between the faculty member and the organization. Final recommendations from Harsbarger's study were that autonomy, impersonality, value congruence, and equity be the jumping off point for universities to reinforce and retain strong bonds with faculty.

Employee Persistence & Recognition

A topic of wide-spanning interest to both employees of organizations and scholars of the topic, job satisfaction is the most commonly studied variable in organizational

behavior inquiry. An *organizational phenomena*, the variable of job satisfaction covers territory spanning from job design to supervision (Spector, 1997). IBM conducts annual opinion surveys to assess how employees feel about their role in the company. The managers at IBM take concern over the issue of job satisfaction within their workforce, and allow the finding to weigh heavily in assessment of business effectiveness within the organization. Efforts put forth into creating a healthy work environment within the company resulted in lower employee turnover and the company's exceptional reputation. IBM is thus viewed as a good employer, adding to its ability to attract a high caliber of applicants for job vacancies.

The ability for colleges and universities to retain professors is heavily influenced by how valuable employees feel they are to the organization. In the book *1501 Ways to Reward Employees* Nelson (2012) terms recognition as "a positive consequence provided to a person for a desired behavior or result." (p. 13). Nelson opened the book quoting Mary Kay Ash, founder of Mary Kay, Incorporated. Ash firmly believed in recognition of employees. She is quoted here: "There are two things people want more than sex and money: recognition and praise" (Nelson, 2012, p. 9). Nelson continues that recognition can take on a number of forms to include acknowledgment, approval, or a simple show of gratitude. The leaders who practice recognition show their support for their employees within the organization. Recognition is not limited to intentional praise, but can include seeking someone's feedback, including them in decision making, or showing interest in their career path. Employees want respect, trust to accomplish the task at hand, and they want autonomy to choose the best approach for the task at hand. Employees also desire to be solicited for input, particularly in decisions that will affect their duties directly.

Finally, Nelson adds that employees want to feel supported and appreciated whether they have made a mistake or have done well.

Recognition of employees is broken down into three categories (Nelson, 2012), each complementary of the other: (1). Formal Recognition: This type is a structured or deliberately planned program wherein employees receive recognition. Examples could be awards for years of service or designation as Employee of the Month. Due to the public nature of this format, the recognition can be momentous and symbolic. (2). Informal Recognition: This recognition is spontaneous and is a sincere showing of gratitude for a desired behavior or performance. Having an office *pass around* trophy to reward customer service, or providing donuts or pizza to celebrate a group success, are examples of this type of recognition. (3). Day-to-Day Recognition: This recognition is illustrated by regular daily feedback to employees about positive performance on the job. Stopping by to say "good job" on a particular task, or a plain thank you face-to-face or in front of coworkers, are examples. This recognition is the most effective in creating a culture where recognition leads to results within the organization (Nelson, 2012).

The advantage one organization holds over another is the resource of their people. Therefore the way organizations treat people is paramount. Pfeffer (Nelson, 2012) of Stanford Business School stated, "Companies that manage people right will outperform companies that don't by 30 percent to 40 percent." (p. 9). Recognition is an indispensable tool in an organization's toolkit for increasing motivation. Ninety-nine percent of employees assume that recognition is standard for a job well done, while only 12 percent of employees feel strongly that they are regularly acknowledged in a manner that is meaningful to them. Employees who receive recognition in the workplace are five

times more likely to report feelings of being valued; seven times more likely to persist with the company; six times more likely to make an investment; and eleven times more likely to feel entirely committed to the company (Nelson, 2012).

Scruton (2013) depicted job satisfaction on a set of continua which are many times contradictory to one another. "Structure or climate? Certainty of performance expectations or mindfulness? Definition of role or freedom of action?" (p. vii). Each informs the job satisfaction literature within organizations. Role definition, performance criteria such as teaching, scholarship, and service, governance, and the mission of the organization are more unclearly defined in higher education across the United States than in more customary organizational settings.

Hagedorn's Conceptual Framework of Faculty Job Satisfaction

Hagedorn (2000) provided the Conceptual Framework of Faculty Job Satisfaction model to both organize and categorize the elements that make up and contribute to job satisfaction. The model postulates two types of constructs that intermingled and effected job satisfaction: triggers and mediators where a trigger is a significant life event that may be either related or unrelated to the job, but which often results in a change in one's reference, a change in self, as well as a change in responses in relation to work (Latack, 1984; Waskel & Owens, 1991). The second construct category was a mediator which is described as a variable or situation that influences the relationships between other variables of situations, thus causing an interaction effect (Hagedorn, 2000). According to this framework, the mediating variables might denote situations, developments, and extenuating circumstances that provide the context in which job satisfaction is to be

evaluated. The mediators will demonstrate the complexity of job satisfaction, and a framework for general understanding of job satisfaction, as it is not possible to create a list of universal factors which always predict positive outlooks in organizational psychology.

Hagedorn's (2000) model and conceptual framework includes six triggers which are distinctive: (1) change in life stage, (2) change in family-related or personal circumstances, (3) change in rank or tenure, (4) transfer to new institution, (5) change in perceived justice, and (6) change in mood or emotional state. There are effects of these triggers which will be discussed later in the literature review. This theory promoted the presence of factors named motivators which worked to increase satisfaction while other factors named hygienes serve to decrease dissatisfaction, thus resulting in de-motivation (Herzberg et al, 1957). Although the work of their study is more than fifty years old, the contribution to the literature continues to receive praise (Wren & Greenwood, 1998).

The fourteen job factors related to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction developed by Herzberg (1959) are very common in job satisfaction literature. They are listed here:

- Achievement,
- Recognition,
- the work itself,
- Responsibility,
- Possibility of advancement,
- Possibility of growth,
- Salary status,
- Quality of interpersonal relations with peers,

- Technical supervision,
- Agreement with company policies and administration,
- Pleasant working conditions,
- External factors from personal life, and
- Job security.

Ultimately Herzberg's (1959) research revealed only achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, advancement, and salary (although to a lesser extent) to be influential in either increasing or decreasing job satisfaction among employees (Hagedorn, 2000). Labeled the "two-factor theory of job satisfaction," Herzberg's theory (1959) hypothesized that satisfaction and dissatisfaction have distinct causes. It is the intensity of the work and the level of participation achieved by the employee which moderate job satisfaction. Therefore, when an employee "feels a high level of achievement, is intensely involved, and is appropriately compensated by recognition, responsibility, and salary, job satisfaction is enhanced and job dissatisfaction in decreased" (p. 8).

The second group of mediators, demographics, is unlike the other conjectured mediators in that it is constant and remains stable throughout one's career. While the demographic of gender is highly researched, Hagedorn (2000) submits that the evidence remains unclear in terms of specific interactions of gender and job satisfaction. Research demonstrates males to be more satisfied with factors of salary and benefits (Hemmasi, Graf, & Lust, 1992; Kelly, 1989) whereas women report family factors to play a larger role in job satisfaction levels (Bullers, 1999; Hagedorn & Sax, 1999).

Triggers, as identified in the framework developed by Hagedorn (2000) are narrowed into the following categories:

- Change in Life Stage,
- Change in Family-Related or Personal Circumstances,
- Change in Rank or Tenure,
- Transfer to a Different Institution,
- Change in Perceived Justice, and
- Change in Mood or Emotional State.

Change in Life Stage

Adult development supports a predictable order of events wherein a social clock triggers change in an adult's life. The theory developed by Levinson (1996) upholds cycles of significant transitory phases followed by phases of stability with outcomes that mark most areas of life. Since work and life are interwoven, the change into life stages plays a noticeable role in job-related outcomes. There is an overlap between life stages and job stages for college faculty in particular. Baldwin (1979) developed a multi-level theory of a faculty member's career wherein he identified overlap: (1) early career, (2) midcareer, and (3) late career. Hagedorn (1994) contributed a model of faculty career stages based on stated years until retirement and tested the model to conclude the unique contributors to job satisfaction for each population. Low stress levels predicted job satisfaction for the complete sample, however variances by group membership surfaced. Faculty members early in their careers with twenty-five years or more until retirement were identified as "novices" and reported satisfaction from positive relationships with those in administration and positive interactions with pupils. Those in midcareer,

reporting fifteen to twenty years to retirement, (labeled *midcareerists*) showed satisfaction to be strongly related to appropriate compensation. The final group, labeled *disengagers*, who anticipated retiring within five years or less, revealed the best predictor of job satisfaction to be positive relationships with administration as well as appropriate compensation (Hagedorn, 1994).

Herzberg's Model of Job Satisfaction

Applying the extensive job satisfaction research that has already been conducted in organizations to faculty job satisfaction and persistence reveals specific findings. The relationship between satisfaction and dissatisfaction is compared in light of intrinsic and extrinsic characteristics of employment in higher education. The motivational model designed by Herzberg (1957) though aged, is applicable to organizational psychology today. The work of Herzberg made straightforward divisions between intrinsic and extrinsic elements, stating there is a standard human capacity for achievement which often provides opportunities for inner development. The dual factors of Herzberg's research are found in opposing needs that originate from plain instinctive nature: a drive to circumvent pain in one's environment and all of the learned drives that are building blocks to the simple needs. One example of an extrinsic factor might be the drive to earn a decent wage. This is built upon the basic need of hunger, whereas the factors of responsibility and the pleasure that comes from the work itself arise from the human capacity to individually succeed. In educational settings, intrinsic influences create a direct link between faculty and their daily schedule, as well as the performance of the job duties.

Herzberg (1987) included the work itself, responsibility, and growth or achievement as intrinsic factors in his two-part model. Extrinsic factors such as the tendency to avoid displeasure include organizational policy, status, pay, benefits, and general conditions in the workplace. Although extrinsic factors have less impact on the everyday job experience, they are always in the background of one's work (Iiacqua, 2001). Job satisfaction, career and life cycle theories both forecast a cycle change at midcareer and again at late career which cause faculty to enter a time when they appreciate life changes and are impressed with the need for self-reflection. Hagedorn (2000) distributed that this midcareer trigger can be compared to a midlife crisis during which previous career doubts resurface. These might include questions such as: "Is this what I want to do for the rest of my working life? Are my research and teaching meaningful? Have I made a difference? Am I a success?" (p. 10). Likewise, fresh doubts begin to appear as faculty ponder life after retirement. Questions might be: "Now what? What can I do now that will best prepare me for the life I have left? How should I continue professional relationships?" (p. 10). Hagedorn purported this personal reflection of a faculty member calls for a redefinition of job satisfaction mediators, and ultimately shifting on the job satisfaction continuum.

Change in Family-Related or Personal Circumstances

Adams, King, and King (1996) stated significant changes in the family or to personal circumstances such as the birth of a child, the death of someone close, marriage, divorce, illness, or other substantial events occurring to oneself or a loved one results in changes in a faculty member's vantage point on both the job and life. Movement up or down on the job satisfaction continuum is present especially among females in the

presence of work-family conflict. This sort of conflict between family concerns and the job results in stress which has potential to affect psychological and physical health. This trigger is more shared with gender, as the conflict between work and family is commonly more critical for females (Duxbury, Higgins, & Lee, 1994).

Change in Rank or Tenure

According to Baldwin (1990) professors experience change as they pass through the faculty ranks and as they experience different demands from their careers. Braskamp and Ory (1984) shared that a change in rank brings a fresh perspective on the position, altered expectations, and an adjustment in duties. Their data, collected by interviewing forty-eight professors with varying ranks to evaluate repercussions of rank, supported the hypothesis that a promotion in rank can be compared to a progression to a different stage of improvement. Ultimately Braskamp and Ory found that assistant professors dwell on advancing in the profession; whereas associate professors switch their focus to achieve equilibrium in personal life. Finally, in this study, the full professors were found to be able to delineate their professional life and achieve lifetime goals. Consequently a promotion has the potential to trigger a change in causes of satisfaction. Supporting this model, other researchers have found rank and tenure to be an influential variable in the contentment of faculty (Tack & Patitu, 1992). The subsequent advancements and achievement of tenure alter the emphasis, the concerns and subsequent goals, thereby resulting in a different mix of mediators—causing movement on the continuum of job satisfaction (Hagedorn, 2000).

Transfer to a Different Institution

Faculty are inclined to be mobile and willing to relocate to advance in their career. Hagedorn's framework (2000) includes job transfer as a trigger in faculty job satisfaction, but it was difficult to measure the scale of faculty turnover nationally. Hagedorn conveyed that the National Center for Education Statistics does not keep chronicles of faculty mobility. The research of Harrigan (1999) calculates the movement in this manner:

> If all faculty were hired and retained until retirement after thirty years of service, we would expect an equilibrium turnover rate of about one-third of the faculty every ten years or 3.3 percent per year. An alternative hypothetical university, which hired all of its faculty on probation and which denied tenure to all of them in their seventh year, would have an equilibrium turnover rate of one-seventh or 14.3 percent per year. Thus we would expect the 'normal' turnover rate to fall somewhere between these two extremes. (p. 1)

Change in Perceived Justice

Hagedorn (1996, 1998) distributed areas where feelings of justice and equity have a role in job satisfaction. They are:

- Practices of promotion,
- Hiring,
- Tenure,
- Nomination for awards, and
- Equal pay.

Hagedorn (1996, 1998) found perceived fairness of equal pay between genders as a strong predictor of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction and intent to remain in academia had a stronger relation to gender-equitable salary structures than to salary level. Greater levels of dissatisfaction were present when female faculty members perceived their salary to be less than male contemporaries, versus when both genders were underpaid.

Change in Mood or Emotional State

The final trigger, a change in mood or emotional state, relates to the employee's affect, or disposition (Hagedorn, 2000) and is a central variable with strong bearing for one's position on the job satisfaction continuum. Researchers Izard, Kagan, and Zajonc (1984) found emotions play a critical role in personal and social endeavors enveloping work attitudes. Clearly there is little an institution can do to alter an employee's mood or disposition. In support of this reality is a study (Furnham, Forde, & Ferrari, 1999) of job applicants which revealed that as much as twenty to thirty percent of the discrepancy in job performance and attitudes was a direct effect of former personality or disposition elements

Female Faculty Presence in Higher Education

In 1972 Congress passed Title IX (1972) prohibiting sex discrimination in education. Yet in present day women still struggle to join the top faculty ranks of colleges and Universities. Scruton (2013) wrote although there is a vast presence of female students on higher education campuses, solidified over the last several decades, females are still underrepresented in full-time faculty roles. Scruton reports that in preparation for a career as a faculty member in higher education, advisors and trusted professors cautioned her about the potential challenges she could face as a woman in

academia. Her mentors warned her there would be difficult decisions between a personal life and earning tenure and that the collegial environment is sometimes *chilly* for females. Scruton (2013) went on to say that the more she investigated, the more she discovered women seemed to be unhappy, many times unsatisfied with multiple points of the job. This prompted Scruton to continue her research into identifying key characteristics which could improve career success of women as faculty in higher education.

Scruton's (2013) interest turned into in-depth research examining the job satisfaction levels of female faculty at 4-year postsecondary Carnegie classification institutions, using the 2014 National Study of Postsecondary Faculty (NSOPF), which was conducted by the National Center for Education Statistics of the U.S. Department of Education. This research study sought to determine if a connection existed between demographic characteristics and institutional characteristics of job satisfaction among female faculty members. Two main categories of independent variables were used to compare the levels of female faculty job satisfaction: demographic and institutional. Variables of gender, age, marital status, annual salary, race, tenure status, academic rank, professional discipline, and scholarly productivity (NSOPF, 2014). Institutional variables incorporated Carnegie classification of the institution, school size based on enrollment, and institution type and control. Satisfaction with instructional activities and satisfaction with employment conditions were included as dependent variable indexes. The instructional activities index used in Scruton's research was comprised of variables such as satisfaction with academic freedom, technology, equipment and facilities, and teaching improvement. The research index used to observe satisfaction with employment

conditions included variables of satisfaction with workload, salary, benefits, and overall job (Scruton, 2013).

An important outcome of education is to provide opportunities for students to pursue a career or profession, however many women in higher education come up against barriers of society which limit access to the upper levels of their occupations (Scruton, 2013). The growing number of women entering the workforce has resulted in a public emphasis on diversity, especially in higher education. Since 1981 and 1982, women have been earning more master's degrees and bachelor's degrees than men. In 2008-2009 women earned 58.6% of all bachelor's degrees, 61.3% of all master's and 51.2% of doctorates (U.S. Department of Education, 2007). Scruton (2013) took issue with the information available at the time of her research study, purporting that although women were earning 51% of all doctorates awarded to U.S. citizens, the pipeline to the full professorship seemed to be narrowing. Scruton urged the academy to identify and change in order to allow for fair and suitable access for future female professors.

Shortage of Female Faculty in Higher Education

Scruton's contribution (2013) to the literature focuses on the shortage of female faculty and surmised that despite the increase of women in the professorate, the representation of women is far from equal. Still, women are promoted and granted tenure at slower rates (Valian, 1998; Bently & Blackburn, 1992; Bain & Cummings, 2000), are often employed at less prestigious institutions, and in less high-status fields than are their male peers (Valian, 1998). Scruton (2013) dissects the issue of the shortage of female faculty into several key factors. Harper and colleagues (2001) found women out represent men in full-time non-tenure track lecturer and instructor positions which are the

lowest paid and certainly lack job security (NCES, 2002, 2004; Nettles, Perna & Bradburn, 2000). In addition, Tack and Patitu (1992) discovered women also have higher rates of attrition from the academy and are more likely to seek non-academic careers.

Scruton (2013) collated research surrounding several obstacles for women on the path to a faculty position. Incongruent hiring and tenure, as well as limiting promotion practices retard women's progress toward similar representation among faculty ranks. Two studies (Rausch et al., 1989; Rothlblum, 1988) found that the rate of voluntary separation from employment was more than two times greater for women than for men in similar roles. Scruton (2013) developed questions of great interest to this literature review. The first is: To what extent are the demographic characteristics of female faculty associated with their levels of job satisfaction? Second, which variables contribute most to job satisfaction for female faculty? In her review of the literature, Scruton (2013) shared her concerns for the significance of job satisfaction to academia. Scruton purported that once an individual is offered a position, a supervisor possessing knowledge of the employee's job satisfaction can have a positive outcome. The supervisor can offer encouragement for professional growth as well as allow for opportunities for advancement into positions where more challenges are provided.

Scruton (2013) defined several terms in her research to narrow down the focus of job satisfaction. They are detailed as follows:

1. Extrinsic Job Satisfaction: relates to the context of the job and the environment in which one works. This includes authority, company policies and practices, recognition, responsibility, security, and variety (Weiss et al., 1967).

2. Intrinsic Job Satisfaction: concerns job content or the work itself: involves ability, achievement, advancement, compensation, coworkers, independence, moral values, working conditions, job satisfaction facets (Weiss et al., 1967).
3. Gender Stereotype: defined as labels that simplify and classify the qualities of females and males. Can refer to attitudes, beliefs, talents, capabilities, limitations, and behaviors. In higher education, for example, stereotypes has minimized abilities and chances of female faculty to advance (Tack & Patitu, 1992).
4. Job Satisfaction: an overall indicator measured by job contentment variables. Often the feelings associated with one's job and how one feels about the job (Spector, 1997).

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Robbins (1998) demonstrated employee satisfaction to lead to greater productivity, a willingness to assume additional job tasks, and an aspiration to take on new tasks. Duyar and Normore (2012) stated that faculty members who contribute more to the mission of their department, college, or university than is required are identified as ones who exhibit *Organizational Citizenship Behavior*, a term used to describe exceptional performance. OCB, also called *discretionary behavior*, contributes to the effectiveness of an organization and was first reported in studies beginning in 2001. The effectiveness of educational organizations, unlike some private sector organizations, is dependent upon discretionary behaviors in its faculty. This is due to the high level of expertise and proficiency that educators possess and their capacity to observe ethical standards of commitment and service to students. The efforts of educators are complex,

require specialized judgments, and cannot always be defined in job descriptions or contractual agreements. Therefore, Duyar and Normore (2012) hypothesized it is the optional activities of educators, which heighten the success of their students and colleagues, and are central characteristics in the performance of educational groups.

Bolino and colleagues (2015) stated more favorable faculty evaluations often come from going beyond the call of duty by lending a helping hand or mentoring coworkers, getting involved in the university community, encouraging others, or offering to take on further responsibilities (Bolino, Hsiung, Harvey & LePine, 2015). Workplaces where *Organizational Citizenship Behavior* (OCB) can easily be seen are often more attractive places to work; however there is a downside to contributing more than is requisite to the efforts of one's organization. Wood (1976) specified "The health of an educational institution depends on the job satisfaction of its employees" (p. 58). Bolino and colleagues (2015) distributed there are workplace conditions which influence the degree to which employees feel tired, worn out, or on edge as a result of engaging in organizational citizenship behavior, stating that engagement in OCB has the potential to be draining and depleting. It is often a faculty member's choice to continue engaging in OCB, with investment of cognitive, emotional and physical energy in activities that are not requisite of the job duties. This can result in internal turmoil, especially when resources are limited. A self-imposed expectation of sorts is placed on the faculty member to be available to do more, and in due course, employees who might otherwise be willing to help out when called upon might respond negatively when met with an opportunity to show citizenship. Examples that might push a faculty member *over the edge* would be a coworker who requests some assistance or the announcement of a short-

notice meeting, or a simple request for some suggestions. Feelings of *enough is enough* or *I'm tired of trying* often surface (Bolino, et al., 2015).

Burnout

Oplatka (2002) stated *burnout*, a theory coined in the 1970's and 1980's by researchers such as Maslach and Jackson, Pines, and Cherniss, has been coined a syndrome, a condition, or a series of negative attitudes. Maslach's Burnout Inventory (MBI) identifies symptoms including emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). A second inventory developed during that time, the Burnout Measurement (BM), authored by Pines, Aronson and Kafry (1981) included symptoms of emotional, mental, and physical fatigue; feelings of helplessness, hopelessness, low self-esteem and lack of enthusiasm about work and life Cherniss (1980) contributed a third model, portraying burnout as a sequence of destructive attitude changes that transpire over time, especially in areas of emotional detachment and self-regard. Of these leaders in the study of burnout, it is the definition and inventory created by Maslach and Jackson (1981) which is the most prominent. It is most widely used in educational management and the social sciences (Sarros, 1988).

The Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) was developed to measure the degree to which burnout was present (Maslach, Jackson, Leiter, Schaufeli & Schwab, 1986). The MBI has three components: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment. Emotional exhaustion refers to feelings of being overstretched emotionally and drained by dealings with people, whereas depersonalization is associated with a detached and callous response to clients/individuals in the workplace. The third

component, represented by reduced personal accomplishment, occurs when there is a decline in one's feelings of competence and achievement in one's work.

Burnout (Maslach & Jackson, 1984) is a condition characterized by emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment. Although employees can be affected in a variety of ways, there are organizational conditions which contribute to employee burnout. Examples are lack of feedback from an employee's supervisor, a lack of control in accomplishing job duties, a lack of role clarity, a lack of social support, and unrealistic expectations about the job.

A case study by Oplatka (2002) assessing burnout in female principals provided a look into the professional lives of mid-career employees experiencing varying levels of burnout within their profession. In Oplatka's study, six female Israeli principals in public education settings were interviewed for two hours twice in a two-month period wherein the interviewer asked questions, but was careful to do a great deal of listening so as not to influence the interviewee. Acquiring information through subjective questions, and the information gathered was helpful for adding to the literature on females in educational leadership, the findings from Oplatka's study revealed three components of burnout, but an interesting contradiction appeared. While each principal possessed the components associated with burnout, they also reported positive feelings about their support systems, the relationships with teachers, parents, and the meaning found in their jobs. Despite emotional and physical fatigue and reduced personal accomplishment, the women principals also told of using innovative techniques, being proactive, and having positive feelings and attitudes toward students and school staff. Despite their fatigue, Oplatka reported being surprised that the principals expressed strong concern to not become

complacent. Oplatka further found these behaviors to be contradictory to typical burnout constructs (2002).

Positive Organizational Scholarship

POS, or *Positive Organizational Scholarship*, was first introduced in 2003 as an upcoming field of study in the organizational sciences (Cameron & Spreitzer, 2011). POS focuses on what causes organizations to be effective, their employees fruitful, and the environment productive. Dutton and Glynn (2007) discussed descriptions of the domain include but are not limited to "the states and processes that arise from and result in life-giving dynamics, optimal functioning, and enhanced capabilities and strengths" (p. 693). Roberts (2006) stated POS places "an emphasis on identifying individual and collective strengths (attributes and processes) and discovering how such strengths enable human flourishing (goodness, generativity, growth, and resilience)" (p. 292).

Origin of POS

Positive Organizational Scholarship (POS), a recent addition to organizational science, and not historically recognized in scientific circles, discusses the effects of virtues in the workplace and uses expressions such as *flourishing* or *positive deviance* to define properties (Cameron & Caza, 2002; Dutton et al., 2002). Cameron and Spritzer (2001) reported topics surrounding the human condition were traditionally not considered scientific, and therefore not scholarly, and as a result, the supreme part of our humanity, that which people truly care the most about, took a back seat in organizational scholarship. Cameron and Spritzer convey POS truly began to get traction as a field of study in the early part of this century, but it has been a topic on the minds of scholars for

decades. In his March 18, 1968 speech at the University of Kansas, Robert Kennedy put nicely into words the sentiment behind POS:

> The gross national product does not allow for the health of our children, the quality of their education, or the joy of their play. It does not include the beauty of our poetry or the strength of our marriages, the intelligence of our public debate, or the integrity of our public officials. It measures neither our wit nor our courage, neither our wisdom nor our learning, neither our compassion nor our devotion to our county. It measures everything, in short, except that which makes life worthwhile. (Cameron & Spritzer, 2001 p. 4)

POS puts the spotlight on organizations as a background for study and simultaneously stresses the value of numerous levels of assessment such as individuals, groups, and civilizations.

> Positive organizational scholarship highlights processes and practices that occur in organizations and are associated with positive outcomes, the empirical rational for claims about positivity, and the theoretical rationale for the life-giving dynamics and outcomes associated with organizations. (Cameron & Spritzer, 2001; p. 4)

Cameron and Spritzer (2001) disseminated POS, with its roots at the University of Michigan, gained traction roughly in 2001, and officially began to be considered as an identifiable field of study. Similar to accounts of how other movements and initiatives have begun, a variety of circumstances describe the early roots of scholarly attention toward POS, and no sole description can be given credit for capturing the entirety of impetuses and noteworthy events that gave rise to this field of scholarly work. POS

surfaced as Jane Dutton, researcher of compassion in individuals and organizations, and Kim Cameron investigator of organizational forgiveness, joined with colleague Robert Quinn who was studying positive personal change (Cameron & Spritzer, 2001). The surrounding discussions prompted the sponsorship of a conference on matters seemingly having no home amongst conventional organizational studies. The goal was to join researchers in psychology and organizational behavior to study what could be learned in collaboration about the topic of positive occurrences in organizations.

As Dutton, Cameron, and Quinn (Cameron & Spritzer, 2001) worked to plan the event mentioned above, the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001 took place in New York, Washington, D.C., and Pennsylvania. As did many other Unites States citizens, the conference planners realized their strong compulsions to contribute resources that might offer solace to those in anguish from the pain and loss caused by these horrendous events. As a result, a website was launched called *Leading in Trying Times* (http://www.bus.umich.edu/Positive/CPOS/Publications/tryingtimes.html) which pooled what had been gained from the research surrounding positive methodologies to demanding and difficult circumstances. Scholars added succinct articles of relevance on topics such as compassion, transcendence, hope, resilience, healing, forgiveness, helping, courage, character, and finding strength (Cameron & Spritzer, 2001). The responses that would pour in from practitioners and scholars alike brought to light the need for more devotion to be directed to understanding how to develop thriving organizations in the midst of challenge and hurt. The conference organized by Dutton, Cameron, and Quinn brought scholars together from various academic purviews to converse regarding approaches to addressing difficult conditions and problems (Cameron & Spritzer, 2001).

How to nurture thriving and strength-building at individual, group, and organizational levels was the ultimate goal of the conference. As a result, the Center for Positive Organizational Scholarship was formed at the University of Michigan (www.bus.umich.edu/positive) by colleagues Baker, Mayer, Spreitzer, and Wooten. Those individuals together selected the title, Positive Organizational Scholarship to define the collective themes being pursued (Cameron & Spritzer, 2001).

Importance of POS Research

Cameron and Spreitzer (2001) offer that research focusing on the positive is significant not only because positive phenomena have been mostly ignored in studies of organizations, but because positive circumstances create a *heliotropic effect*. *Heliotropism* is a "tendency in all living systems toward positive energy and away from negative energy—or toward that which is life giving and away from that which is life-depleting" (Cameron & Spritzer, 2001, p. 5). Based on the heliotropic dispute, a positive environment is the preferred condition because it produces "positive energy and life-giving resourcefulness" (p. 5) Behind this reasoning is the logic that human systems, like other natural systems found in nature, have innate predispositions toward the positive (Cameron, 2008). Colleges and universities that will appreciate the inclination of its employees to be drawn toward the positive and the repercussions of such have the potential to increase job satisfaction and retention of talented faculty.

Other defining accounts in POS development (Cameron, Dutton, & Quinn, 2003) embrace the study of particularly positive results, processes, and qualities of organization and their affiliates, with an attention to dynamics that are characteristically described by words such as excellence, thriving, flourishing, abundance, resilience, or virtuousness.

Kouzes and Pozner (2003) wrote that leading others in getting extraordinary things done is a capacity developed by leaders whereby constituents are guided into new territory.

The work of Cameron and Spreitzer (2011) defines the *O* (organizational) in POS as concentrating on exploring positive processes and conditions that occur in conjunction with organizational settings. The *S* (scholarship) focuses on "pursuing rigorous, systematic, and theory-based foundations for positive phenomena" (p. 2). There is vagueness in the definition surrounding the concept associated with *P*—positive. Dutton and Glynn (2007) and Caza and Cameron (2008) stated *positive* is criticized for implying that organizational science is often negative and that a thin ethical agenda is being followed. Contrary to what some might assume, the term has been given acclaim with expanding and elevating the field and is useful for explaining performance in organizations and utilizes broadening, not confining, studies.

Cameron and Spreitzer (2011) conveyed that as the term *positive* has begun to appear more frequently in scholarly work since roughly 2002, and scholars have summarized the coming together into four methodologies to specify the domain of POS. Job satisfaction can be impacted when organizations operate from a lense of POS, and identifying and describing these subjects helps develop a theoretical or conceptual enlightenment of what positive means in the framework of POS. The first approach is to take on a distinctive lens or an unconventional angle, wherein one's "interpretation of phenomena is altered" (Cameron & Spreitzer, 2011, p. 2). In doing so, Gittell, Cameron, Lim, and Rivas (2006) concluded an organization might find challenges and obstacles can be reframed as opportunities and strength-fostering experiences rather than as catastrophes or difficulties. Baker, Cross and Wooten (2003) discovered variables not

given serious consideration or not previously recognized begin to be seen as central, such as positive energy, compassion (Dutton et al., 2007), and callings (Wrzesniewski, 2003) in organizations. Cameron and Spreitzer (2011) postulated embracing a POS lens results in an environment where hardships and troubles reside as much in the domain of POS as they do in celebration and accomplishments. In addition, a positive lens focuses attention on the life-giving elements or generative processes associated with these phenomena.

Spreitzer & Sonenshein (2003) conveyed a second approach to defining *positive* placing an emphasis on particularly positive results or positively unexpected performance. Cameron and Spreitzer (2012) report outcomes that dramatically exceed expectation, include remarkable results, and extraordinary accomplishments have triggered several investigations (Gittell, et al., 2006; Hess & Cameron, 2006; Tutu, 1999; Worthington, 2001) with each handling "positive" as tantamount with exceptional performance. Spreitzer and Sonenstein (2003) describe extraordinary success, overcoming unspeakable challenges, and cultural transformations as examples of positive deviance where achievement is demonstrated by "behaviors that depart from the norm of a reference group in honorable ways" (p. 209). These sentiments are echoed in Nelson's (2012) writings about the value of employee recognition in organizational health and employee persistence.

Fredrickson and Joiner (2002) expressed that the term *positive* is further represented by an agreeing partiality that nurtures resourcefulness. POS embraces the idea that positivity brings out resources in individuals, groups, and organizations, thus expanding the competencies of individuals within the organization (Fredrickson, 2002, 2009). *Resourcefulness* is a term found in POS whereby persons and organizations

experience a magnifying outcome when exposed to positivity, such that resources and abilities multiply (Dutton & Sonenshein, 2009; Fredrickson, 2002). Clifton and Harter (2003) convey POS does not apologize for accentuating favorable attributes, competencies, and opportunities more than problems, pressures, and weakness, in order to highlight strength-based undertakings.

Elders (1972) and Dutton and Sonenshein (2009) describe the fourth area of coming together on the subject of *positive* is examining the best of the human condition otherwise referred to as *virtuousness*, which is the notion that there is a human tendency toward achieving the highest of aspirations. Comte-Sponville (2001) and Peterson and Seligman (2004) concluded there is much debate among cultures about what virtue is and what makes up goodness, or whether there are even human virtues that are universal. However, all cultures and societies seem to retain collections of traits that they consider honorable or virtuous, that define what is morally upright, and that define the highest ambitions of human beings.

Callings in Work

There is a theme called *callings* in work that is an attribute of individuals described in POS literature (Wrzesniewski, 2003). The collected works defined callings in work with different approaches, details regarding its origin, and the outcome and implications of callings in work for organizations. Practitioners and well-known authors endeavor to help explorers find their callings as well as their effects, while seekers too numerous to count ponder about what their calling might be, and if they have found it--how to effectively follow it. While there is not a single universally recognized definition of the term *callings*, the term has been given a wide-ranging scope of descriptions in the

organizational literature. Wrzesniewski conveyed the variety in these definitions stems from the origins of both social sciences and early philosophical and religious writings, such that there is ongoing debate surrounding callings as the nature of the research is as dynamic as is the inquiry.

A calling can be one of several entities or a combination. American sociologist Robert Bella and his associates (Bellah, Madsen, Sullivan, Swidler, & Tipton, 1985) investigated individual distinctiveness and commitment in a variety of domains of life and in their discussions they contended work can be experienced as a calling and those operating under such calling work not chiefly for monetary gain or professional advancement, but instead for the contentment and fulfillment that such work brings to the individual. Later, Wrzesniewski and contemporaries (Wrzesniewski, McCauley, Rozin and Schwartz, 1997) drew on this characterization to define callings as work that people feel is usually appreciated as communally valuable-an end in itself. More specifically, Baumeister (1991), Bellah et al. (1985), Elangovan, Pinder, and McLean (2010) distributed a calling is often described as a meaningful summoning toward involvement in activities that are morally, socially, or personally noteworthy. Bunderson and Thompson (2009), Levoy (1998), and Novak (1996) maintained a calling is assumed to be unique to the individual, consisting of activities people perceive they must do to accomplish their matchless purpose in life, and locating the path to connect with one's true identity.

Others describe the term *calling* based on a religious entity. Specifically, callings have roots in Christian theology, which has a fundamental foundation wherein people were *called* by God to do morally and socially important work (Weber, 1958, 1963).

Ciulla (2011) postulated a shift occurred as a result of the Protestant Reformation during which time the meaning of work became an activity that was adored in its own right, rather than a quest that lacked intrinsic value. The theology of Martin Luther promoted the concept of a calling with an occupational bearing from God about how best to serve God and the community (Weber, 1958). Nord, Brief, Atieh, and Doherty (1990) wrote John Calvin would go on to define callings as a divine ordinance to which individuals have an obligation and charge; out of which intrinsic value would be found. Furthermore, a failure to realize one's calling was seen as immoral. This vantage point suggests that callings are revealed by God either directly or discovered in one's aptitudes, thus denoting that callings are spiritual undertakings rather than expressions of the self.

Moreover, scholars state the term *callings* in contemporary times is more often defined as a signaling from God to a vocation, the acceptance and execution of which is believed to accomplish the will of God (Hardy, 1990; Weiss, Skelley, Haughey, & Hall, 2004). In line with this perspective, Steger, Pickering, Shin, and Dik (2010) wrote if work is accomplished for purposes other than service to God, it is of little spiritual consequence; nevertheless any work dedicated to God can become holy. Bunderson and Thompson (2009) discovered organizational scholars of late recently have studied the traditional roots of calling in religion, gaining a better appreciation of the posture of calling in a neoclassical sense, replicating the Protestant Reformation notion of calling as a duty to society rather than as a fulfilling application of pleasure in one's work. Conversely, Wrzesniewski et al. (2009) reports callings have largely lost this religious undertone and have a tendency to be defined in a more secular manner as consisting of gratifying or pleasing work that the individual believes is making the world a better

place. Thus in the modern era, the concept of a calling has taken on other forms and is only one meaning that people ascribe to their work. Recent literature (Duffy, Allan, & Dik, 2011; Elangovan et al., 2010) suggests callings in organizational behavior share three central components. The first is that callings tend to be action-oriented; second, callings put forward a sense of significance and mission; and third, callings are prosocial in their purpose.

Baumeister (1991); Bellah et al. (1985); and Schwartz (1986, 2001) propagated work orientation builds on theoretical claims from sociology and psychology that work is exclusively experienced by individuals in one of three discrete ways: as a job, in which the focus of the work is on earnings; a profession, in which the focus is on development in one's line of work; or a calling. Wrzesniewski (2003) proposed these classifications embody three different work orientations, which aide individuals' basic objectives for working, capture philosophies about the role of work in life, and are mirrored in work-related feelings and behaviors.

Organizational Leadership

Schein (2006) conveys the importance for educational administrators and leaders to evaluate the culture of the organization to ensure its mission and goals are being accomplished, while doing one's level best to create a positive work environment in order to maintain a talented faculty. It seems that the culture of an organization is what allows it to thrive or deteriorate, even though the concept of culture is intangible and theoretical in nature. Schein, a forerunner in the field of organizational study, has written about the meaning of culture, how it grows and changes, and how culture itself can be altered. His work describes the topics of organizational culture and leadership as complicated since

themes have been taken from anthropology, sociology, social psychology, and cognitive psychology.

Schein (2006) conveyed organizational culture, becoming a field all its own and linked heavily with wider studies of culture, continues to be influenced by globalism of our modern times. Schein digests the term using a magnifying glass to reveal the culture in our modern society, making admission to the implications of our global challenges and disclosing cause for an author to feel overwhelmed by both the volume of research. Schein (2006) also reports in is a growing struggle to make sense of organizational research. After several decades of studying culture and organizations, Schein concludes that despite the variations in interactions between cultures, how different professions delineate tasks, and how multicultural teams function is growing quickly. Schein concludes it is difficult to review the field analytically, but on a brighter side, holds the belief that the basic conceptual model developed over thirty years holds true as a sound method by which cultural phenomena can be analyzed.

Saphier & King (1985) describe the intersection of organizations and culture as inevitable, deeming it appropriate for those in leadership to evaluate the landscape of their school and organization. It is fitting to examine organizational culture and the challenges facing those in leadership--especially in educational leadership. There are many classic sources still referenced today, as well as modern takes on the topic. Saphier and King used metaphors to develop an understanding of school culture which ultimately attract and retain talented individuals to academic careers. The two researchers asserted an academically effective school is set apart by its culture and norms. The culture and climate of higher education does not stray far from that of a K-12 setting.

Saphier and King went on to say that culture in a school context is a combination of structure, process, and a climate of principles and standards that channel employees and students in the direction of effective teaching and learning. Increasing organizational effectiveness of the entire building is neither grade-level nor curriculum specific, rather correlated with strong norms in a soil of good culture. Saphier and King claim strong culture is crucial to making schools attractive places of work. This can be applied to higher education settings as well, wherein faculty can experience greater job satisfaction and express commitment to the institution. Organizational health is not built on a strong curriculum or programs, rather fostered as Saphier and King (1985) say, in good cultural soil.

According to Raelin (2006), the conventional understanding of leadership is that leaders communicate a vision of the organization to the employees and provide a sense of purpose to its members. Raelin goes on to say that leaders must be very clear about the vision for the organization and once established, the leader's subsequent charge is to promote its espousal through the organization. In this top-down approach, the vision is passed down through the ranks, becoming actualized as it is adopted by those in lower management (Raelin, 2006).

Former Secretary of State General Colin Powell describes the process of visioning in Harari's (2002) book *The Leadership Secrets of Colin Powell*. General Powell was quoted as saying this about effective leaders:

> They articulate vivid, overarching goals and values, which they use to drive daily behaviors and choices among competing alternatives. Their decisions are crisp and clear, not tentative and ambiguous. They convey an unwavering firmness and

consistency in their actions, aligned with the picture of the future they paint. (p. 260)

General Powell espoused that strong leadership in an organization comes from a vison which is pre-formulated and firm. Despite traditional, conventional views of leadership, the best leaders identify and express the meaning that is inherent in the work of the organization (Raelin, 2006).

Similarly, Kotter (1999) discussed leadership in terms of alignment. He wrote that one of the primary roles of top managers and administrators is to manage their employees in a way that they grasp an idea of an unconventional future. The subsequent challenge is to develop a credibility which gets people to be fully invested in the message. Finally Kotter espoused that leaders must empower others to carry out and implement the vision. According to Raelin (2006), further challenges come into play when and if lower ranking employees do not truly have buy-in to the vision. People who have participation and involvement in the vision fundamental to an organization's efforts are more likely to participate in carrying it out than those simply handed a mandate (Raelin, 2006). This is supported by the cultural norm of involvement in decision making which purports that employees whose input is sought and whose thoughts are considered experience greater levels of job satisfaction and therefore improved workplace culture (Saphier & King, 1985). Nelson (2012) echoes the sentiment that employees who are encouraged to take initiative, and are involved in decision making have higher levels of participation and job satisfaction.

Organizational Culture

Saphier and King (1985) offered that schools ought to nurture and build on the cultural norms that add to growth, apart from the specific focus of any given change effort. Adding to the literature of their time, Saphier and King coined the concept that cultures are constructed through the daily business of school life, describing the manner in which business is handled to form and reveal the culture of the school. Norms will give shape and direction to a school's culture, providing an articulated vision of a school's core values, purposes, and stances (Saphier & King). Nelson (2012) supports employee involvement and input in implementing change at an organizational level, adding that employee ideas, no matter how small, should be implemented quickly to foster strong culture in an organization.

Often times, the culture of schools and organizations needs improvement. Saphier and King (1985) wrote about twelve cultural norms that lead to school improvement. Although written about schools, these norms can be linked to employee job satisfaction in higher education settings. Each seems to be more important than the next, and just as relevant to present day change processes as in decades past. These norms are: collegiality, experimentation, high expectations, trust and confidence, tangible support, reaching out to the knowledge bases, appreciation and recognition. The list goes on to include: Caring, Celebration and Humor, Involvement in Decision Making, Protection of What is Important, Traditions, and Honest Communication (Saphier & King, 1985).

Saphier and King (1985) postulate for a school to see marked improvement, the professional staff should experience collegiality. For instance, the employees and

teachers can recognize their strengths and feel comfortable asking for help in their areas of weakness. Professional staff should be encouraged by administrators to experiment with new teaching practices and be rewarded for attempting new ideas. Experimentation leads to more creative professionals and more effective teaching. In school cultures where there are high expectations, there is accountability. Regular evaluations both reward achieved expectations and sanction lower achieving employees. This leads directly into the norm of trust and confidence. Despite how effective a teacher already perceives him/herself to be, parents and administrators can encourage effective teaching with such displays of confidence. Teachers are encouraged to bring new planning into the classroom and afforded discretion with instructional budget (Saphier and King, 1985).

According to Saphier and King (1985), it is crucial for the successful teacher and employee to be offered tangible support. Investing in professional development with sabbaticals, workshops, and funding for conferences are all ways that administration can demonstrate such support. Excellent leaders are clear and direct in what the expectations are, yet allow the staff liberty to realize those expectations. Reaching out to the knowledge bases affords teachers professional development in a simple way. Saphier and King continued that visiting other sites with the principal might provide time for discussion over lunch, a ride in the car, an opportunity for collegiality to teachers who do not normally cross paths. The work of Saphier and King discusses appreciation and recognition as a means to demonstrate care and commitment to staff members on your team. Hand-written notes, PTA luncheons, and sharing service awards in the local newspaper are ideas offered to show recognition for excellent work. Caring, celebration,

and humor can be demonstrated with simple birthday celebrations that lead to improved morale and job satisfaction (Saphier & King, 1985).

At the Heart of Leadership

Kouzes and Posner (1999), authors of Encouraging the Heart, and recognized for their work in training leaders on the topic of influence, share a system for mobilizing people through caring. At the center of their writings is the premise that leadership has little value without the act of caring for an organization's members. They go on to say that leadership takes heart. The example is given by Kouzes and Posner that it is a struggle to make it to the top without the encouraging words of someone shouting in the ear "Come on, you can do it. I know you can do it!" (Kouzes & Posner, p. xi). Kouzes and Posner reported that many of us are hesitant to admit that we need praise, but their research suggests performance is boosted and resolve is strengthened in the presence of encouragement. Humans need applause and the awareness that we are connected to others in order to perform at our best. The enthusiasm and energy from those around us make us better and allow us to achieve greatness (Kouzes & Posner, 1999).

Kouzes and Posner (1999) reported practice of encouraging the heart serves to connect individuals with one another and gestures employees to adopt the motto "we're in this together" (p. xii). Their research defines a basic human need to be appreciated for who we are and what we do can be met by leaders who apply the principles and practices of the heart in daily work. This sort of leader fosters a culture where employees make a connection between rewards and appreciation and standards of excellence. Whether it be a project, program, campaign, neighborhood, congregation, or division, these practices create social capital, and thereby result in people desiring to be "with and for one

another" (p. xii). Ultimately, recognition of employees for meaningful contributions expands personal awareness of their value to the organization and to co-workers; ultimately, a sense of connectedness is the main result (Kouzes & Posner, 2003).

Kouzes and Posner (2003) wrote *Encouraging the Heart* based on research of the practices of individuals found functioning at their personal best in leadership roles. After collecting a great deal of case studies on best practice and analyzing instruments used for assessing leadership Kouzes and Posner found five practices rose to the top. Known as the Five Practices, leaders do the following when accomplishing extraordinary things in their organization: model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act, and encourage the heart. While each of the practices is crucial to first-class leadership, no single practice alone is adequate. This conclusion was the lead-in for the research on the one practice of Encouraging the Heart, wherein the authors disseminated that leaders who implement the five practices create organizational cultures in which employees are more likely to have high job satisfaction (Kouzes & Posner, 2003).

In preparing for a seminar, it was principle that led Kouzes and Pozner (2003) to focus on the heart, as they found it concerning that the human side of business affairs was referenced by "the soft side." Clients from other cultures even suggested their presentation be retitled to not be so soft. Kouzes and Posner made a claim that "we never have, and we never will…we will not only demonstrate that encouraging the heart is not soft; we show how powerful a force it is in achieving high standards…if you're after results, then you'd better start paying attention to encouraging the heart" (Kouzes & Posner, 2003, p. xiv).

The third reason discussed by Kouzes and Posner (2003) concerning the importance of the five practices as requisite for a study on the model of encouraging the heart is that of curiosity. Of all the data they collected, Kouzes and Posner disseminated that men and women disclose differences in self-perception in regards to matters of the heart, and coming as no surprise at all, women exhibit more encouragement. However, when asked about their leaders' style, the responses were more gender-neutral wherein female members of organizations do not report their leaders to encourage the heart any more than male members report. Kouzes and Pozner found style to be is irrespective of the gender of the leader and concluded leadership by encouraging the heart to be more closely correlated to being effective as a leader than by being based on a stereotype of gender-role. Finally, the authors wanted to contribute to the body of research on the topic of "soul and spirit" in the workplace and offered that relationships are created by leaders and in the workplace one such relationship is between employees and their work (Kouzes & Pozner, 2003).

Kouzes and Pozner (2003) summarized the inspiration for their book: "To this final point, it is interesting to note that the word *encouragement* has its root in the Latin word *cor*, which literally means "heart." The word *courage* has the same denotation. To have courage means to have heart. To encourage—to provide with or give courage—literally means to give others heart." (p. xv). To illustrate their point, Kouzes and Pozner added the history lesson of King Richard I of England, whose reign was from 1189-1199 and is marked by courage. He would later earn the name *Richard the Lion-Hearted*. The notions brought to mind are not sentimental greeting card images, instead pictures of courage in challenging times, and perseverance in the face of great difficulties.

According to the authors of *Encouraging the Heart*, "Heart requires strength and toughness. It involves leaders' awareness of their responsibilities to those they're entrusted to lead, as well as to the values of the organizations that select them" (Kouzes and Pozner, 2003, p. xv).

Kouzes and Posner (2003) stated the translation of the Latin heart *cor* has a dual meaning; that encouragement includes generous and charitable behavior--like one with a big heart. Kouzes and Posner reported leaders who make a habit of encouraging the heart of their employees often show extreme gratitude to others for dedication and commitment to the organization's values. Furthermore, those who lead the hearts of others often possess a style of leadership with a dual nature. Toughness as well as tenderness; guts yet grace; firmness and fairness; passion and compassion. Leaders who give of their hearts inspire their constituents to "more fully develop and experience their own" (Kouzes & Posner, 2003, p. xvi).

Further support for leaders to leave their interpersonal safety zone comes from Fulghum's (1986) *Everything I Ever Needed to Know I Learned in Kindergarten.* Kouzes and Pozner (2003) posed that making one's self emotionally available does not require psychotherapy, rather it begins with simple gestures such as remembering to thank others. Kouzes and Pozner conveyed many studies illustrate the importance of simple manners in creating healthy workplaces and thus minimizing employee turnover. Kouzes and Posner reported one reason some employees cite for leaving an organization is a lack of praise or recognition. Lindahl (1949) spear-headed a famous study wherein employees ranked the intangible benefits of their jobs and found at the top of their lists of intangible rewards were two items: feeling appreciated and feeling that they were up-to-

date in regards to the happenings of the organization. The findings of Lindahl revealed employees desired to know they were heard by their managers, whereas the findings reported assumptions of managers that employees preferred good salary, job security, and promotion opportunities before being appreciated. Quite the opposite, Lindahl's study revealed in reality most managers had little concept of how highly their employees valued being heard and well-informed. To solidify that little has changed over the years in the realm of employee job satisfaction, Lindahl (1949) repeated his research study of the relationship between employees and managers in both the 1980's and 1990's, only to reiterate the findings of the original study (Kouzes & Pozner, 2003).

Kouzes and Pozner (2003) completed their own survey in preparation for writing *Encouraging the Heart* with the purpose of identifying the most significant nonfinancial reward employees receive in the workplace. The most common response was a modest thank-you. Kanter (1984) of Harvard Business School reported that the most innovative organizations demonstrated a much higher volume of thank-you's than companies where innovation is much lower. Graham (1987), author on the subject of employee motivation, wrote that personal congratulations rank at the top of the most influential nonfinancial reasons identified by employees. Ultimately at the core of effective leadership is genuine care and concern for people.

Bolman and Deal (2008), best-selling authors known for their writings on organizations and leadership, penned four frames of cultural norms. Although their research focuses strongly on schools, it can be applied to a variety of organizations, to include higher education. Bolman and Deal defined a frame as "a mental model—a set of ideas and assumptions—that you carry in your head to help you understand and negotiate

a particular territory. A good frame makes it easier to know what you are up against" (2008, p. 11). Such a lens can provide a leader or administrator a true bird's eye view of his or her organization.

The Human Resource Frame closely aligns with the norms provided by Saphier and King (1985). The norm called *Involvement in Decision Making* creates a culture of inclusion wherein although an employee's suggestions or input might not be implemented, an administrator who involves his or her staff in a meaningful way in decision making creates a strong culture (Saphier & King, 1985). Nelson (2012) echoed this idea for increasing employee performance and improving organizational effectiveness. The second norm, *Protection of What's Important*, is a custom that values time (Saphier & King, 1985). The commodity of time is the one thing always in short supply and organizations are not exempt from being constrained by time. A leader or administrator who values this norm strives to keep meetings short, shares information through memos, and arranges face-to-face meetings that include curriculum and instruction

Although clearly belonging in the Symbolic Frame, another norm found in successful school or organizational cultures is an emphasis on the importance of traditions (Bolman & Deal, 2008). Bolman and Deal discussed that this norm draws employees together and overlaps into the Human Resource frame illustrated by special events on the calendar, dates to anticipate such as field day, science fairs, or school carnivals root traditions in ceremony and can unite a school staff. In higher education, department gatherings or annual retreats where collegial relationships are fostered aid in the development of traditions. The final norm evidenced in improved organizations

(Saphier & King, 1985) is honest, open communication. Such a culture encourages communication through which an individual can speak for him or herself, directly and tactfully without fear of losing esteem or damaging relationships. There is an inner certainty that one is respected by others. Norms of appreciation and recognition, involvement in decision making, and reaching out to the knowledge bases support this kind of mutual respect (Saphier & King).

Sergiovanni (1984) developed a hierarchy of forces found in leadership of good schools. Simply put, actions make a difference when leaders possess the skills to implement Technical, Human, Educational, Symbolic, and Cultural forces. Technical skills refer to day-to-day administrative and logistical matters as assigning and scheduling. Human skills include perceiving group dynamics, active listening, and conflict management. Skills found in the Educational force might include knowledge about teaching and learning, whereas a leader demonstrating use of the Symbolic force will demonstrate a commitment to core institutional values and methods of representing them. Finally, the cultural arena involves constructing norms such as those developed by Saphier and King (1985). Saphier and King proposed that Sergiovanni's model could better be depicted that Educational, Human, and Technical forces are used often together on a regular basis and that Symbolic and Cultural forces can be seen woven into the other three skills.

In his article "Finding Meaning in the Organization," Raelin (2006) proposed an alternative to visions being supplied exclusively in a top-down manner, and that it is preferential for visions to develop as a result of being in a working group. Raelin went on to reason that a good leader is one who does not walk away to create the vision, but

one who realizes the vision is often already present, and that the group itself has created the vision. Raelin calls this form of articulation of vision meaning-making, wherein a *meaning-maker* is someone within an organization who gives expression or manifestation to the tasks the members wish to undertake and realize together in their work, and also has the skill to express a mutual sense of the group's attitudes and viewpoints. Furthermore, a meaning-maker listens well, is expressive, and is often "close to the rhythm of the team" (Raelin, 2006, p. 65). *Meaning-makers*, according to Raelin, can use an assortment of techniques to articulate the group's meaning, and a variety of tools could be used to create the vision; an image might be shared, humor might lighten the mood, facts combined, patterns discovered, or a problem might be capsized to look from a new perspective. Bolman and Deal (2008) report reframing allows an administrator or leader to see different viewpoints. Raelin's (2006) work reveals *meaning-makers* are intimately involved in their workplace and have a tendency to be particularly observant individuals, questioning how situations came to be. In addition, Raelin wrote these individuals tend to see things through the eyes of group members as well as from their own personal perspective. The art of *meaning-making* brings thinking and feeling to a higher level. Such thinking and feeling allows this person to view the facts in a more inclusive fashion, rather than stipulating a long list of responses and conclusions (Raelin, 2006).

Employee Input

Job satisfaction can be encouraged and developed in many ways. One such method of including employees in the organization and spurring them on is to solicit their ideas and viewpoints. In his book *1501 Ways to Reward Employees*, Nelson (2012)

offered suggestions and tactics for developing positive and productive workplaces and his research demonstrated that authentic motivation is intrinsic and stems from employee's freedom to express their thoughts and feelings and therefore make suggestions. Nelson distributed that management can send an empowering message to their employees by being responsive to employee input and implementing suggestions swiftly and that employee input can be collected via the old-fashioned suggestion box, or by a variety of systems designed to manage quality and organizational improvement. When debuting an employee suggestion program, Nelson (2012) conveyed key universal suggestions should be kept in mind. The first, Nelson wrote, is to encourage employees to make recommendations for improving either the place of work or your service to clients. Second, Nelson recommends leaders encourage any suggestion, no matter how insignificant or small because sometimes employees need to make small suggestions before posing more substantial ones. Finally, Nelson recommends leaders publicly recognize the employees who offer suggestions and share the ensuing results with the members of the organization (Nelson, 2012).

Nelson (2012) wrote that job satisfaction is improved in environments where employees feel safe making decisions, and that all too common is the situation where employees feel unsure about taking the initiative required to succeed. Nelson reported this is partially explained by uncertainty surrounding the manager's desires and expectations and revealed a Gallup survey (no date provided) of 1,200 United States workers showed that sixty-six percent of respondents claimed their supervisors or managers have asked them to become involved in the making of decisions, but only fourteen percent had the confidence and empowerment to make those decisions. Neslon

(2012) disseminated the findings that the employees perceived they did not have the proper authorization, funds, or backing requisite for success; whereas on the contrary, the more uplifting and supporting the environment is, the more likely employees will be to take the initiative organizations need to be competitive. Bill Gates, chairman and former CEO of Microsoft said that the manner in which a company deals with mistakes will show how well it will bring out the talents of its people and ultimately how well it will respond to change. He continues by saying atmosphere is improved and employees are more likely to come up with ideas and suggest doing business differently when they know their mistakes will not lead to retribution (Nelson, 2012)

Trust

Involving employees in decision making and encouraging initiative goes a long way in helping organizations excel (Neslon, 2012). Nelson discussed communicating with employees is the initial step in empowering them to perform in the organization's best interest; but beyond that comes the need to equip employees with frequent and timely information pertinent to the department's goals and mission. Nelson further conveyed pen and honest communication demonstrates the trust and respect that leadership has for its personnel. Coupled with that, when a person in authority requests and encourages his or her staff to truly participate in the organization's success, the outcomes can be significant. Of employees involved in a job satisfaction survey, Nelson found in a variety of industries an alarming 50 percent of employees wanted their supervisors to specifically seek their opinion and ideas regarding work, and an excess of 50 percent of employees would have liked their managers to include them in decisions that are made in the workplace. Solidifying this research, Nelson distributed the typical

American worker makes 1.1 suggestions for improvements in their workplace, which is one of the lowest rates among industrialized nations. Contrasted with 116 suggestions made each year by employees in Japan, the opportunities for employee engagement is obvious (Nelson, 2012).

Involvement in Decision Making

Nelson (2012) stated most business decisions in organizational culture are made at executive levels and the impact trickles down, but some research shows that is not always best. Nelson discussed that people who perform tasks in an organization on a daily basis are the most familiar with the department and the jobs within and suggested the person who places office supply orders is the best person to talk with about cost-saving measures in the same way that an ineffective or obsolete office process can be improved by the day-to-day manager of the task. Nelson reasoned these principles are equally applicable to faculty and staff in higher education. For example, the faculty member who does ongoing advising might be the best person to attend recruitment events geared toward parents and incoming students, rather than a student major or graduate assistant. Nelson wrote when employees perceive they have input in a decision, department-wide buy-in and involvement is considerably easier to acquire. He also wrote when employees as a whole are certain that decisions will be made regardless of their contribution, the probability of staff contributing open and honest opinions is diminished significantly. The Gallup survey Nelson (2012) referenced showed 66 percent of survey participants were asked by their supervisors to participate in decision making, but only 14 percent reported they felt empowered to make those decisions.

Autonomy

Job satisfaction has been important to employees for many years. Nelson (2012) referenced the writings of Benjamin Franklin in *Poor Richard's Almanac (*Franklin, Lewis, & Clark, 1889*)* with "If you ride a horse, sit close and tight. If you ride a man, sit easy and light" (p. 168). Nelson stated managers and higher educational officials should take heed in applying this advice in order to get the best performance from their employees. Nelson discussed autonomy, and distributed the concept of autonomy is one of the top motivators for employees in the workplace, and comes when an employee, or faculty member, has a say in how they go about doing their work and the capability, authority, and backing to do what is needed to accomplish the task at hand. Job satisfaction is directly impacted when employees have freedom to accomplish their tasks in the manner most suitable to their working style. Taken from Nelson's (2012) research, employees ranked the subsequent matters as very important or extremely important: "being allowed to decide how best to do one's work" (89 percent), "being given increased job autonomy" (87 percent), and finally "being given increased authority in the job" (85 percent) (p. 168). Nelson reported it is the autonomy and authority to make decisions which create trust and respect in a workplace. Employees (and faculty alike) crave a sense of independence and the liberty to put their footprint on their work. Nelson (2012) conveyed this freedom to foster creativity, resourcefulness and best efforts results often in higher performance and job satisfaction, as well as fulfillment in one's work. Meaningful work which correlates to job satisfaction, can be simply achieved by allowing employees to have input into how they choose to do their assigned work.

Persistence

In his book *1501 Ways to Reward Employees*, Nelson (2012) continued his research on employee recognition at the well-known financial investments firm, Edward Jones. Edward Jones strives to make its employees feel valued, and the proof is in the long careers and optimistic attitude of its employees. Nelson (2012) wrote about one study (no date given) by Fortune magazine which demonstrated the power of recognition in positive organizations. Fortune magazine surveyed Edward Jones employees and found that 96 percent reported it to be a friendly place to work, and more than 89 percent felt that managers carried through with their promises. The statistic that Nelson says is most telling is that 83 percent of the survey respondents intend to work at the company until retirement (Nelson, 2012). This is telling to higher education administrators of the relationship between positive workplaces and faculty job persistence.

Work-Life Balance

Female faculty in higher education are no different than employees in any other profession in that they must negotiate responsibilities at the job and in their personal lives. Roebuck, Smith and Haddaoui (2013) discussed the tight spot organizations find themselves in as they employ women from different generations and concluded the competitive nature of society and organizations causes employees to experience conflict between commitments and personal responsibilities. As a result, Roebuck and colleagues reported work-life balance has become a key topic of discussion in the workplace. Work-life balance is a term used to describe practices at the workplace that recognize and aim to support the needs of employees to maintain a healthy balance between the stresses of family life and work life.

In an effort to study workplace leadership attainment, Roebuck, Smith, and Haddaoui (2013) recently uncovered significant differences among three generations: Generation Y, Generation X, and Baby Boomers. Roebuck and colleagues disseminated while women from different generations varied in their definitions of what work-life balance is, the generational demographic faded as most shared they struggle with finding a balance. Some mentioned opting out of high-level leadership roles as the personal cost was significant; while those who had secured high-level leadership roles offered the supports that were most effective in helping them manage personal and professional commitments.

Hammill (2005) propagated o thoroughly evaluate job satisfaction of female faculty, it is interesting to note differences among generations. Baby Boomers, made up of the post-World War II babies, are known as the generation who "questioned authority" and have benefited from unheard of employment and educational opportunities in many countries. Hammill circulated Baby Boomers value creativity and appreciate adventure and risk-taking, and evaluation of achievement for this generation is found in personal fulfillment. Hammill's work also established job security is not everything to the Baby Boomer, wherein job satisfaction holds more value. Hammill distributed the number of women in the workforce has increased and Baby Boomers as a result have been faced with reevaluating the place of work in relation to their personal lives. Having broken the mold of the traditional family, Boomers also experienced atypical stress; they were the first generation to divorce at a higher rate than generations before (Hammill, 2005).

Hammill (2005) discussed differences between the Baby Boomers as Generation X (born 1960-1980) was the first age group to grow up in the new family dynamic

created by the Boomers. Generation X is made up of individuals who are independent and who also have tendencies to question authority, are civic-minded and responsible for their actions. Interesting facts about this generation reveal it watched its fair share of television, and see the world through cynical eyes; in addition, the focus of Generation X individuals tends to be on the present, and their risks are not taken without calculation. Hammill also discovered Generation X is not intimidated by authority, enjoys solving problems, operates with goals in mind, and does not prefer rigid environments, rather flexibility as a rule. Hammill found Generation Y, also called Millennials (born 1980-2000) to be technologically savvy, and were as a whole over stimulated and prone to becoming bored easily. Hammill stated it is understood among Gen Yers that they will likely change jobs at least once every five years, though they are goal-oriented and strong team players, members of Generation Y are tremendously independent and feel empowered and they believe respect is to be earned based on the job, regardless of a title. Hammill further disseminated about Generation Y that if workplace job satisfaction is low in a particular workplace due to regulations or operating procedures, the employee will leave and go to a new organization. Generation Y's full acceptance and implementation of technology allows them to do business on their own timeline and in a global manner (Hammill, 2005).

Roebuck, Smith, & Haddaoui (2013) revealed a healthy balance between family and work responsibilities can increase job satisfaction and employee performance, as well as decrease organizational costs. Roebuck and colleagues discussed burnout experienced by those who struggle to achieve a balance between responsibilities of work and home is a common struggle that hinders achievement of that precise objective. The work of

Roebuck and colleagues continued to discuss the topic of women and job satisfaction, and revealed women traditionally bare most of the burden of caring for children, grandchildren and aging parents, simultaneously managing household duties and expectations at work. Women are more likely than men to consider options of part time work, child care arrangements, and flexibility of the work schedule as a means to improve work-life balance (Roebuck et al., 2013).

Methods of Achieving Work-Life Balance

In theory, an employee should be able to attain work-life balance by allocating equal amounts of time between work-related duties and events related to non-work areas of a person's life. However, Jyothi and Jyothi (2012) asserted that a positive work-life balance includes accomplishment and satisfaction and cannot be summed up by flippantly creating an equal balance of time spent in the two categories of work and personal life. What qualifies as work-life balance changes at different stage of one's career, and various factors take precedence as aging occurs.

Baby Boomers are often thought to be workaholics who have turned their noses up at the thought of work-life balance, and it should be no surprise then, when tensions mount in the workplace at the addition of Gen X and Y employees (Roebuck, et al., 2013). Gen X and Y workers often expect upgraded accommodations to better manage the demands of work and life; however despite the differences in generational personality, research shows that employees across the generations are now putting in longer hours and are making substantial work-life sacrifices. The Society of Human Resource Management found in its recent survey that across all generations, an alarming

89% of American workers report work-life balance is a current problem (Roebuck et al., 2013).

The ability for organizations to function at optimal levels is directly impacted by the job satisfaction of its employees. It behooves those in higher education leadership and administration to evaluate and allow for conditions which promote and foster employee job satisfaction and work-life balance. Organizational leaders would be remiss to discount the significance of employee job satisfaction or to overlook the impact unhealthy practices have on an organization.

CHAPTER III

Methodology

In this chapter, the methodology and research design are discussed. An overview of the study as well as the literature review were supplied in chapters one and two. This provided an outline of the purpose of the study, which was to explore the relationship between job satisfaction and job persistence in female faculty at a regional Kentucky university. In addition, the study provided insight about the norms of female faculty at this regional institution and the commitment of the faculty in the midst of turnover and financial setbacks. Also identified were current practices promoting job satisfaction among female faculty and encouraging retention of a talented professoriate. Based on this study's research, potential barriers to job satisfaction were also noted.

Context of the Study

The institution selected for use in this research study was a public, regional, coeducational, higher education Appalachian institution located in Kentucky. This institution offers a wide variety of programs in general and liberal arts, pre-professional and professional training in education, and numerous other fields at undergraduate and graduate levels.

With more than a century of service to the region, the university is dedicated to three specific functions: high quality instruction, scholarship, and service. The institution seeks through its colleges and schools to offer instruction at a variety of degree levels in general education, arts, sciences, business, education, pre-professional and professional areas, and applied and technical disciplines. Service to the community and

region are accomplished through consultative services, continuing education and the extended campuses (www.eku.edu/about).

Researcher Positionality

The researcher earned a Bachelor of Arts degree in Recreation and a Master of Science in Physical Education, Fitness and Wellness Management. These degrees enabled the researcher to secure a non-tenure track faculty position at the very start of her career in the department of Exercise Sport Science, in addition to the responsibility of managing two aquatics facilities at the university. Through the researcher's direct and indirect experiences in the classroom and with colleagues and administration, she became aware of variances in workplace culture and norms across departments within the university. Her curiosity was piqued to determine exactly from where the differences in employee morale stemmed. This research topic was pursued to determine the connection between job satisfaction and job persistence taking into consideration variables of discipline, career stage, and environment in framing faculty members' expressions of job satisfaction. The researcher became interested in the dynamics of higher education as an organization, and the positive organizational traits which exist when faculty report high levels of job satisfaction.

Amidst the tightening of budgets, threats of performance based funding, and scaling down of under-performing academic programs, it behooves institutions of higher education more than ever to recognize the current landscape of employee job satisfaction. There is a schism between faculty and administration which could be narrowed by a better understanding of faculty's true needs.

The Job Satisfaction Survey

Spector's Job Satisfaction Survey (1994) is a 36 item, nine facet measure designed to assess employee attitudes about the job and features of the job. There are nine variables included in the JSS which are applied to evaluate satisfaction rates of respondents. Each facet is evaluated with four items and a total score is calculated from all items. A summated rating scale format is used, providing six choices per item. The choices range from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." Because items are written in both directions, approximately half must be scored in reverse. The nine facets are Pay, Promotion, Supervision, Fringe Benefits, Contingent Rewards (performance-based rewards), Operating Procedures, Coworkers, Nature of Work, and Communication (Spector, 1994). Spector originally developed the JSS for usage in human service organizations; however, it is useful and germane to all organizations (Spector, 1994)

Pay is described as pay or remuneration, whereas Promotion includes opportunities for promotion. Supervision refers to the relationship one has with their immediate supervisor and Fringe benefits can be monetary and nonmonetary benefits. Contingent rewards are appreciation, recognition, and rewards for good work. Operating procedures include operating policies and Coworkers is defined as the people with whom one works. Nature of work is the tasks themselves and Communication includes all communication with the organization (Spector, 1994).

The following table (table 3.1) illustrates internal consistency reliabilities (coefficient alpha), based on a sample of 2,870 (Spector, 1995).

Table 3.1: Internal Consistency Reliabilities for the JSS Survey

Scale	Alpha	Description
Pay	.75	Pay and remuneration
Promotion	.73	Promotion opportunities
Supervision	.82	Immediate supervisor
Fringe Benefits	.73	Monetary and nonmonetary fringe benefits
Contingent Rewards	.76	Appreciation, recognition, and rewards for good work
Operating Procedures	.62	Operating policies and procedures
Coworkers	.60	People you work with
Nature of Work	.78	Job tasks themselves
Communication	.71	Communication within the organization
Total	.91	Total of all facets

Spector, P. E. (1985). Measurement of human service staff satisfaction: Development of the Job Satisfaction Survey. American journal of community psychology, 13(6), 693-713.

Additional questions were added to the JSS (Spector) which included demographics as well as discipline and status. This contributed to the understanding of job satisfaction in higher education for purposes of this study.

Research Questions

The research questions were generated to supplement the JSS (Spector, 1985) based on the need to gather additional information from participants. Additional information needed included demographics as well as discipline and status. This contributed to the

understanding of job satisfaction in higher education. For organizational health and the retention of quality faculty in higher education, it is of great importance that the work environment function optimally.

1. What is the relationship between indicators of job satisfaction and job persistence of female faculty?
2. Are there differences in job satisfaction between female faculty with different years of service?
3. What is the relationship between perceived burnout and job satisfaction of female faculty?

Spector's Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS, 1985) included 36 questions categorized into nine indicator variables which included: Pay, Promotion, Supervisor, Fringe Benefits, Contingent Rewards, Operating Procedures, Co-Workers, Nature of Work, and Communication. Each instrument subscale of the original survey was evaluated for reliability, and the results are presented in Table 3.2 (Spector, 1985). The items ranged from .693 to a high of .888.

Table 3.2: Cronbach's Alpha for each Subscale of JSS Instrument

Subscale	Cronbach's Alpha	N of items
Pay	.833	4
Promotion	.829	4
Supervisor	.888	4
Fringe Benefits	.833	4
Contingent Rewards	.831	4
Operating Procedures	.686	4
Co-Workers	.785	4
Nature of Work	.803	4
Communication	.693	4

Spector, P. E. (1985). Measurement of human service staff satisfaction: Development of the Job Satisfaction Survey. American journal of community psychology, 13(6), 693-713.

Population and Sampling

All full-time and part-time female faculty (N=574) at the selected institution were invited to participate. The names and emails of all females with faculty status were obtained from the university's Information Technology department via an open records request. The instrument was distributed in April of the Spring 2017 semester via an email which included a link to the Survey Monkey questionnaire. The survey was available for one month, and a reminder was sent after the first week.

There were 206 respondents in the study, all of whom answered all demographic questions. The population consisted of 148 full-time faculty and 58 part-time faculty. These faculty were ranked as adjunct faculty (n=58), lecturer faculty (n=18), assistant professor (n=37), associate professor (n=49), and professor (n=23). Twenty respondents identified as other. The university selected for this study was not randomly selected,

however it was elected due to its geographical whereabouts. The enrollment at the selected institution beginning in the spring of 2017 was 15,606. The average starting salary for assistant professors at the selected university for the 2016-2017 fiscal year was $60,109 and the state average starting faculty salary was $57,600 (www.ir.eku.edu). All female faculty at the selected institution were invited to participate. The names and emails of all females with faculty status were obtained from the university's Information Technology department via an open records request.

Data Collection

The researcher applied to the university's Institutional Review Board (IRB) for approval to conduct research and submitted an open records request for educational purposes. After gaining approval from the IRB, the researcher sent an email (Appendix B) to Informational Technology (IT) describing the purpose of the study and requesting a complete list of all female faculty and their email addresses. The researcher contacted the participants by sending an email (Appendix C) that invited each faculty member to participate in the study. The email introduced the researcher and the purpose of the study. Also included in the email was the statement that by participating in the study, the participant agreed to give the researcher permission to use the information collected from the survey instrument.

The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) was developed by Spector (1985) to fulfill the needs of those working in the human services field to be able to evaluate employee satisfaction with a reliable instrument. The JSS was designed based on the concept that job satisfaction of employees is formed by at attitudinal reaction to employment and work-related situations. Useful to both public and private entities, the JSS instrument

was designed to assist organizations in both non-profit and for-profit settings. The JSS has gained notoriety for its effectiveness in evaluating job satisfaction because the scale provides a total satisfaction score for a respondent while at the same time consisting of subscales reflecting distinctive components of job satisfaction. Unique components of job satisfaction can therefore be evaluated individually.

Data Analysis

Descriptive and correlational statistics were used to analyze gathered data. The null hypothesis for research question one was that there was no relationship between job satisfaction and job persistence. The alternate hypothesis was that indicators of job satisfaction are correlated with job persistence. The null hypothesis for research question two was that there was no difference in job satisfaction between years of service (H_0: $\mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_3$). The alternate hypothesis was that job satisfaction does differ by years of service (H_1: $\mu_1 \neq \mu_2 \neq \mu_3$). The null hypothesis for research question three was that there was no relationship between burnout and job satisfaction. The alternate hypothesis was that burnout is correlated with job satisfaction. SPSS v. 24.0 was used to calculate all included statistics.

Data were analyzed using descriptive statistics, Pearson correlation coefficient, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), and Multiple Linear Regression. Pearson correlation coefficient is a measure of linear correlation between two variables. This was used to determine the relationship between the single items "Job Satisfaction" and "I feel a degree of burnout in my current role". ANOVA is a statistical test that is used to compare the means of more than two groups and was used for the analysis of the survey to answer research question two. Multiple linear regression is used to predict the value of

a target variable using known independent variables. In this research, it was used to evaluate the likelihood of female faculty staying (persisting) at the current institution based on indicators of job satisfaction, which was question one.

CHAPTER IV

Results

Introduction

This study was developed to determine the relationship between job satisfaction and job persistence. This chapter begins with an overview of the variables and measurements used in this research study. It concludes with a presentation of the findings, which includes summaries of the responses for the individual survey items, descriptive statistics surrounding study participants, and the results of job satisfaction and job persistence. The outcomes of this study are intended to further add to the body of inquiry that has been conducted on the subject. It is also envisioned to be of benefit to employers in understanding and maximizing organizational health and workplace culture.

Data Collection

This chapter contains a depiction of the population and demographic characteristics of the study. The analyses and results for the research questions used in the study are presented. For this study, the researcher contacted all female faculty members currently teaching in some role at the university in the spring term of 2017. Faculty members were represented in roles of department chair, administrator, full-time faculty, part-time faculty, adjunct faculty, and lecturer. The instrument was sent out to all (N=576) full and part-time faculty members via e-mail correspondence with an invitation to participate. A reminder email was sent out one week after the first email invitation. Of the 576 female faculty, 206 respondents completed the survey for a 35.7% response rate.

Subjects

As demonstrated in the following table (table 4.1), age of participants ranged from twenty-six to seventy-five (M= 47.02, SD= 10.49).

Table 4.1: Age

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
What is your age?	201	26	75	47.02	10.494

Table 4.2 describes the marital status of survey respondents. Participants self-reported as Single (11.2%), Never married (8.3%), Married (67.3%), Divorced (10.7%), Spouse deceased (2.4%).

Table 4.2: Marital Status

What is your marital status?

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Single	23	11.2
	Never married	17	8.3
	Married	138	67.3
	Divorced	22	10.7
	Spouse deceased	5	2.4
	Total	205	100.0

Respondents reported teaching responsibilities in all areas of the university, including Social Sciences (27%), Technical and Healthcare (27%), Humanities and Fine Arts (11%), and Natural and Physical Sciences (10%) as shown in Table 4.3. Twenty-

four percent marked other and then specified as Education (n=21), Health and other Sciences (n=10), Business (n=6), Justice and Emergency Management (n=4), Math (n=3), First Year Courses (n=2), Honors (n=1), and Prefer not to Respond (n=1).

Table 4.3: Discipline Taught

In what program or discipline do you teach?

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Other (please specify)	48	23.8
	Humanities/Fine Arts	23	11.4
	Social Sciences	55	27.2
	Natural/Physical Sciences	21	10.4
	Technical/Health Care	55	27.2
	Total	202	100.0

Seven percent of participants reported employment at their current institution for less than one year, while 24% reported one to three years, 23% reported four to six years, 17% reported seven to ten years, and 30% reported eleven or more years (Table 4.4). Reported total time in higher education ranged from less than one year to forty-two years (M=13.13, SD=8.7).

Table 4.4: Years Employed at Current Institution

How many years have you been employed at your current institution?

		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	less than 1 year	15	7.3	7.3
	1-3 years	49	23.8	31.1
	4-6 years	47	22.8	53.9
	7-10 years	34	16.5	70.4
	11 years or more	61	29.6	100.0
	Total	206	100.0	

Thirty-seven percent have school age children living at home, while 63.5 percent do not as shown in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: School Aged Children Living at Home

Do you have school age children (18 years of age or younger) living at home?

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Yes	74	36.5
	No	129	63.5
	Total	203	100.0

As shown in Table 4.6, twenty-eight percent of respondents identified as adjuncts, 9% lecturers, 18% assistant professors, 24% associate professors, 11% full professors, and 10% marked other. Participants reported tenure status as tenured (33%), tenure track (22%), not on tenure track and aspire to have a tenure track position (23%),

and not on tenure track and do not aspire to have a tenure track position (22%). Seventy-two percent reported holding full-time positions, while 28.2% fill part-time roles as demonstrated in Table 4.7.

Table 4.6: Faculty Rank

Faculty Rank?

		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Other (please specify)	20	9.8	9.8
	Adjunct	58	28.3	38.0
	Lecturer	18	8.8	46.8
	Assistant Professor	37	18.0	64.9
	Associate Professor	49	23.9	88.8
	Professor	23	11.2	100.0
	Total	205	100.0	

Table 4.7: Tenure Status

Please select your tenure status:

		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Tenured	66	32.8	32.8
	Tenure track	44	21.9	54.7
	Not on tenure track, and aspire to have a tenure-track position	47	23.4	78.1
	Not on tenure track, and do not aspire to have a tenure-track position	44	21.9	100.0
	Total	201	100.0	

One hundred forty-eight respondents (72%) identified as having full-time employment status at the university. Fifty-eight (28%) of respondents are in part-time roles as shown in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8: Employment Status

What is your employment status at the university?

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Full-time	148	71.8
	Part-time	58	28.2
	Total	206	100.0

Hours worked per week range from three to one hundred. Twenty percent (n=38) of respondents reported working twenty hours per week or less. Eighteen percent (n=37) reported working twenty to forty hours per week. Fifty-four percent (n=110) work forty

to sixty hours per week, while the remaining eight percent (n=15) work more than sixty hours per week. Two respondents reported working one hundred hours per week.

Descriptive Statistics

Of the 206 surveys returned, 201 participants responded to the survey in its entirety. Age of participants ranged from twenty-six to seventy-five (M= 47.02, SD= 10.494). Marital status was described as single (11%), never married (8%), married (67%), divorced (11%), and spouse deceased (2%). Respondents reported teaching responsibilities in all areas of the university, including Social Sciences (27%), Technical and Healthcare (27%), Humanities and Fine Arts (11%), Natural and Physical Sciences (10%); 24% marked as other and then specified as Education (n=21), Health and other Sciences (n=10), Business (n=6), Justice and Emergency Management (n=4), Math (n=3), First Year Courses (n=2), Honors (n=1), and Prefer not to Respond (n=1).

Seven percent of participants reported employment at their current institution for less than one year, while twenty-four percent reported one to three years, twenty-three percent reported four to six years, seventeen percent reported seven to ten years, and thirty percent reported eleven or more years. Reported total time in higher education ranges from less than one year to forty-two years (M=13.13, SD=8.7). Thirty-seven percent have school age children living at home, while sixty-three percent do not.

Twenty-eight percent of respondents identified as adjuncts, nine percent lecturers, eighteen percent assistant professors, twenty-four percent associate professors, eleven percent full professors, and ten percent marked other. Participants reported tenure status as tenured (33%), tenure track (22%), not on tenure track and aspire to have a

tenure track position (23%), and not on tenure track and do not aspire to have a tenure track position (22%). Hours worked per week range from three to one hundred.

The JSS is built with 36 items that are grouped into 9 facets or variables. These variables are pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, coworkers, nature of work, and communication. The combined total of these variables provides the total satisfaction score for the respondent. A summated rating scale is used by the instrument, allowing the individual to make a selection from six answers ranging from a score of "1" indicating a level of strong disagreement to "6" indicating strong agreement. Because nearly half of the items are worded negatively, they must be reverse scored.

Scoring of the JSS is concluded by combining the sub-scores of the nine variables/facets. A minimum score would be 36, and a maximum score 216.

The program utilized to administer the survey was Survey Monkey. This instrument dissemination software is formulated to gather, store, and analyze data. The instrument used in this research study was electronic and requested that participants answer questions using a series of Likert scales. The sample size of 206 participants was determined to be an acceptable response rate.

Pay

The researcher included various statements in the survey instrument pertaining to pay and compensation. The survey instrument included four statements relating to pay and feeling surrounding compensation. A six-point Likert Scale was used for each of the four statements relating to pay. Participants therefore answered each question using the following scale: 1= disagree very much, 2= disagree moderately, 3= disagree slightly, 4=

agree slightly, 5= agree moderately, and 6= agree very much. Table 4.9 details the results by showing the number of participants that answered the individual question, mean, and the standard deviation. Respondents indicated feelings about pay by responding highest to the question regarding raises. Feelings that raises were too few and far between received the highest score (M=5.24).

Table 4.9: Pay

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Raises are too few and far between.	205	5.24	1.196
I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me.	205	3.21	1.718
I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.	205	3.20	1.715
I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.	203	2.33	1.422

1= Disagree Very Much, 2= Disagree Moderately, 3= Disagree Slightly, 4= Agree Slightly, 5= Agree Moderately, 6= Agree Very Much

Promotion

The researcher included various statements in the survey instrument pertaining to promotion. The survey instrument included four statements relating to promotion allowing respondents to answer with a six-point Likert Scale. Participants therefore answered each question using the following scale: 1= disagree very much, 2= disagree moderately, 3= disagree slightly, 4= agree slightly, 5= agree moderately, and 6= agree very much. Table 4.10 details the results by showing the number of participants that answered the individual question, mean, and the standard deviation. Listed in rank order by degree of agreement, the greatest number of respondents agreed with the statement "there is really too little chance for promotion on my job" (M=3.93).

Table 4.10: Promotion

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.	204	3.93	1.580
Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.	201	3.51	1.578
People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.	203	3.24	1.392
I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.	202	3.14	1.579

1= Disagree Very Much, 2= Disagree Moderately, 3= Disagree Slightly, 4= Agree Slightly, 5= Agree Moderately, 6= Agree Very Much

Supervision

The researcher included various statements in the survey instrument pertaining to supervision. The survey instrument included four statements relating to supervision and respondents reported their feelings surrounding supervision using a six-point Likert Scale. Table 4.11 details the results by showing the number of participants that answered the individual question, mean, and the standard deviation. Table 4.11 details the variable of supervision. Most respondents report feelings of liking their supervisors (M=5.29) and that his/her dealings with employees are fair (M=5.30). In addition, respondents agreed that their supervisor is competent in doing his/her job (M=5.11).

Table 4.11: Supervision

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
I like my supervisor.	205	5.29	1.134
My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.	205	5.11	1.348
My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.	203	2.08	1.433
My supervisor is unfair to me.	205	1.70	1.207

1= Disagree Very Much, 2= Disagree Moderately, 3= Disagree Slightly, 4= Agree Slightly, 5= Agree Moderately, 6= Agree Very Much

Fringe Benefits

Fringe benefits were also evaluated in the research study. Various statements in the survey instrument pertained to fringe benefits. Table 4.12 details the results by showing the number of participants that answered the individual question, mean, and the standard deviation. Respondents reported neutral feelings regarding fringe benefits provided by their employer. On average, survey participants seem to have neither positive nor negative feelings regarding fringe benefits.

Table 4.12: Fringe Benefits

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
There are benefits we do not have which we should have.	201	4.03	1.398
The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.	202	3.55	1.516
I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.	204	3.46	1.614
The benefit package we have is equitable.	201	3.34	1.465

1= Disagree Very Much, 2= Disagree Moderately, 3= Disagree Slightly, 4= Agree Slightly, 5= Agree Moderately, 6= Agree Very Much

Contingent Rewards

The researcher included various statements from the JSS instrument pertaining to contingent rewards. Respondents reported feeling slight agreement that they are appreciated for a good job, but do not feel they are rewarded (M=3.52) and appreciated (M=2.83) the way they should be. This may indicate a lack of tangible rewards offered by the employer. Table 4.13 details the results by showing the number of participants that answered the individual question, mean, and standard deviation.

Table 4.13: Contingent Rewards

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.	202	4.00	1.471
I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.	204	3.64	1.501
There are few rewards for those who work here.	203	3.52	1.477
I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.	203	2.83	1.571

1= Disagree Very Much, 2= Disagree Moderately, 3= Disagree Slightly, 4= Agree Slightly, 5= Agree Moderately, 6= Agree Very Much

Operating Procedures

The researcher included various statements from the JSS instrument pertaining to operating procedures. Slightly more than half of employees in the research study reported having too much workload (M=3.94) and too much paperwork (M=3.82). In addition, slightly more than half felt their efforts to do a good job were blocked by red tape (M=3.79). Table 4.14 details the results by showing the number of participants that answered the individual question, mean, and the standard deviation.

Table 4.14: Operating Procedures

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
I have too much to do at work.	203	3.94	1.503
I have too much paperwork.	203	3.82	1.588
My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.	203	3.79	1.411
Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.	201	3.28	1.481

1= Disagree Very Much, 2= Disagree Moderately, 3= Disagree Slightly, 4= Agree Slightly, 5= Agree Moderately, 6= Agree Very Much

Co-Workers

The researcher also included various statements in the survey instrument pertaining to the relationship with co-workers. The survey instrument included four statements regarding co-workers. The results showed that most respondents like the people with whom they work (M=5.23) and enjoy their co-workers (M=5.19). Very few reported bickering, fighting (M=2.61), or incompetence in the workplace (M=2.54). Table 4.15 details the results by showing the number of participants that answered the individual question, mean, and standard deviation.

Table 4.15: Co-Workers

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
I like the people I work with.	204	5.23	.998
I enjoy my co-workers.	204	5.19	1.024
There is too much bickering and fighting at work.	203	2.61	1.549
I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with.	204	2.54	1.542

1= Disagree Very Much, 2= Disagree Moderately, 3= Disagree Slightly, 4= Agree Slightly, 5= Agree Moderately, 6= Agree Very Much

Nature of Work

The researcher incorporated numerous statements in the survey instrument pertaining to the nature of work on the job. The vast majority of respondents described feelings of pride (M=5.38) and enjoyment in their work (M=5.21). They report very low feelings of meaninglessness (M=1.96) in the nature of work. This implies that employees feel a strong sense of purpose and calling to their work. Table 4.16 details the results by showing the number of participants that answered the individual question, mean, and standard deviation.

Table 4.16: Nature of Work

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.	204	5.38	.888
I like doing the things I do at work.	204	5.33	.792
My job is enjoyable.	204	5.21	.893
I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.	202	1.96	1.265

1= Disagree Very Much, 2= Disagree Moderately, 3= Disagree Slightly, 4= Agree Slightly, 5= Agree Moderately, 6= Agree Very Much

Communication

Table 4.17 details the results by showing the number of participants that answered the individual question, the mean, and standard deviation regarding feelings surrounding communication in the workplace. The researcher included various statements in the survey instrument pertaining to communication. On average, respondents reported neutral feelings regarding communication within the organization. They do feel that work assignments are fully explained (M=4.39), and that they have the information needed to do daily tasks. Survey questions surrounding communication produced neutral results. These responses may indicate employees feel less informed about the big picture or information outside of their specific department.

Table 4.17: Communication

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Communications seem good within this organization.	204	3.71	1.516
I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization.	205	3.45	1.519
The goals of this organization are not clear to me.	203	3.13	1.713
Work assignments are not fully explained.	200	2.61	1.483

1= Disagree Very Much, 2= Disagree Moderately, 3= Disagree Slightly, 4= Agree Slightly, 5= Agree Moderately, 6= Agree Very Much

The researcher incorporated the nine variables surrounding job satisfaction from the JSS into the survey instrument. Data indicate the most positive indicator of job satisfaction for female faculty at the selected university is Nature of Work, followed by Supervision. Variables of relationships with Co-Workers and Communication were next in rank order. Fringe Benefits, Promotion, and Pay were lowest in order. Table 4.18 below provides mean indicators of variable ranking in descending order. The results show the number of participants that answered the individual question, the mean, and standard deviation. Question one sought to determine the relationship between indicators of job satisfaction and job persistence. The results are presented in the next section.

*Table 4.18: M*ean Indicators of Job Satisfaction in Descending Order.

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Nature of Work	199	5.2437	.76847
Supervision	203	5.1552	1.11523
Co-Workers	201	4.8097	1.02081
Communication	197	3.8706	1.12559
Contingent Rewards	198	3.7260	1.22204
Operating Procedures	196	3.4375	1.05956
Fringe Benefits	200	3.3350	1.21740
Promotion	199	3.2261	1.24255
Pay	203	2.2599	1.14479
Valid N (listwise)	173		

Research Question 1

Research Question 1 was developed to determine if there was a relationship between job satisfaction and job persistence. Table 4.19 demonstrates a regression of the likelihood to stay at current institution as predicted by indicators of job satisfaction. These indicators included pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures, co-workers, nature of work, and communication. A multiple regression on the likelihood to stay at institution is significant overall [$F(9, 163) = 4.015$, $p \leq .001$].The model has an adjusted R squared of .136. This indicates that collectively the predictors explain 13.6% of the variance in the dependent variable. Two of the predictors were significant individually. The significant predictors are nature of work (β=.221, p=.013) and supervision (β =.214, p=.025).

Table 4.19: Likelihood to Stay at Current Institution/Indicators of Job Satisfaction

Regression

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.426[a]	.181	.136	.917

a. Predictors: (Constant), Communication, Fringe Benefits, Operating Procedures, Nature of Work, Co-Workers, Promotion, Supervision, Pay, Contingent Rewards

As noted earlier, the results reveal that there is a statistically significant relationship [F (9, 163) = 4.015, $p \leq .001$] between indicators of job satisfaction and persistence (likelihood of staying at current institution). The results are presented in Table 4.20.

Table 4.20: Likelihood to Stay at Current Institution ANOVA

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	30.376	9	3.375	4.015	.000[b]
	Residual	137.011	163	.841		
	Total	167.387	172			

a. Dependent Variable: How likely are you to stay at your current institution for the next 3 years?

b. Predictors: (Constant), Communication, Fringe Benefits, Operating Procedures, Nature of Work, Co-Workers, Promotion, Supervision, Pay, Contingent Rewards

Table 4.21 reports the standardized β coefficients. Supervision (β=2.14) and Nature of Work (β=.221) were the only significant predictors. Since their standardized Betas are relatively equal, they have equal power to predict the likelihood of staying at the current institution.

Table 4.21: Likelihood to Stay at Current Institution Regression Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	.723	.550		1.314	.191
	Pay	.001	.086	.001	.011	.991
	Promotion	.112	.078	.138	1.436	.153
	Supervision	.188	.083	.214	2.266	.025**
	Fringe Benefits	.037	.076	.044	.483	.630
	Contingent Rewards	.019	.102	.023	.190	.850
	Operating Procedures	-.114	.084	-.117	-1.358	.176
	Co-Workers	-.089	.092	-.091	-.965	.336
	Nature of Work	.298	.118	.221	2.517	.013**
	Communication	.042	.099	.047	.428	.669

a. Dependent Variable: How likely are you to stay at your current institution for the next 3 years?
**Significant at the .05 level

Research Question 2

Research question 2 sought to determine if there were differences in job satisfaction between female faculty with different years of service. This aggregation of data was compiled from typed responses as reported on the years of service question. Table 4.22 delineates the descriptive statistics for years of service.

Table 4.22: Descriptive Statistics for Years of Service

	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
< 1 year	14	3.8948	.93046	.24868	3.3576	4.4321	1.89	5.03
1-3 years	38	3.9342	.66200	.10739	3.7166	4.1518	2.67	5.25
4-6 years	42	4.0079	.72977	.11261	3.7805	4.2353	2.17	5.81
7-10 years	29	3.7251	.60250	.11188	3.4959	3.9543	2.89	5.14
11 years or more	50	3.8089	.80344	.11362	3.5806	4.0372	2.11	5.58
Total	173	3.8776	.73473	.05586	3.7674	3.9879	1.89	5.81

Survey respondents at the selected institution were asked to provide feedback regarding job satisfaction and the number of years of service at the selected institution. A one way ANOVA to evaluate job satisfaction by years of service was not significant ($F(4,168) = .807$, $p = .522$). This indicated that years of service were not an indicator of job satisfaction. The results are presented in Table 4.23.

Table 4.23: One Way ANOVA regarding Job Satisfaction by Years of Service

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1.750	4	.437	.807	.522
Within Groups	91.100	168	.542		
Total	92.850	172			

Research Question 3

Research Question 3 sought to determine if there was a relationship between perceived burnout and job satisfaction of female faculty. This effect was strongly

significant, r(168)= -.597, p<.01, demonstrating a negative relationship between job satisfaction and level of burnout. This implies that as job satisfaction increases, levels of burnout will decrease, and vice versa. There was no correlation found between job satisfaction and indicators of self-care, which included hours of sleep per night, hours per week worked including commute, and days per week exercised for thirty minutes or more. This is displayed in Table 4.24.

Table 4.24: Correlation of Burnout with Job Satisfaction

Correlations

		Job Satisfaction	I feel a degree of burnout in my current role
Job Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	1	-.597**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	173	170

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Summary

Respondents involved in this research study reported their feelings on job satisfaction in relationship to their employment at the selected university. 576 surveys were distributed to female faculty on two separate occasions. Of the invited participants, 206 female faculty completed the requested survey instrument, resulting in a response rate of 35.7 percent.

Research Question 1. The female faculty in this study reported that they were the most satisfied with nature of work (M=5.24, SD=.768) and supervision (M=5.16, SD=1.115) in their job experience at the selected institution. On the contrary, female faculty rated pay (M=2.26, SD=1.145) and promotion (M=3.22, SD=1.243) as the lowest indicators of job satisfaction. A regression analysis of job satisfaction and job persistence

demonstrated a significant relationship between these variables, with supervision and nature of work being the only significant regression coefficients.

Research Question 2. The survey respondents who participated in the research study answered questions about their levels of job satisfaction by years of service. The results indicated that job satisfaction did not differ by years of service at the institution.

Research Question 3. The purpose of the final research question was to determine the relationship between job satisfaction and perceived burnout of female faculty. A strongly significant negative relationship was found between these two variables. This is significant at the .01 level. The results of Question 3 also indicated no relationship between job satisfaction and indicators of self-care.

CHAPTER V

Findings, Implications, & Conclusions

Introduction

This chapter provides implications and recommendations for future studies. The researcher will explain and discuss the findings from the data collected. Finally, the researcher will discuss the implications of the research study and provide suggestions for future studies based on the outcomes and the conclusions of this study.

Summary of the Study

Chapter 1 contained the structure of the research study as planned by the researcher. The principal question, which gave purpose as well as direction to this research study was stated as follows: "What is the relationship between job satisfaction and job persistence?" Reaching conclusions and determining the possible connections that may be present were the most important concentrations of the research study. Chapter one also contained the purpose of the study the specific research questions which would guide the study, limitations of the study, as well as definitions of terms. A brief glance at the design of the study as well as the Job Satisfaction Survey were included as well.

The main components of the study were developed in the review of the literature in Chapter 2. It was critical to the researcher and the study to provide the history of and terms surrounding job satisfaction and job persistence. The review of the literature served to assess the volume and findings of previous scholarship and to anticipate the implications for future works.

The first section provided an overview of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was defined, and concerns surrounding university faculty job satisfaction were explored. Sources of faculty persistence and commitment to an institution were discussed, as were reasons surrounding the need for research studies regarding faculty institutional commitment. Included in this section is an overview of work by Harshbarger (1989) wherein he sought to determine leading determinants in faculty commitment. They were determined to be personal characteristics, job factors, work experiences, and institutional structure.

The second section of the literature review discussed employee persistence and recognition in relationship to faculty commitment to an institution. The most studied variable in organizational behavior inquiry, job satisfaction is discussed in this section and seen in companies wherein leaders strive to attract high caliber applicants (Spector, 1997). Respect, recognition, praise, and feedback are included in this section of the literature review. Hagedorn's model of job satisfaction (2000), created into a conceptual framework discusses triggers and mediators as two types of constructs that interact and affect job satisfaction. The *triggers* identified in the framework are developed in this section and reveal variables which lead to changes in job satisfaction among faculty. They were listed as: change in life stage, change in family-related or personal circumstances, change in rank or tenure, transfer to a different institution, change in perceived justice, and change in mood or emotional state.

The next section discoursed the presence of female faculty in higher education, the emphasis on diversity, and the shortage of female faculty in the academy. The work

of Scruton (2013) was included in this section to specify how job satisfaction of female faculty has relevance to higher education. The subsequent section transitioned into the literature review of Organizational Citizenship Behavior, burnout, and Positive Organizational Scholarship. Callings in work, a theme seen in POS literature was explored in this section, defining and elaborating on the approaches found in collected works.

Organizational culture was explored in the succeeding section. The importance of cultural evaluation by educational administrators and leaders was discussed and its importance emphasized to nurture and build organizational health. The remainder of the literature review in Chapter 2 surrounded characteristics of healthy and desirable work environments which lead to job satisfaction. Cultural and situational dynamics synonymous with positive feelings regarding work included employee input, trust, and involvement in decision making. Autonomy in ones work, persistence in work, and a discussion of work-life balance and the connection with employee performance were also included in this section.

The third section contained the methodology used. This included statements on researcher positionality and research questions, as well as information related to population and sampling. Methods for data collection as well as descriptions of instrumentation were also included in this section. Procedures related to data analysis were also discussed. This section should have provided sufficient methodological information to allow for replication.

Chapter 4 presented raw and aggregate relevant data from the survey instrument findings. Descriptive statistics as well as data related to each of the three research questions were included in this section. Tables of relevant data were presented for reference and comparison.

Interpretation of Findings

The summary and discussion of the results of the data analysis will be discussed in this section. The research questions guiding this research study were as follows:

Research Question #1

What is the relationship between indicators of job satisfaction and job persistence?

Research Question #1 was evaluated using a multiple regression with the indicators of job satisfaction as predictors. Item Means were provided (Table 4.10). Of the nine indicators, Nature of Work (M=5.24, SD=.768) and Supervision (M=5.16, SD= 1.115) had the highest means of the measured indicators and were the only significant predictors of job satisfaction from the JSS. The nature of one's work is most satisfying when involvement in decision making and autonomy are present. It is the faculty who teach at the university and interact with students on a daily basis who are the most familiar with the needs of their department and teaching standards for the discipline. Just as Nelson (2012) suggests that the person who places office supply orders is the best person to talk with about cost-saving measures, it is the faculty who should be involved in decisions regarding curriculum, best practices, and degree program changes. Although useful in an "all hands on deck" recruitment approach, the faculty member who does

ongoing advising might be the best person to attend recruitment events geared toward parents and incoming students, rather than a student major or graduate assistant.

Nature of Work should also be evaluated through the lens of working within ones calling. Collected works approach callings differently, divergent in the details of its origin. Described as a meaningful summoning toward involvement in activities that are morally, socially, or personally noteworthy, a calling to ones work contributes directly to the faculty member's connection with the nature of her work (Baumeister, 1991; Bellah et all, 1985; Elangovan, et. al, 2010). While work for some is simply a means to earn a paycheck and meet one's requisite financial responsibilities (Spector, 1997) those who experience flourishing in their work operate out of a deeper purpose. A calling is assumed to be distinctive to the individual, consisting of undertakings people perceive they must do to accomplish their matchless purpose in life, and locating the path to connect with one's true self (Bunderson & Thompson, 2009; Levoy, 1997; Novak, 1996). Female faculty members who are working within their callings find the nature of their work to be more satisfying than those who do not have the same relationship with their work. The spiritual component of a calling in work should also be considered. Believed to be an obligation or a charge, wherein intrinsic value would be discovered, John Calvin defined callings as a divine ordinance which provides an individual with an obligation and a charge to realize one's calling. This calling might be revealed directly by God or unveiled and experienced in one's natural aptitudes (Nord, Brief, Atieh, & Doherty, 1990). Playing to a faculty member's strengths while accomplishing the job duties allowing her to operate within her gifts and strong suits would be an effective way of increasing job satisfaction.

Nature of Work, defined as the "job tasks themselves" (Spector, 1994) is more than likely not a negotiable topic in the faculty member's terms of employment. However, administrators in higher education would be wise to appreciate the proclivity of faculty members to be drawn toward the positive. The research as discussed in Chapter 2, defines the *heliotropic effect*, wherein all living systems have a tendency to be drawn "toward positive energy and away from negative energy—or toward that which is life giving and away from that which is life-depleting" (Cameron & Spritzer, 2001). Work environments which promote the ability for faculty member's to meet goals and to be productive will result in increased job satisfaction and the retention of a talented professoriate.

Supervision is a significant predictor of job satisfaction among faculty members. A relationship with one's supervisor that is built on trust and which allows for autonomy in teaching, research, and service will render a more satisfied employee. Nelson (2012) writes that when employees perceive they have input in a decision, department-wide buy-in and involvement is considerably easier to acquire. The department chair and college dean will have much better success in cultivating committed, high-performing, satisfied faculty members when involving faculty in the decision-making process. This is especially true when change is on the horizon. Nelson (2012) goes on to say that the probability of staff contributing open and honest opinions is diminished significantly when employees perceive decisions will be made regardless of their contribution. A Gallup survey reported that when asked by their supervisors to participate in decision making, 66 percent of survey participants said they would, but only 14 percent felt empowered enough in their role to make those decisions (Nelson, 2012). The trusting

relationship between the faculty member and the department chair (supervisor) or college dean is key. The research shows recognition and positive work environments to be closely connected to persistence. In higher education it is no different. Supervisors who foster friendly environments and keep their promises, as well as leaders who strongly advocate for faculty members' need for resources will have more committed faculty members. When Fortune magazine surveyed employees at Edward Jones, an astounding 96 percent reported it to be a friendly place to work, and 89 percent felt their managers kept promises made (Nelson, 2012).

Pay (M=2.26, SD= 1.145) and Promotion (M=3.22, SD=1.243) were the lowest mean indicators of the research study. Pay is of increasing concern to female faculty as they strive for equality and job opportunities, but was not a significant predictor of job satisfaction. The researcher was pleasantly surprised to learn that pay and promotion did not have a strong relationship between job satisfaction and job persistence. In other words, it seems just as likely as it is unlikely that a female faculty member will leave her appointment based on job satisfaction surrounding pay or promotion. Scruton (2013) collated research surrounding several obstacles for women in higher education. Among those are incongruent hiring and tenure, as well as practices which retard women's promotion progress. Separation from employment is often the result when job satisfaction plummets. The rate of voluntary separation from employment was more than two times greater for women than for men in similar roles (Rausch et al., 1989; Rothlblum, 1988). Although these indicators of job satisfaction were the lowest item means, the outcomes of this research study hold weight and provide helpful findings for administrators. Scruton (2013) shared her concerns for significance of job satisfaction to

academia. Several studies point to the fact that once an individual is offered a position, a supervisor possessing knowledge of the employee's job satisfaction can have a positive outcome. The supervisor can offer encouragement for professional growth as well as allow for opportunities for advancement into positions where more challenges are provided.

Other variables such as relationships with co-workers, communication, contingent rewards, operating procedures, and fringe benefits were evaluated but were also not found to be significant predictors of job satisfaction. These traditionally included variables in Spector's (1985) instrument were not found to be significant among the research study respondents.

Research Question #2

Are there differences in job satisfaction between faculty with different years of service?

Research Question #2 as answered in Table 4.14, was compiled from typed responses on the question regarding years of service. Table 4.14 delineated the descriptive statistics for years of service and sought to determine if there were differences in job satisfaction between female faculty with different years of service. A One-Way ANOVA was conducted to evaluate job satisfaction by years of service and was not significant ($F(4,168) = .807$, $p = .522$), as job satisfaction did not differ by years of service. This nonsignificant ANOVA produced findings that were surprising to the researcher, as she anticipated that there would be differences. There were also no differences found

between job satisfaction and indicators of self-care, which included hours of sleep per night, hours per week working including commute, and days per week exercised for thirty minutes or more.

The researcher expected junior and senior faculty to regard their work with higher levels of job satisfaction compared to female faculty in mid-career. However, this was not the case. It is possible that the response rate could have played a role in the findings of the research study. However, the participation rate for the research study was 35 percent which is in line with research completed by Baruch and Holtom (2008). Their work shows a 35.7 percent response rate from data collected from organizations, making the participation level in this study acceptable. Interestingly enough, in their research, Baruch and Holtom found that incentives were not related to response rates and the use of reminders actually elicited lower response rates. The researcher of this study chose not to send out a second reminder. In addition, the sample was distributed well across years of service, which provides some evidence of population validity.

Previous studies have compared job satisfaction of employees of main campus locations to the employees of extended campuses. In his research surrounding job satisfaction of higher education employees, Amburgey (2005) compared male and female faculty and staff of a selected institution with several of its extended residential campuses. His findings showed women to have a slightly higher level of job satisfaction on the Job Satisfaction Survey in comparison to their male counterparts. The current research study only compared female faculty members of the main campus of the

regional institution and did not include staff or male participants. Having included faculty at extended campus sites might have produced different results.

Research Question #3

What is the relationship between perceived burnout and job satisfaction of female faculty?

Research Question #3 sought to determine if there was a relationship between job satisfaction and burnout and was evaluated by a bivariate correlation. The researcher expected to find a negative relationship between the variables and did. Considering a strongly significant negative relationship was found (significant at the .01 level), the researcher was surprised that the result of Question #3 did not indicate a relationship between job satisfaction and indicators of self-care. One survey respondent indicated she works 100 hours per week.

Implications and Recommendations for Further Study

The purpose of this research study was to determine if there was a relationship between job satisfaction and job persistence at a regional Kentucky university. The results acquired from the survey instrument provided beneficial information regarding the level of job satisfaction of the study participants. Significant differences in Item Means were found in Nature of Work and Supervision. These were the two strongest predictors of job satisfaction in study participants. Managers and supervisors, department chairs and college deans may find great benefit in considering the levels of job satisfaction present within an organization. Changes in the performance or motivation of individual

employees may be addressed by further investigating the demographic variables provided by respondents of this study. Future research could evaluate similar data using alternate statistical techniques specifically to evaluate a curvilinear relationship between years of service and job satisfaction. Upon further analysis the relationship may be determined to show increased job satisfaction at beginning and end of career with low points in the middle which was not possible to evaluate using ANOVA.

Pay and Promotion were the lowest Item Means in ranked instrument indicators of job satisfaction. It is possible that due to the location of the selected institution, study participants do not feel they are upwardly mobile, that their career options are limited by geographical location. The location of the selected institution is in a somewhat rural setting, with little access to other major universities. Departments are relatively small and opportunities for growth may seem slim. Employees have likely accepted this and have focused on the benefits that a regional university has to offer. Female faculty seem to persist in their roles due to relationships with their work and support from their supervisors. Administrators should seek to reward outstanding work, provide support wherever possible, and allow faculty to participate within reason in decision-making. This will further create collegiality, buy-in, and motivation to persist in one's role at the institution.

An area for future study would be to research the other indicators of job satisfaction (fringe benefits, communication, contingent rewards, co-workers, pay, and promotion) to see commonalities or differences in job satisfaction. Institutions in the same region could be compared with one another, as could colleges and universities in different regions. Another potential for future study would be to conduct this study or a

variation of it and compare job satisfaction among faculty of private institutions and public institutions.

The relationship between communication and job performance should be explored, as should the connection between trust and confidence as one relates to a direct supervisor. Another relationship to be understood is that of callings/meaning in work and the nature of work as it relates to job satisfaction. A final connector is one's job satisfaction based on his or her fit in the organization. Still other components of job satisfaction present in this literature review result from a positive approach to functioning within an organization.

This study concentrated on gender, years of service, and persistence. Future amendments may be incorporated to include those with supervisory experience, those who teach online, or those who have responsibilities both online and in a traditional classroom. These modifications could increase the knowledge base and scope of consideration for the results of this study.

Lastly, the culture of higher education provided the impetus for this study. In the future, conducting similar research across disciplines may contribute in recognizing trends or relationships. The greater the understanding of job satisfaction, organizational culture, and faculty perceptions, the more likely a college or university will be able to maximize efficiency and productivity, and ultimately, maintain a talented professoriate. Such a study would most appropriately rely on qualitative methods. The benefit to faculty is also worth considering. Further understanding the concepts of organizational health and job satisfaction could help faculty to be more aware of seeking appointments for which they are a good fit, as well as striving to contribute in meaningful ways to the

work of their institution. It is a mutually beneficial outcome for the college or university and to the job satisfaction of the faculty member, when operations are running on all cylinders.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Job Satisfaction Survey

Job Satisfaction Survey

Introduction

Job Satisfaction Survey

DETERMINING IMPACT OF POSITIVE ORGANIZATIONAL SCHOLARSHIP ON JOB SATISFACTION AMONG HIGHER EDUCATION FEMALE FACULTY

Consent to participate in a research study.

You are being invited to take part in a research study entitled "Determining Impact of Positive Organizational Scholarship on Job Satisfaction Among Higher Education Female Faculty." The person in charge of this study is Ellen McMahan, an Ed.D. candidate at Eastern Kentucky University. Her email is ellen.mcmahan@eku.edu. Dr. Charles Hausman (dissertation chair) will also be working on this study. His email is Charles.hausman@eku.edu. Results from this study will be used to help us better understand job satisfaction of females in higher education teaching and leadership roles.

As a participant in this study, you will be completing a brief and anonymous survey. To the best of our knowledge, your participation will cause no more risk of harm than you would experience in everyday life. Your participation is voluntary. You will not lose any benefits or rights you would normally have if you choose not to volunteer. You can stop at any time during the study and still keep the benefits and rights you had before volunteering. We are happy to answer any questions you may have before, during, or after the survey. By completing this survey, you are providing consent for your responses to be used for research purposes.

Original Survey by Paul E. Spector, Department of Psychology, University of South Florida

1. PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.

	Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.	○	○	○	○	○	○
There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.	○	○	○	○	○	○
My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.	○	○	○	○	○	○
When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I like the people I work with.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Communications seem good within this organization.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Raises are too few and far between.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.	○	○	○	○	○	○
My supervisor is unfair to me.	○	○	○	○	○	○
The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.	○	○	○	○	○	○
My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I like doing the things I do at work.	○	○	○	○	○	○
The goals of this organization are not clear to me.I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me.	○	○	○	○	○	○
People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.	○	○	○	○	○	○
My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.	○	○	○	○	○	○
The benefit package we have is equitable.	○	○	○	○	○	○
There are few rewards for those who work here.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I have too much to do at work.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I enjoy my coworkers.	○	○	○	○	○	○

	Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.	○	○	○	○	○	○
There are benefits we do not have which we should have.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I like my supervisor.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I have too much paperwork.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.	○	○	○	○	○	○
There is too much bickering and fighting at work.	○	○	○	○	○	○
My job is enjoyable.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Work assignments are not fully explained.	○	○	○	○	○	○

2. What is your sex?

○ Male

○ Female

3. What is your age?

4. What is your marital status?

5. In what program or discipline do you teach?

6. How many years have you been employed at your current institution?

○ less than 1 year

- [ ] 1-3 years
- [ ] 4-6 years
- [ ] 7-10 years
- [ ] 11 years or more

7. How many years have you been employed in higher education overall?

8. Do you have school age children (18 years of age or younger) living at home?

- [ ] Yes
- [ ] No

9. What is your faculty rank?

- [ ] Adjunct
- [ ] Lecturer
- [ ] Assistant Professor
- [ ] Associate Professor
- [ ] Professor
- [ ] Other (please specify)

10. Please select your tenure status:

11. What is your employment status at the university?

- [ ] Full-time
- [ ] Part-time

12. Approximately how many hours per week do you work, including commuting?

13. How many days per week do you exercise for 30 minutes or more?

14. On average, how many hours do you sleep each night?

15. Please select the most appropriate answer -

	Very much	Somewhat	Not at all
Do you feel a calling to your work?	○	○	○
To what degree does your supervisor value work/life balance?	○	○	○
I feel committed to working at my institution	○	○	○

16. How likely are you to stay at your current institution for the next 3 years?

- ○ Very unlikely
- ○ Unlikely
- ○ Likely
- ○ Very likely

17. I feel a degree of burnout in my current role

- ○ Not at all
- ○ Somewhat
- ○ Very much

APPENDIX B

Email to Faculty

The following email, with the Institutional Review Board approved consent (Appendix C), was sent to all female faculty members at the university.

Subject: Invitation to Participate in Doctoral Research on Job Satisfaction

Dear Female Faculty Member,

I am a doctoral student in Eastern Kentucky University's Educational Leadership and Policy Studies program. My research focuses on job satisfaction levels of female faculty, whether full-time, part-time, adjunct, or lecturer.

This survey should only take a few minutes of your time and your participation is greatly appreciated. Please copy and paste the link below into a new window:

https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/LX2JW8H

Respectfully,

Ellen McMahan
Whitlock Front Desk Coordinator
Eastern Kentucky University
(859) 622-8454

APPENDIX C

Survey Informed Consent Form

Invitation to participate in a research study

Dear faculty member,

Please read below your invitation to participate in a research study.

Consent to participate in a research study:

You are being invited to take part in a research study entitled "Determining Impact of Positive Organizational Scholarship on Job Satisfaction Among Higher Education Female Faculty." The person in charge of this study is Ellen McMahan, an Ed.D. candidate at Eastern Kentucky University. Her email is ellen.mcmahan@eku.edu. Dr. Charles Hausman (dissertation chair) will also be working on this study. His email is charles.hausman@eku.edu. Results from this study will be used to help us better understand job satisfaction of females in higher education teaching and leadership roles.

As a participant in this study, you will be completing a brief and anonymous survey. To the best of our knowledge, your participation will cause no more risk of harm than you would experience in everyday life. Your participation is voluntary. You will not lose any benefits or rights you would normally have if you choose not to volunteer. You can stop at any time during the study and still keep the benefits and rights you had prior to volunteering. We are happy to answer any questions you may have before, during, or after the survey. By completing this survey, you are providing consent for your responses to be used for research purposes.

Respectfully,

Ellen McMahan, Ed.D. candidate