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Job Satisfaction of Full-Time Faculty Members at a For-Profit University

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JOB SATISFACTION OF FULL-TIME FACULTY MEMBERS
AT A FOR-PROFIT UNIVERSITY

by

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M.A. University of Central Florida, 2006

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A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Education
in the Department of Child, Family, and Community Sciences
in the College of Education and Human Performance
at the University of Central Florida
Orlando, Florida

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Major Professor: Rosa Cintrón

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ABSTRACT

The focus of this research was to gain an understanding of the levels of job satisfaction of full-time faculty members at a for-profit university. There has been a paucity in the study of job satisfaction for faculty working in this sector of higher education (Kinser, 2006). Job satisfaction was measured by using the Job Descriptive Index (Stanton, Sinar, Balzer & Smith, 2002a) within the conceptual framework of faculty job satisfaction developed by Hagedorn (2000). The facets selected for study were: the work itself, salary, advancement, administration, and collegial relationships. The findings indicated that the job-satisfaction facets with the highest scores were administration and collegial relationships. The facets with the lowest scores were salary and advancement. Because these results were generally contrary to the scholarly literature on this topic, one primary recommendation was to continue this line of research using qualitative as well as quantitative methods.

To all faculty in higher education:

You do so much and are not acknowledged nearly enough

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

To those who helped to make this dream a reality. . .

None of this would have been possible without the support, guidance, and endless reviews of my faculty advisor and dissertation chair, Dr. Rosa Cintrón. From the first day I met you in orientation, I knew you were a powerful force. You lead with passion and dedication; and the support you show your students seems limitless. You are a treasure.

To my committee members, for sharing your knowledge, insight, and experience. I thank you so much for making the process more enjoyable and less intimidating.

Celena, Haley, Jennifer, Lynell, and Natalia, I needed all of you this past year, and you were there each and every time I reached out. You ladies know the experience inside and out, and because of that you are invaluable.

Mom, thank you for putting up with my silence. When things were frustrating and/or not going well, I would withdraw. You had to live with that for two years, and you did so with grace and love. Thank you.

Winston, you told me to stop the dukkha and make friends with my dissertation. That made all the difference in the world. I cannot thank you enough for your wisdom.

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

General Background

The higher education faculty workforce has been in a period of transition. Kezar and Maxey (2012a) recently reported on changes in the professoriate and the ways in which institutions have been responding to those changes. In their research, they focused on: compensation and benefits; employment, hiring, contracts; participation in campus governance; access to resources and professional development; data collection on non-tenure-track faculty. These researchers have indicated that the academic workforce has fundamentally shifted over the past several decades. Whereas full-time tenured and tenure-track faculty were once the norm, more than two-thirds of the professoriate in non-profit postsecondary education is now comprised of non-tenure-track faculty.

Changes in the higher education faculty workforce ultimately impact the faculty experience within higher education, particularly in the area of job satisfaction. The question arises as to whether faculty employed in the changing environment are still experiencing the same levels of job satisfaction as those who entered the profession prior to the transition. It appears that faculty workforce changes may be shifting in a way that more closely reflect workforces that would be found in business sectors outside of higher education. Thus, there may be information about job satisfaction from those sectors that could potentially serve to provide a deeper understanding of how the evolving higher education faculty workforce might experience job satisfaction.

Oades, Robinson, Green, and Spence (2011) observed that “While the ‘business’ of universities (i.e., the production and dissemination of knowledge) is somewhat unique

among organizations, their structure, cultural dynamics and basic operation make them somewhat similar to other more commercially focused organizations” (p. 433).

Opportunities to learn how faculty job satisfaction is experienced in commercially focused organizations could provide insight that would be useful to college administrators across a broad range of institutions.

Statement of the Problem

Myung, Martinez, and Nordstrum (2013) discussed how to develop human capital or a faculty workforce, particularly sustaining a workforce or keeping high performers in their positions. This includes competitive compensation, and recognition such as incentives and tenure. Upholding professional working conditions has been identified by Myung et al. as a strong predictive factor in teacher turnover. They defined professional working conditions as an environment that is well organized and supportive of its teachers and also offers career opportunities (e.g., advancement). They further suggested that providing professional working conditions can raise teacher satisfaction levels, ultimately binding faculty to an organization or institution. Satisfaction, then, can be viewed as a key indicator of both faculty commitment to an organization and intention to stay with the organization.

As to whether the changing nature of faculty in higher education will impact faculty job satisfaction, Myung et al. (2013) suggested that if career opportunities such as advancement are no longer available, the answer is yes. According to these researchers, if competitive compensation and recognition are no longer offered, it is likely that satisfaction levels will also be affected.

Another researcher who has worked with the dynamics of faculty satisfaction is Rosser (2005). Rosser posited that faculty satisfaction can be calculated by measuring the following: advising and course workload, quality of students, benefits and security. These items were represented on self-report data of overall satisfaction. Rosser called for institutions to “provide valid and reliable benchmarks to assess, evaluate and respond to the change in these perceptions that may exist among the faculty within our academic organizations over time.” (p. 105). Xu (2008), in researching faculty turnover between academic disciplines, supported the findings of Rosser (2005) that the “subjective perception of work environment plays a more critical role in faculty turnover than the objective conditions.” (p. 58). His research also supported the importance of faculty perceived job satisfaction in relation to turnover and strong workforce.

Rosser and Xu’s appreciation of personal perception of the workplace has been balanced by the research of others who tend to focus on job satisfaction as it relates to more objective elements of the workplace. Ramaley (2014) discussed the need for people working in complex organizations to learn ways to work in an environment in which they often have scarce resources, a crowded schedule, limited authority, and several layers separating them from the senior leadership of the college or university in which they are playing boundary-spanning roles. He called for more engagement, noting that a culture of engagement must support “scholarship that arises from and informs efforts to promote human well-being in a healthy environment” (p. 19).

Lyons and Akroyd (2014) found that, “Committed faculty display increased performance, positive work-related behaviors and higher levels of organizational

commitment” (p. 201). This would indicate that community college administrators wishing to recruit new faculty and retain current faculty must offer a work environment that promotes positive attitudes for faculty toward their jobs. This emphasis could benefit students as well. Lyons and Akroyd found that student performance measures and learning outcomes were boosted when faculty were satisfied with their jobs.

Faculty satisfaction is a complex combination of subjective personal perceptions balanced by more objective environmental factors. Schuster and Wheeler (1990), in discussing strategies to enhance faculty careers, addressed the importance of studying and understanding faculty satisfaction: “The quality of higher education and the ability of colleges and universities, of whatever kind, to perform their respective missions is inextricably linked to the quality and commitment of the faculty” (p. 3). They elaborated, “. . . successful teaching and learning cannot be achieved in the absence of a faculty that is caring, competent, committed” (p. 3). They concluded that, “No industry is as dependent on its human capital for excellence as is higher education” (p. 59).

It is clear that understanding faculty job satisfaction has long lasting and long ranging impacts. The satisfied faculty member is more committed to the organization, is retained at higher levels, and better serves students’ needs. Understanding faculty job satisfaction ultimately serves to develop the human capital (i.e., faculty workforce) and ensures a quality experience for students.

Significance of the Study

Tierney (2001) called for more investigation into non-tenure track faculty and how they are “treated, evaluated, trained and socialized” (p. 5), stating that “the profile

for every institution will no longer be full-time, tenure-track faculty (p. 13). Tierney (2006), acknowledging the changes that were occurring in higher education, expressed concern for (a) ways for faculty to develop attachments and affiliations with the organization; and (b) the impact of fewer avenues of participation for the faculty (e.g., a more fragmented and less cohesive organization).

Chait (2002) shared Tierney's (2001) concerns:

Changes in resource dependency, revenue sources, customer expectations, and the competitive landscape, in short, changes in the market conditions-have reduced the influence of faculty, administrators, and, to a somewhat lesser degree, lay boards, and augmented the sway of external constituencies. (p. 315)

Schilling (2013) looked at the for-profit educational model and identified differences between for-profit and not for-profit educational institutions with regard to student population, customer service model approach, and the use of good business practices. The for-profit school is most often career focused and driven to provide a skill based learning system that graduates students quickly and prepares them for immediate employment. The demographics for students in these types of schools

tend to (a) be from a minority background; (b) have a weak academic background; (c) have low income; (d) be older than 25; (e) be financially self-sufficient; (f) be first-generation college students; (g) demonstrate low civic engagement; and (h) be less likely to vote or participate in political or community activities. (p. 144)

For-profit institutions have viewed these students as customers and employ a customer service model. Students from these institutions identify that they appreciate that many services (e.g., registration, financial aid, book ordering, access to computers and technology, placement services) are facilitated by staff. Additionally, hands on coursework is a hallmark of these institutions. As a result, many of the faculty are actually practitioners in the field and not academics. As their fields change, so too does the curriculum. There is a continuous process of updating curriculum in order to meet the demands of the market (employment field) in which the student will seek to be employed. Adaptability has been identified by Schilling (2013) as one area where public institutions could adopt a more for-profit attitude. Schilling also stated that another strength of the for-profit institution is a clarity of mission. “For-profit institutions’ singularity of scope demonstrates a clarity of mission that could serve the community college-not by emulating the proprietary model wholesale-but by clarifying its mission and, therefore, streamlining its processes based on clear values.” (p. 158)

Kinser (2006) discussed the perceived lack of literature regarding for-profit institutions and offered several reasons why there might be a lack of information. The most significant reason could be the separate and different attitudes that persists regarding these institutions. They have operated on the fringes of the educational system, focusing on career development rather than “the hallowed halls of alma mater” (p. 4). Kinser also addressed the focus of research toward higher education. As a result, nondegree institutions and those outside of the degree granting framework have not merited inclusion in research. A third identified reason for lack of research on for-profit

institutions, according to Kinser, has been that interest in this sector tends to be episodic and often tied to perceived disreputable behavior.

With the growth of distance education came the opportunity for large numbers of new students to gain access to education at minimal costs. For-profit institutions were able to work quite naturally with the advances in technology that moved along distance education, thereby capitalizing on the new student base. As a result, for-profit institutions have acquired a new significance as a sector in higher education.

Faculty from for-profit institutions have different experiences from those faculty who reside in other sectors of higher education. Lechuga (2008) interviewed over 50 faculty members from four separate for-profit institutions and found that “for-profit institutions challenge principal norms of faculty work life such as faculty involvement in decision-making, tenure and academic freedom” (p. 289).

Hentschke, Lechuga and Tierney (2010) identified five distinct features of the work life of faculty at for-profit colleges and universities: (a) diverse faculty bodies-levels of education and types of degrees would differ based on the institution and the programs that it offered; (b) increased administrative authority-contingent employment status (contract workers) and lack of participation in governance activities (administrators made decisions); (c) institutional adaptability-decisions made quickly and often in response to what the marketplace is in need of; (d) performance-based employment-good performance is rewarded and bad performance is not; (e) academic constraints-inability to address working conditions and limits on faculty input into curriculum.

Ehrenberg (2010) encouraged readers to rethink the ways in which they understand the professoriate. An area worthy of further investigation, according to Ehrenberg, is that of faculty recruitment and faculty satisfaction as it relates to losing faculty members. He noted the high faculty retention rates that can be found at for-profit institutions and cited Capella University as having an 8.7% turnover rate in one calendar year as well as the University of Phoenix retaining 92% of its faculty across a calendar year. He suggested that these institutions can potentially become competition for the rest of higher education institutions when it comes to faculty recruitment and retention.

The significance of this study was that it sought to explore faculty satisfaction from the perspective of the for-profit sector. The robust literature on faculty satisfaction has come from research conducted with faculty from within traditional higher education settings. Public and private researchers and liberal arts institutions have provided the majority of data collected and dissected in order to develop what is known about faculty satisfaction and the elements that improve satisfaction or detract from it. Although the working conditions, socialization processes, and advancement opportunities may vary among these institutions, there are more commonalities than differences.

Bryk (2015) and Oades et al. (2011) encouraged higher education personnel to look to other organizations and sectors as a way to potentially improve and respond to the changing faculty experience. This study responded to encouragement by these researchers by exploring faculty job satisfaction at a for-profit institution. Working conditions, socialization processes and advancement opportunities at this type of institution mirror more of what can be found in a business setting and less of what can be

observed in an academic setting (Schilling, 2013). The question arose as to whether the previously studied dynamics of job satisfaction were relevant to this population and if there were previously unresearched dynamics that create job satisfaction for this population

Conceptual Framework

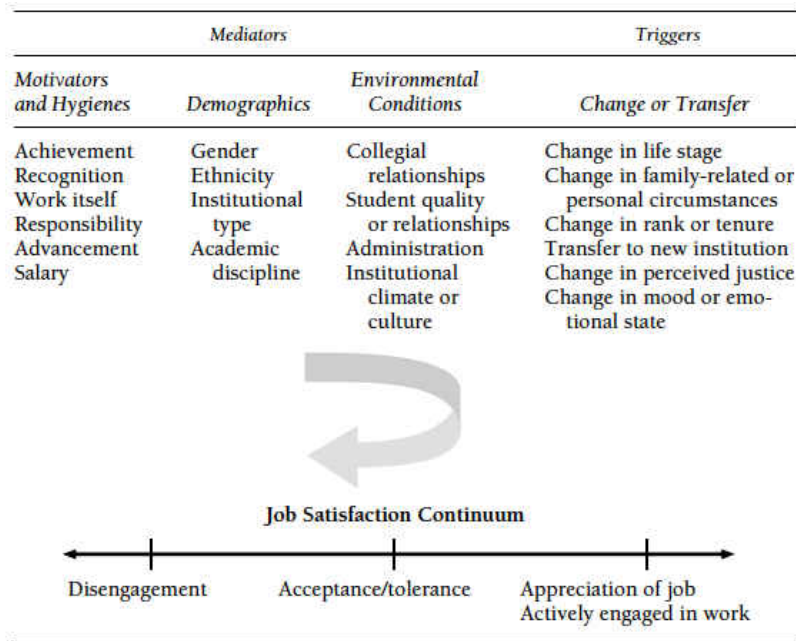
Hagedorn (2000) proposed a conceptual framework to address faculty job satisfaction. In her model, job satisfaction is experienced along a continuum. At the low end of the job satisfaction continuum is disengagement from work. At the high end of the job satisfaction continuum is an appreciation of the job and active engagement with the work. The factors that contribute to overall job satisfaction consist of two large categories: triggers and mediators. Triggers would be significant changes in life situations and could be related to the job situation, personal issues, or changes in perception. Absent these significant life changes, this framework identifies three categories of mediators that account for the overall job satisfaction experience of faculty members. These three categories are demographics, motivators, and environmental conditions. This theoretical framework, displayed in Figure 1, was explored thoroughly in the literature review.

Additionally, a modified version of this framework, focused solely on faculty job satisfaction with regard to mediators, was used for the purposes of this research.

Motivators and hygienes that were measured were the work itself, advancement, and salary. The demographics explored were gender, ethnicity, and academic discipline.

Environmental conditions measured were collegial relationships and administration. The

modifications and rationale for modifying the framework were also explored in the literature review.



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Figure 1. Conceptual framework of faculty job satisfaction

Research Questions

1. What difference, if any, exists in job satisfaction among full-time faculty members from different disciplines in a for-profit university?
2. What are the levels of job satisfaction of faculty members at a for-profit university with regard to the different facets of the job situation: the work itself, salary, advancement, administration and collegial relationships?

Definitions of Terms

Unless otherwise cited, the following definitions are exclusive to the terms used in the for-profit institution that was a part of this research.

Academic discipline. Academic disciplines are the fields of study in which faculty members are paid to teach. The faculty members in this study are identified by departments: A, B, C, D, E and F. The individual departments are considered the academic discipline in which faculty teach.

Associate course director. Associate course directors ensure excellence in teaching skills and classroom content. They support the course director's vision and direction and assist with lecture and administrative responsibilities as assigned. They ensure personal service to students and maintain continuing education as defined by the university.

Collegial relationships. While the higher education literature would define collegial relationships as those that support research, promotion, reappointment and tenure, for the purposes of this research, collegial relationships will be used as a reflection of a faculty member's general appreciation of co-workers at their university. Additionally, the higher education literature would include concepts of shared governance under the definition of collegial relationships. For the purposes of this research, those concepts are not included in this working definition.

Core course. A core course is one that is technical and/or occupational in nature and is specific to the degree program.

Course director. Course directors ensure excellence in teaching skills and classroom content. They manage associate course directors and laboratory specialists to deliver the

same excellence in the laboratories and ensure personal service to students. Course directors maintain continuing education as defined by the university. They design and/or maintain curriculum to ensure industry standards are being met.

Department chair. Department chairs ensure excellence in teaching skills and classroom content. They support program directors' curriculum vision of the degree by assisting in the management of the consistency and the continuity of the program's curriculum.

Department chairs have lecture and administrative responsibilities, ensure personal service to students, and maintain continuing education as defined by the university.

For-profit university. A for-profit university is a corporate entity that uses post-secondary education as a medium to achieve profit (Curran, 2013)

Full-time faculty. Full-time faculty members are those faculty who are paid an annual salary. They are paid bi-weekly and are compensated for six holidays each year. They also receive a set amount of paid sick days and vacation days based on their years worked at the university.

General education course. A general education course is one that is not specific to a degree program and may be taken by any student from any degree program. A general education course is not technical or occupational in nature.

Job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is a continuum of feelings that workers have about their jobs (Hagedorn, 2000)

Laboratory specialist. Laboratory Specialists' primary responsibilities include supporting course directors, reinforcing daily course objectives and curriculum, instructing in the laboratory environment, and meeting students in laboratories. Additional responsibilities

include performing associated administrative tasks (e.g., taking and reporting attendance, monitoring examinations, grading laboratory projects, and meeting one-on-one and in small groups with students).

Online Instructor. This instructor teaches students online but is still expected to come to the university campus approximately 24 hours per week. That expectation is one that is held for all faculty members regardless of teaching mode (online or campus).

Summary

In this chapter the general background of changes in higher education faculty and the concept of faculty job satisfaction have been discussed. The importance of understanding and appreciating these dynamics was addressed. The ability to help broaden this understanding by conducting research with faculty at a for-profit university was identified. The conceptual framework and research questions that guided this research were presented. Lastly, terms that were particularly relevant to the for-profit university that was targeted in the study were identified and defined.

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

Austin (2002), in her ASHE presidential address, discussed the next generation of faculty and how they should be prepared for work in the professoriate. She identified forces affecting higher education that will ultimately change the lives future academics will have by impacting the type of work they do. The most significant forces identified were: public skepticism and demands for accountability, fiscal constraint, rise of the information society and new technologies, increasing diversity of students, new educational institutions, greater emphasis on learning outcomes, postmodern approaches to knowledge, and changes in faculty demographics.

Austin (2002) distinguished between “the complete scholar” (p. 123) and “the differentiated academic” (p. 123). The complete scholar was defined as a faculty member who understands both the whole and the parts of academic work, “a faculty member who understands the discipline, the relationship of his or her discipline to others’ fields, how to apply knowledge to actual societal problems, and how to help others to engage with the ideas and practices of the discipline” (p. 124). In contrast, the differentiated academic was described as a faculty member employed solely for teaching purposes with little to no involvement beyond the scope of the classroom. It was Austin’s assertion that the rise in part-time faculty hires as well as term appointments is giving rise to a larger proportion of faculty being classified as differentiated academics. She called for the new generation of faculty to be equipped with eight essential skills: research abilities and appreciation, understanding of the teaching and learning processes, knowledge of uses of technology in

education, understanding of engagement and service, communication skills appropriate for various audiences, expertise in working in diverse groups, appreciation of institutional citizenship and related skills, and an appreciation of the core purposes and values of higher education. Austin asserted, “The preparation of the next generation of faculty members cannot be ‘business as usual’” (p. 128).

Researchers have begun to consider the potential impact of the change in the face of the professoriate on higher education. Kezar and Maxey (2012b) conducted research in response to the change in the nature of the professoriate: (a) to understand the causes of the rise of non-tenure-track faculty, and (b) to appreciate the impact of this change on the teaching and learning environment.

Other researchers have also begun to consider the changing face of American higher education. Bryk (2015) was asked by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching to develop a new mission for the organization. As part of the process, he reflected on abundance of education reform ideas contrasted with few actual reforms. He suggested the need to consider what other organizations and sectors continue to get better at what they do.

Oades et al. (2011) observed that organizational change and development literature are as relevant to a university “as they are to a retail bank or a transportation company” (p. 433). The call from higher education researchers appear to encourage a deeper understanding of the changes occurring in higher education along with investigation of a broader resource pool. As the traditional higher education (and faculty)

continues to evolve and be more reflective of the business workforce, research must be expanded to include studying the academics at less traditional institutions.

The changes in higher education faculty populations presents a challenge not just in the preparation of faculty. There is also a need to reevaluate what the elements of job satisfaction are for this new faculty population given that their experience base may resemble that of faculty at for-profit universities.

This literature review includes a historical overview of faculty in higher education and a brief history of for-profit universities. Research findings related to faculty job satisfaction are discussed in three distinct categories: (a) demographics, (b) motivators (i.e., pay, opportunities for promotion, work itself, supervision) and (c) environmental conditions. The modified theoretical framework of job satisfaction that served as the conceptual framework for the study is discussed along with reliable and valid ways to measure job satisfaction.

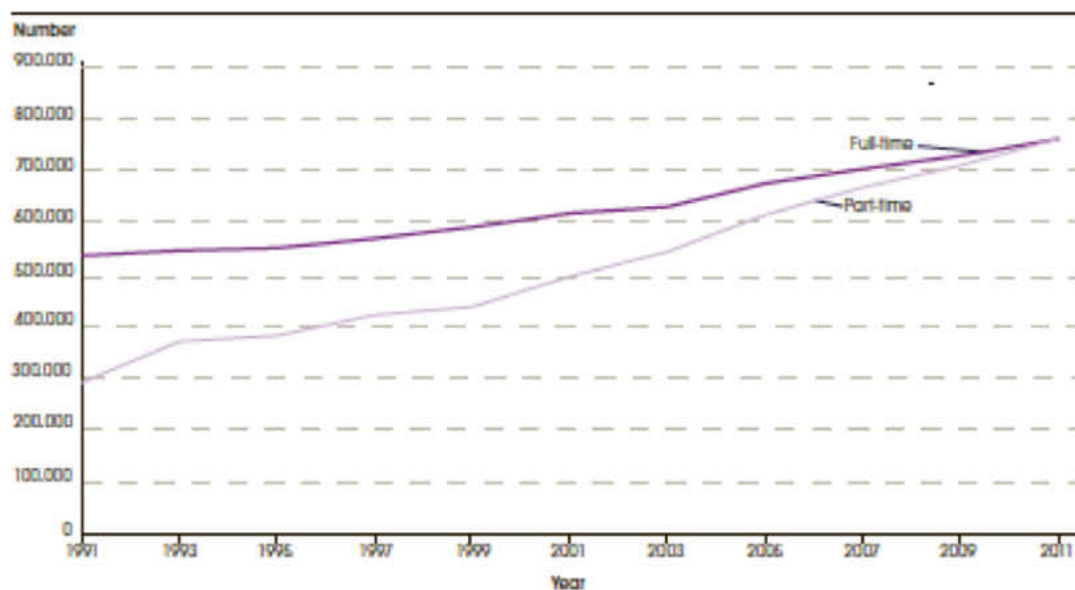
The Changing Faculty: A Brief Historical Overview

Kena et al. (2014), in their National Center for Education Statistics report, provided the following general information with regard to faculty. In the 20-year period between 1991 and 2011,

The number of full-time instructional faculty in degree-granting postsecondary institutions increased by 42 percent (from 536,000 to 762,000), while the number of part-time faculty increased by 162 percent (from 291,000 to 762,000). As a result of the faster increase in the number of part-time faculty, the percentage of

faculty who were part time increased from 35 to 50 percent during this period. (p. 186)

Overall, the percentage increase of faculty was smaller in public and private nonprofit institutions than for private for-profit institutions. With the increase of part time faculty came an increase in percentage of female faculty from 36% to 48%. Figure 2 displays the number of instructional faculty in degree-granting postsecondary institutions, by employment status for the 20-year period between 1991 and 2011.

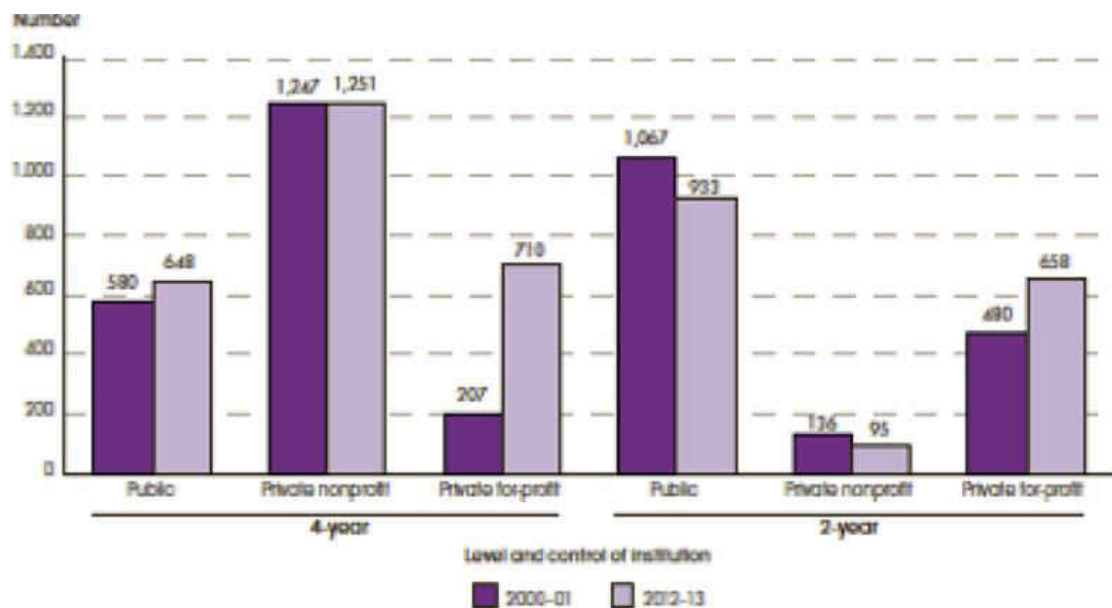


Note. Graduate students with titles such as graduate or teaching fellow who assist senior faculty are excluded. Data through 1995-96 are for institutions of higher education, while later data are for degree-granting institutions. Degree-granting institutions grant associate's degrees or higher and participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs. Beginning in 2007, includes institutions with fewer than 15 full-time employees: these institutions did not report staff data prior to 2007.

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS). Fall Staff Survey (IPEDS-S91-99); and IPEDS Winter 2001-02 through Winter 2011-12. Human Resources component Fall Staff section. See Digest of Education Statistics 2013, table 315-10.

Figure 2. Instructional faculty in degree-granting postsecondary institutions by employment status: fall 1991-fall 2011

Figure 3 displays the number of degree-granting institutions with first-year undergraduates, by level and control of institution for the academic years between 2000-01 and 2012-13. There was a 64% (580,900 to 953,200) increase in the former public institutions and an 83% (236,100 to 580,900) increase in the private institutions during this period. The for-profit sector saw a 1,400% increase (9,300 to 137,700). Overall, 9% of faculty were employed at for-profit institutions with 63% at public nonprofit and 28% at private nonprofit.



Note. Degree-granting institutions grant associate's or higher degrees and participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs. Excludes institutions not enrolling any part-time degree/certificate-seeking undergraduates.

Source. U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS). Fall 2000 and Fall 2012. Institutional Characteristics component. See Digest of Education Statistics 2012, table 335.30.

Figure 3. Degree-granting institutions with first-year undergraduates, by level and control of institution for the academic years between 2000-01 and 2012-13

Kezar and Maxey (2012a) commented further as to the dynamics of the professoriate, stating that it was currently comprised of mostly non-tenure-track faculty. Of non-tenure-track positions 18.8% were full-time and 47.7% were part-time, resulting in two-thirds of the professoriate being non-tenured. Kezar and Maxey presented one rationale for the increase in non-tenured faculty:

Institutions' desire to attract external funding provided through grants and other awards has contributed to advancing the priority of research activity and has driven tenured and tenure-track faculty into more entrepreneurial roles. As a result, institutions have turned to non-tenure-track faculty, particularly part-time faculty, to teach an increasing share of undergraduate courses to make faculty available for these tasks. (p. 3)

In their discussion of faculty in the early colleges of the 17th-19th centuries, Jencks and Riesman (2001) wrote that universities did not employ a faculty of scholars. Clergyman served as college presidents who hired other men who were usually studying for the clergy. Almost all faculty taught all subjects, generally at an elementary level. In the mid-19th century, there was a shift, coordinated with the election of President Andrew Jackson. Those who were dissatisfied with the old order of the universities (Harvard, Yale, William and Mary) did not try to transform them. Instead, they opted to found their own competitive colleges that would serve new purposes. Jencks and Riesman (2001) referred to them as special-interest colleges. They often served sub-cultures that could be tied to race, religion, geographical location separately or in combination. Most of the colleges received funding from the special interests that they served and ultimately

evolved to serve those interests. During this time, faculty were not professionalized, having not much education beyond the bachelor degree level. Faculty tended to come from the sub-culture that the college served. Jencks and Reisman stated, “College instructors have become less and less preoccupied with educating young people, more and more preoccupied with educating one another by doing scholarly research which advances their discipline.” (p. 13)

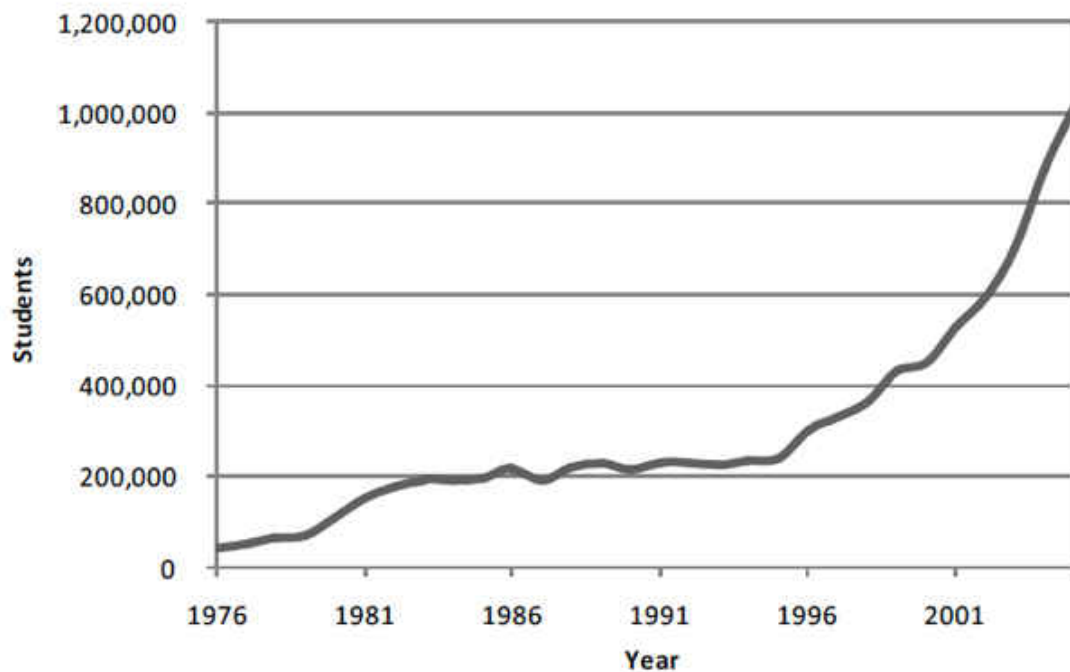
For-Profit Universities: History and Statistics

History

Coleman and Vedder (2008) presented a synopsis of the history of for-profit institutions in *For Profit Education in the United States: A Primer*. They noted that there was evidence of education being provided in Greece at a price as far back as the 5th century BC. During these times anyone could open private schools and teach. In America, during the 19th century, organized, for-profit business schools were founded and developed into an important form of higher education. The market was impacted in the 20th century when for-profit institutions “found their markets undercut by the establishment of publicly funded colleges and vocational institutions” (p. 5). It was during this time that higher education was experiencing changes as a result of reformers who argued that education was “the business of the state, and society could be improved by strong, publicly backed schools” (p. 5). As a result of the 1972 reauthorization of the Higher Education Act, the amount of government student aid available to for-profit

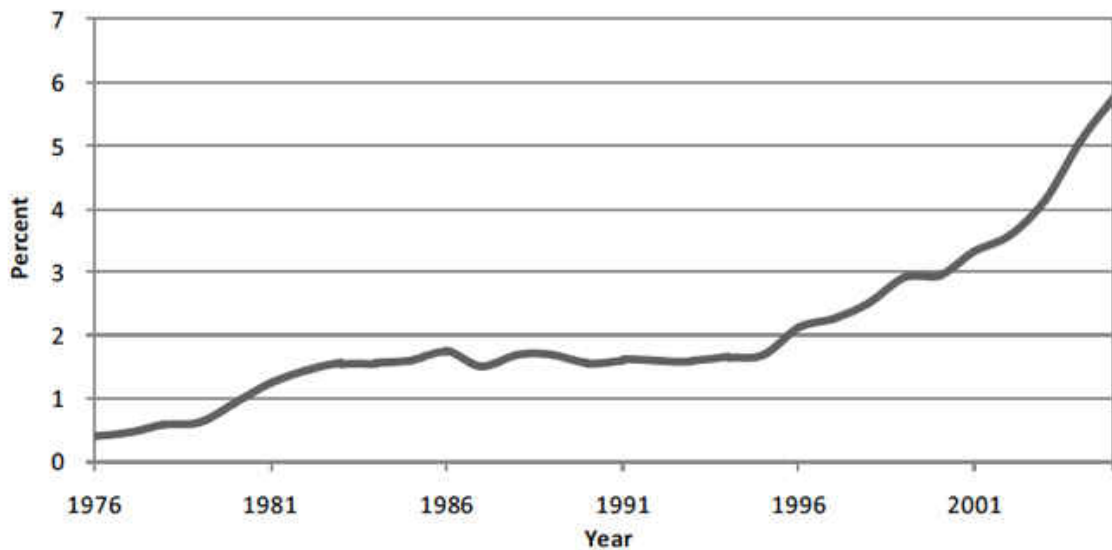
schools increased, and for-profit institutions experienced a cultural rebirth in the form of both increased enrollment and an increased share of the higher education market.

Figure 4 displays U.S. Department of Education data reflecting the growth of the for-profit sector from 1976 through 2005. A significant increase can be seen from 1996 to 2005, with total enrollment increasing from slightly more than 200,000 to over one million students. Figure 5 displays this enrollment for the same time period, revealing that the for-profit market share grew from 2% to almost 6% between 1996 and 2005.



Source. U. S. Department of Education, National Center for Educational Statistics, 2006c

Figure 4. Total for-profit enrollment, 1976-2005



Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics 2006c.

Figure 5. For-profit market share as a percent of total students enrolled in for-profits, 1976-2005 (all institution types)

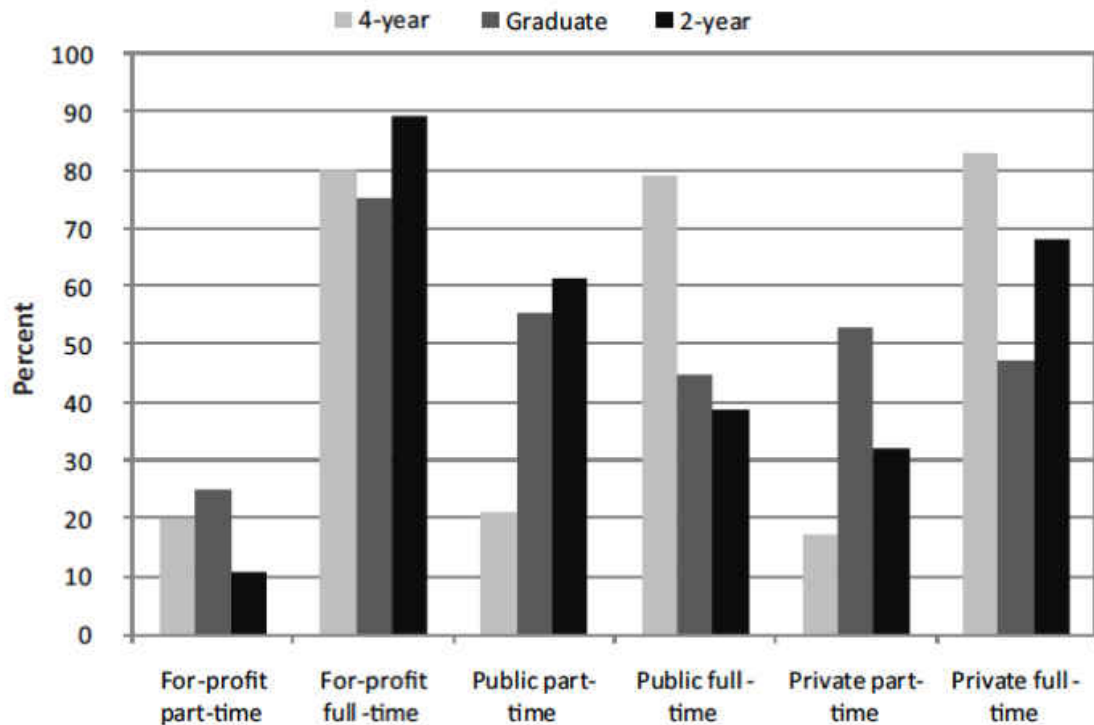
Coleman and Vedder (2008) commented on the rapid development and increased visibility of for-profit institutions as they increased their presence in meeting market demands:

The robust resurgence of for-profit schools suggests America's nonprofit colleges are failing to meet fully the people's needs. As a result, for-profits are stepping in to meet market demands their highly subsidized counterparts have chronically failed to satisfy. These recent and rapid developments have once again brought for-profit education national visibility. (p. 5)

Students

With regard to students, there are some differences between those attending for-profit institutions and other institutions. First, the average age of students at nonprofit

schools is 18-24, but the average age at for-profit schools is 25-29. Additionally, 43% of students enrolled at for-profit institutions are 30 or older compared to only 23% in the nonprofit schools (Coleman & Vedder, 2008). Another difference in student population is found in the area of full-time vs. part-time enrollment. As shown in Figure 6, for-profit schools enroll a higher percentage of students full-time than any other type of institution.



Source. U. S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics 2006a.

Figure 6. Full-time versus part-time student enrollment by institution type

Coleman and Vedder (2008) suggested that the reason for both the age difference and full-time enrollment status at for-profit schools is that these schools structure class schedules around the needs of their students, and this ultimately makes it easier for “older

working individuals to hold a day job while simultaneously attending night classes” (p. 11). An additional reason for the differences suggested by these researchers is that for-profit schools tend to be vocation driven and allow students to acquire job skills and attain degrees faster without having the traditional college experience.

Faculty

Allen (2013) provided a clear explanation of the difficulty in providing definitive demographic data for faculty.

We lack data on the characteristics of successful faculty within this system: their educational background and attainment. Nor do we know how they manage teaching, research, public service, and institutional obligations. As for compensation, are they salaried, or paid by the number of students or courses? Do they share the profits? (p. 80)

One factor that merits comment relates to full-time faculty salaries. As reported by *The Chronicle of Higher Education* (2016), there is a distinction between faculty salaries at public, private and for-profit schools. By exploring the new resource, data.chronicle.com, a comparison of average salaries of professors, associate professors, assistant professors, instructors, and lecturers can be explored between four-year private, four-year public, and four-year for-profit institutions. Professors at private institutions reportedly earn the highest average salaries at \$119,000, followed by public institutions at \$111,000, whereas this same category at for-profits earns \$54,000. This group earns, on average, half of the salary that professors at other institutions earn. Despite this significant salary gap, for-profit institutions have been retaining faculty at rates higher

than that at other higher education institutions. It is also interesting to explore the salaries across ranks (professor, associate professor, assistant professor, instructor, and lecturer). At private institutions, the average salary ranges from \$119,000 (professors) to \$47,000 (instructors). At public institutions, this span is from \$111,000 (professors) to \$49,000 (instructors). At for-profit institutions, the span is \$54,000 (professors) to \$43,000 (instructors), a much narrower salary gap than that at other institutions. One wonders if this narrower salary gap could contribute to a more collegial environment with fewer class distinctions than are found at other types of higher education institutions.

Challenges

Coleman and Vedder (2008) identified the challenges facing the for-profit sector in their work *For-Profit Education in the United States*. The following synopsis of their discussion of the challenges is particularly relevant to the present study.

Over the past decade, for-profit higher education has proved to be a successful, viable alternative to traditional higher education. According to Coleman and Vedder (2008), if for-profit institutions are to continue growing, they need to overcome several major challenges facing the industry. One challenge the industry has so far been able to meet and must continue to meet is its unique regulatory environment. Education, in general, is already a highly regulated sector, and the regulatory environment is further complicated for for-profits because such companies are also subject to U. S. Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC) and U.S. Federal Trade Commission (FTC) regulations. Additionally, for-profits are further burdened by regulation, as they are

singled out by the Higher Education Act and must meet requirements not demanded of nonprofit institutions.

Another challenge for-profits must overcome is in the area of accreditation. As for-profits have begun to expand into the traditional degree-granting market, they have met resistance from accrediting agencies. Many regional and specialty accreditors have resisted the growth of for-profits and have taken steps to discourage their pursuit of accreditation. The ability to gain accreditation is extremely important for the future of for-profits, as it not only lends to their credibility but also enables them to participate in federal student aid programs. So far, for-profits have met this challenge with some success by turning to national accrediting bodies, typically viewed as being second-class alternatives by the education sector. For-profits have also recently been gaining accreditation by essentially buying it. There has been an industry trend of for-profits buying up accredited nonprofits in order to gain accreditation. This shows the distortive effect accreditation can have in terms of barriers to for-profit institutions. To the extent that accreditation works to ensure quality education, it should not be a purchasable commodity. At the same time, genuine educational institutions should not have to face so many obstacles in their quest for accreditation.

A third challenge for for-profits is competition with the traditional sector. If for-profits are to grow beyond a limited market and become truly competitive alternatives to nonprofit higher education, they will have to find a way to capture market share from the heavily subsidized nonprofits. Public subsidies to nonprofits currently serve as massive barriers to for-profits in competing for students. Moreover, it is unlikely for-profits have

the political clout either to lobby for comparable subsidies of their own or to roll back nonprofit subsidies sufficiently to level the playing field. As state budgets come under more pressure from soaring medical costs and other factors, however, state subsidies are becoming relatively less important to public universities. This presents for-profit institutions with an opportunity to gain market share in the traditional 18–24-year-old student market. Given the increased costs of higher education, nonprofit institutions must be attentive to controlling tuition increases and cost containment in general or they will see their competitive price advantage decline.

Demographics and Job Satisfaction: Contemporary Status

Demographics have been found to impact levels of job satisfaction, burnout and turnover. Researchers (Gappa, Autin, & Trice, 2005; Kessler, Spector, & Gavin, 2014; Seifert & Umbach, 2008) have looked at demographics and faculty satisfaction in the areas of gender, academic discipline and institutional type. Faculty identification as online or face-to-face teacher and full-time or part-time status has also been explored.

Gappa et al. (2005) acknowledged that faculty demographics were changing. Higher education faculty in the United States have become a more diverse population with a rise in female faculty members. Unique challenges for female faculty fall in the area of balancing home and work life responsibilities. Watts and Robertson (2011), in their literature review on faculty burnout, found that gender was a predictive variable of burnout with female teachers typically scoring higher on the emotional exhaustion dimension. Seifert and Umbach (2008) also found that women were consistently less satisfied than their male colleagues and that the effect of being female varies by

discipline on levels of job satisfaction. In support of the gender and discipline connection of job satisfaction, Kessler et al. (2014) surveyed over 1,000 psychology faculty across 229 academic institutions and found that gender differences in job satisfaction were related to elements of the department in which they taught. Women reported higher levels of job satisfaction if their department was teaching oriented. Kessler et al. suggested that women in their study preferred more socially oriented positions, whereas men preferred more data oriented positions. They determined that both gender and academic discipline appeared to play a significant role in faculty job satisfaction. Xu (2008) explored the impact of discipline on job satisfaction and faculty turnover and stated,

All evidence leads to the conclusion that academic specialties of university faculty determine their values and concerns, which in turn exert direct and distinctive impact on their turnover intentions. Thus, discipline information should not be ignored in turnover research. (p. 56)

Hoekstra (2014) explored job satisfaction of online faculty members. His research focused on the relationship between training and job satisfaction. Job satisfaction, in his research, was defined as “a positive emotional state resulting from evaluating one’s job experiences” (p. 3). Additionally, online job satisfaction was defined “as faculty members feeling positive and confident about how they teach in the online environment” (p. 4). Faculty members in the Iowa Community College Consortium who taught online in the 2011-2012 academic year were emailed information about the study and provided a link to the survey. Hoekstra measured overall job satisfaction through use of the Index of Job Satisfaction survey, an 18-item measurement instrument that provides information about

overall job satisfaction rather than satisfaction regarding certain aspects of the job.

Faculty members were also asked whether or not they had taken a training module that was offered. That question was used to test whether or not there was a relationship between training and job satisfaction for the faculty study participants. Findings were that there was no statistically significant relationship between training and overall job satisfaction.

Lootens (2009) researched intrinsic and extrinsic factors that relate to community college faculty job satisfaction. Lootens referenced Herzberg's work on motivators and hygiene factors to discuss the predictor variables (intrinsic and extrinsic factors). Intrinsic factors (motivators) include recognition, the specifics of the work, achievement, responsibility and the possibility of advancement and growth. Extrinsic factors (hygienes) tend to influence dissatisfaction and include benefits, and salary as well as institutional environment. Lootens also noted that

Although faculty might be quite satisfied with the intrinsic nature of their work, the environmental conditions within which they must work can lead to dissatisfaction and as such are important to key community college administrators' perspectives on faculty job satisfaction. (p. 22)

Lootens utilized data from the 2004 National Study of Postsecondary Faculty (NSOPF: 04). These data were publicly accessible and related to postsecondary faculty in the United States, including data from public or private not-for-profit, two- and four-year degree-granting institutions. There were a total of 1,130 community colleges identified that met the research criteria, and 330 were identified as eligible for the sample. The

analysis of the data showed that there were significant differences in job satisfaction between part-time and full-time community college faculty. Though full-time faculty had the greatest dissatisfaction with regard to workload, part-time faculty were most dissatisfied with benefits. Recommendations for future research included expanding job satisfaction research to different types of institutions as well as looking at job satisfaction data of faculty in different departments.

Satterlee (2008) investigated levels of job satisfaction for online faculty at a private evangelical university. Job satisfaction “was considered a positive view toward the organization, which is multidimensional and originates from the multiple demands of the workplace and an individual’s contributions” (p. 9). Satterlee used the abridged Job Descriptive Index as well as the Job in General index to measure satisfaction levels of respondents. Groups of faculty were divided by: (a) online contract adjunct workers, (b) full-time university faculty teaching part time online and (c) full time faculty who taught online in a distance format. The survey was sent to 579 faculty who taught online during the 2008 spring term, and 367 surveys were received that were deemed acceptable for research inclusion. General results of the research showed no discernable differences between the groups with regard to job satisfaction. Additionally, all groups who taught in the online format were found to be generally satisfied with the work itself. The importance of this study is that it provided a baseline level of online faculty satisfaction for the university. As this research simply generated a baseline level of online faculty satisfaction, Satterlee recommended that additional research with regard to online faculty

and job satisfaction be completed. Additional recommendations included expanding research to faculty across disciplines.

Biddle (2010) researched faculty intentions to stay as they related to job embeddedness, job satisfaction and job search. Biddle defined job embeddedness as (1) the extent to which people have links to other people or activities, (2) the extent to which their jobs and communities are similar or fit with the other aspects in their life spaces, and, (3) the ease with which links can be broken- what would they give up if they left, especially if they had to physically move to other cities or homes. (p. 12)

Job search was referenced as time and effort that was spent in acquiring information about (a) other employment opportunities, (b) market alternatives, and (c) related information gathering activities. Lastly, job satisfaction was referred to as positive or pleasant feelings that result from the belief that one's job acts in a manner that fulfills one's job values. This research furthered the already existing job satisfaction research in the field of higher education by examining the variables as they related to faculty at Christian colleges or universities. Additionally, Biddle examined the relationships between the three variables. A 53-item instrument was administered online and used to measure the three variables. The instrument included Likert-type scales as well as open-ended questions. Ultimately surveys were distributed at seven institutions to all full time faculty, and 576 responses were received. Biddle found that both job embeddedness and job satisfaction were positive predictors of intent to stay, but job search was a negative predictor of intent to stay. Biddle determined, based on his research that the constructs

that had been previously widely studied and predictive of intent to stay (job satisfaction and job embeddedness) could confidently be generalized to full time faculty at Christian colleges and universities. Biddle stated that “To the author’s knowledge, no studies to date have examined the relationship of the job embeddedness construct with intent to stay in the field of Christian higher education” (p. 91). Biddle’s research provided a foundation for human resource administrators in Christian higher education to develop and implement retention strategies.

Motivators and Job Satisfaction

Although demographics have certainly been found to impact job satisfaction of faculty, intrinsic and extrinsic factors have also been deemed to be predictive of job satisfaction. Both of these sets of factors or motivators are subject to the perception of the individual. Essentially, the individual decides what is “good” or “bad” and this results in job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. The intrinsic factors impact satisfaction and are recognition, the work itself, achievement, and opportunity for advancement. An extrinsic factor (e.g., salary) would impact dissatisfaction.

Kim, Twombly, and Wolf-Wendel (2008) found that though faculty members at community colleges were generally less satisfied with their instructional autonomy than their four-year institution counterparts, they were more satisfied with their jobs overall. Kim et al. included both full- and part-time faculty in their analysis, and found no real distinction between the two groups. Faculty overall satisfaction was consistently a significant predictor of faculty satisfaction with instructional autonomy, regardless of full- or part-time status.

Matier (1990) stated “. . . the ability not only to attract top-quality and promising faculty but also to retain those currently employed has been, and will continue to be, of paramount importance to institutions of higher education concerned with developing and maintaining quality programs” (p. 39). His discussion on why faculty leave included concepts of internal and external factors as well as both tangible and intangible factors. Intangible factors include elements such as collegiality of associates, reputation of the institution or department, and rapport with leaders. Tangible factors are considered to be salary, facilities, and benefits. The internal and external factors are described as internal pushes and external pulls. Matier noted that “Without strong internal pushes to invite individuals seriously to consider external offers, lavish external pulls are typically not sufficient in and of themselves to disengage a faculty member” (p. 58).

Eagan, Jaeger and Grantham (2015) discussed the value of improving faculty satisfaction, observing that “understanding ways in which institutions can improve faculty satisfaction. . . can thereby indirectly curb faculty’s intent to leave can provide cost savings to campuses while simultaneously improving faculty morale” (p. 452). Eagan et al.’s research confirmed that lower ordered needs (work space, computers etc.) only become an issue when higher order needs (collegiality, sense of self-esteem, growth and self-actualization) are not being met.

Gappa et al. (2005) focused on current forces acting in higher education and explored a new framework in thinking about academic careers that they believed to be more responsive to both current faculty and institutional needs. These researchers identified forces that they believed were affecting higher education. The first had to do

with external pressures that were acting on higher education in ways that relate to fiscal constraints and accountability. Another force discussed was that of changing expectations about work and the workplace. In the Gappa et al. study, faculty members entering the workforce reported the desire to “engage in meaningful work and find ways to live balanced and integrated lives” (p. 36). The researchers noted that workers were in need of more flexibility in their work and control over their time. As more and more households are dual income earning, institutions will need to include family friendly policies to support the type of flexibility needed by these workers. This can include generous family leave policies, compressed work week, childcare services on-site and potentially even less work hours per week. The authors also commented on the importance of faculty work:

Faculty and their work are the heart, and thus determine the health, of every college and university and have a lasting impact on the many lives they touch. Well over a million faculty members now teach about 15 million students at over 4,000 colleges and universities in this country. The continued vitality of the academic profession is therefore the concern to a very large number of people and institutions. (p. 32)

Gappa et al. (2005) provided some general insight to the work life of faculty. They found that faculty were currently being asked to do more (be more productive in research and scholarship). External pressures were also impacting faculty in the form of new educational technologies that change the ways in which faculty members complete their work and often cultivate expectations for “24/7” accessibility, and more frequent

interactions with students. Another external pressure identified relates to the emergence of new areas of specialization. With the rapid expanse of knowledge, new interdisciplinary fields of study have emerged. In total, all of these external pressures change both the amount and nature of faculty work.

Lawrence, Ott and Bell (2012) sent surveys to tenure track faculty at 15 four-year institutions within a state system and received a total of 4,550 responses (38% response rate). They found that the clearest indicators of organizational commitment were opportunities for advancement and research support. In this research, organizational commitment was measured by the faculty members' indication that they would accept a position at their institution again if given the chance.

Gillespie, Walsh, Winefield, Dua and Stough (2001) provided insight into the effects of stress on university staff and faculty. They reported that stress was having a detrimental effect on both their professional and personal lives. Items that helped to improve stress as well as work morale in the workplace included support from coworkers and management, recognition, and achievement. Personal skills that reduced stress were stress management techniques, work non-work balance, role boundaries, and lowering standards. The general finding was that staff and faculty satisfaction could have an impact on both the student experience and the institution as a whole.

Johnsrud (2002) identified that an individual's intent to leave varied by institution. Therefore, an institution does have the ability to influence decisions to leave by attending to the quality of the faculty work life. She stated:

Worklife can be improved, but the effort needed is rarely a priority for senior administrators who face a multitude of challenges, both internal and external to the institution. Nonetheless it is in the best interests of colleges and universities to attend to the concerns of faculty and administrative staff. (p. 393)

Echoing this sentiment was Lindholm (2003).

As such, the nature and quality of self-perceived institutional associations have implications not only for the professional vitality of faculty but also for the effectiveness of their academic units and the well-being of their colleges or universities as a whole. (p. 126)

Lindholm called for additional research to look at how a sense of organizational fit can impact organizational commitment and productivity. Elements of fit were found to be the same for majority and minority faculty members. Elements that impacted sense of fit were: nurturing of the mind-intellectual engagement; nurturing of the heart-social/emotional support; nurturing personal ambition-structural support.

Rosser (2004) researched the faculty members' work life satisfaction and their intention to leave to extend previous conceptualizations of these areas as to how faculty work life, satisfaction, and intention to leave were related. Rosser (2004) found that faculty perceptions of their work life have a direct and powerful connection to their satisfaction and that their satisfaction could serve as an indicator of their intent to leave the institution. Rosser (2004) explained the significance of this understanding in the following way: "To constantly search for, hire in, and retrain are greater costs to our

students, institutions, and public, than to support, satisfy, and retain a productive and exemplary faculty” (p. 306).

Duhn (2013) looked at part-time faculty to gain an understanding of faculty affective commitment, job satisfaction, and job characteristics in order to seek an understanding of ways to attract and retain qualified part-time faculty members. Job characteristics included items such as pay, promotion, operating conditions, benefits, coworkers, rewards, communication and nature of the work. Electronic questionnaires were sent to 293 part-time faculty members at Buena Vista University, and 180 responses were received. The questionnaire that was used for this research drew items from “three validated surveys including the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire developed by Myer and Allen, the job Diagnostic Survey developed by Hackman and Oldham, the Job Satisfaction Survey developed by Spector” (p. 6) and also included a section to collect demographic data. Affective commitment was defined as employees’ commitment to remain with an organization because of the work itself and was found to be predicted by several job characteristics (i.e., autonomy-freedom to make decisions on how work objectives are met, task identity-ability to complete an identifiable piece of work for beginning to end) and task significance (i.e., the importance of work within the organization or outside of the organization). Although job satisfaction was found to be significantly predicted by task identity and task significance, no significance was found between job satisfaction and autonomy.

Watts and Robertson (2011) reviewed literature on faculty burnout. They found that faculty exposure to high numbers of students was a strong predictor of the experience of burnout.

Melin, Astvik and Bernhard-Oettel (2014) studied the relationship between workload and health. They found that excessive workload can cause faculty to use compensatory strategies (e.g., working longer hours, taking work home), and that this can impair their health. It was found that higher levels of discretion and autonomy in faculty also counteract the effects (or buffer) of excessive workload. Melin et al. suggested the use of compensatory strategies as a way to start interventions, explaining,

There is also a need for more research dealing with interventions to find ways to create sustainable higher education work environments that support academic staff in developing strategies that neither jeopardise their health nor impair their work-life balance. (p. 305)

In exploring faculty retention and increasing job satisfaction, Boyd (2014) studied faculty perceptions of increased workload and workload formulas as they related to burnout. She also generated workload models to identify those faculty who were at risk of burning out. In contrast, Campbell and O'Meara (2014) approached faculty satisfaction through a concept of agency. They found that departmental contexts were related to a sense of faculty agency (i.e., taking strategic or intentional actions). They found that institutions and departments with positive work-life climates facilitated success for faculty. They also stated that this type of climate increased agency perspective and action. Campbell and O'Meara suggested that future inquiry should be

conducted to further investigate how faculty development programs might impact agency. Their research supported the previous work of Wolf-Wendel, Ward, and Twombly (2007) who found that positive work life balance was both desired by faculty and resulted in more joy and contentment with faculty work.

Houston, Meyer and Paewai (2006) used the results of a work environment survey to report that faculty perceived they were experiencing increased workloads, unbalanced rewards and recognition systems, a lack of support and low staff morale. Despite the negative perceptions, faculty agreed with a statement indicating they were willing to put in a great deal of work to help the university be successful.

Sun, Zhao, Yang, and Fan (2012) also found a connection between psychological state and job commitment. They found that nurses with a positive psychological state were more easily linked with and embedded in the organization and their job. Additionally, they were found to more easily adapt to and be competent in their positions. These factors were determined by Sun et al. to contribute to positive evaluations and recognition of the organization and to result in more willingness of the nurses to stay with the organization.

This diverse body of research reviewed touches on intrinsic and extrinsic forces that create, for faculty, a unique perception of their work life and work experience. These perceptions develop into a sense of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their jobs. These intrinsic and extrinsic motivators have fallen into the categories of the work itself, salary, and advancement.

Environmental Conditions and Job Satisfaction

A good portion of research that has been conducted on faculty tends to fall in the areas of culture and socialization (Tierney, 2006; Tierney & Rhoads, 1994) and intent to leave (Johnsrud & Heck, 1994, 1998; Johnsrud & Rosser, 2002). Tierney and Rhoads discussed (a) faculty socialization and its role in building commitment and loyalty to the organization by learning about the organization's culture, and (b) how experiences with others help to define the organizational beliefs and attitude. These researchers discussed two phases of socialization. One occurs during recruitment (anticipatory socialization) and the other during initial entry and role continuance (organizational socialization). They stated that "an organization's participants need to consider more consciously how to socialize individuals to the organizations culture" (p. 26). They also stressed that socialization is an ongoing process and that "faculty socialization is an example of how individuals in an organization have the ability to create conditions for empowerment" (p. 73). Tierney and Rhoads mentioned the need to develop culturally specific strategies that enhance faculty socialization, thereby raising academic excellence. Johnsrud and Heck (1998) expanded this line of thinking:

In order to reward and retain quality faculty, administrators need the means to monitor faculty perceptions. They need to be able to establish benchmarks regarding worklife issues that make a difference to faculty, and to be able to monitor changes in those benchmarks over time. (p. 542)

They concluded that, "The quality of the academic enterprise depends ultimately on the vitality of the faculty" (p. 553).

Johnsrud and Heck (1994) found that quality of life was a primary reason that faculty leave institutions. They made particular note, in reporting their research, that faculty leave the institution and not the profession. The implication from this research was that the institution can create a better environment where faculty can choose to stay.

A review of current faculty literature showed that the term, faculty development, is primarily related to the educational development of faculty members (Amundsen & Wilson, 2012). Faculty development, according to Amundsen and Wilson, has been aimed at increasing teaching effectiveness and has also been referred to as academic development. Much of the focus of faculty development has included skill development, method of teaching, faculty reflection, as well as disciplinary and action research. Faculty development initiatives can take many different forms and can contribute to the improved quality of the work environment

Perna, Lerner, and Yura (1995) researched the effects of faculty mentors. They have found that faculty who have mentors report higher levels of career satisfaction. Even though this was categorized as a subjective perception, this finding in the field of faculty job satisfaction is reflective of the same results that have been recorded in the business fields. Faculty mentors have been found to be helpful in developing others psychosocially (sense of competency, vocational identity, and self-efficacy).

Barnes, Agago, and Coombs (1998), found that sense of community showed a meaningfully strong relationship to intent to leave: A higher level of sense of community was associated with a lower intent to leave. A heightened sense of community was found

to counteract the most significant predictor of intent to leave. Intent to leave, according to Barnes et al., was a stressor related to time commitment required by the job.

If higher education desires to attract and employ competent scholars and to maintain the vitality of the professoriate, attention must be paid to faculty motivation and job factors related to faculty stress. This study has examined stress related factors associates with faculty intention to leave academia. That stress is useful in predicting faculty intent to change careers suggests it is difficult for higher education to attract excellent scholars to the profession or to maintain the existing faculty at a high performance level without combating stress-related problems in the academic work environment. (p. 467)

Lindholm (2001) identified social/emotional support factors that promote faculty members' sense of fit within the workplace and subsequently influence their vitality in a positive way. She found that

participants viewed strong human resources as an essential component of "good" work environments. This was not only because strong students and colleagues form the cornerstone of reputational prestige in the eyes of some, but also because they contribute substantially to the quality of academic work life. (p. 255)

She concluded that the presence of emotionally supportive colleagues reinforced a sense of belongingness.

Ambrose, Huston and Norman (2005) conducted a qualitative study over a two-year period, using interviews with current faculty and faculty who had left the institution. They found that overall stated satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the institution

experience did not correlate with whether or not faculty stayed or left. What did correlate fell into five categories: salaries, collegiality, mentoring, reappointment, promotion and tenure, and department head. The area of collegiality “stood out by far as the single most frequently cited issue by both former and current faculty” (p. 813) that related to job satisfaction. Collegiality was further investigated to include aspects of time and interest, intra-departmental tensions, and incivility.

Wood and Johnsrud (2005) researched tenured faculty members’ attitudes about annual reviews after having been awarded tenure. Their work touched on ideas of social construction (e.g., positive emotion interventions) as part of faculty development programs. They posited that the social construction resulting from positive emotion interventions could help to create a very positive organizational climate. Campus culture and organizational climate were found to be predictors of how well received post tenure reviews were by faculty members from different institutions.

Gappa et al. (2005) also discussed the changing nature of faculty appointments. They observed that tenure track positions were on the decline, and part-time faculty member appointments were on the rise. They expressed the belief that because of this, there may be fewer opportunities for faculty member (a) to engage in professional development, (b) to feel a part of a collegial community, and (c) to participate in decisions about their work.

Norman, Ambrose and Huston (2006) found that common themes in studying faculty dissatisfaction that had to do with (a) lack of collegiality, (b) lack of mentoring, (c) ineffective leadership, and (d) a flawed review process. They noted that historically

these themes had been related to faculty dissatisfaction complaints. Though common to many institutions, they believed that each institution should still gather information from its faculty related directly to that institution.

Collegiality, according to Norman et al. (2006) can be affected in struggles over lack of resources, conflicts between faculty members, lack of intellectual community, little exchange of ideas, disinterested senior faculty. Ineffective leadership is demonstrated in an inability to manage conflict, by playing favorites, and failing to communicate effectively. Lack of mentoring occurs when there is not enough guidance provided, limited feedback on proposals, little help in setting priorities and navigating departmental policies. A flawed reappointment, promotion, tenure (RPT) review process occurs when there is a lack of feedback, poorly defined or inconsistently applied promotion criteria and an overly cloudy process in general.

Hagedorn (2012), as part of a presidential address to the Association for the Study of Higher Education (ASHE), discussed the researched meaning of academic life of ASHE members. She found that members find meaning in helping others; that tenure and promotion do not necessarily bring happiness; and that though academic life can contribute to happiness and purpose, it is social relationships that more prominently do so. This statement about social relationships is in direct agreement with the body of literature that identifies collegiality as a predictor of job satisfaction.

Turner (2015) wrote, “By creating nurturing practices, policies, and programs that help all to bloom where they are planted, we can contribute to the development of individuals who are confident, and, in turn, might help others to bloom where they are

planted” (p. 351). Though Turner’s work was primarily rooted in diversity and inclusion research, his statement speaks to all, not only those who have been marginalized.

In her research focused on department cultures, Kezar (2013) observed that “the inclusive and learning cultures led faculty to do work for which they are not paid and could be seen as exploitive practice” (p. 178). Willingness, capacity and opportunity for faculty to perform, according to Kezar, are impacted by the culture of the department. She identified cultures as: (a) destructive, (b) neutral (invisible), (c) inclusive or (d) learning.

Kezar (2013) expressed her belief that “The ‘objective’ environment does impact performance and perceptions of support also shape satisfaction that alters performance. Both are important to higher education meeting its mission of student learning, and both need our attention as researchers” (p. 5). The present study focused on the fact that a supportive environment is really one of social construction.

Wurgler, VanHeuvelen, Rohrman, Loehr, and Grace (2014) also considered the relationship between faculty training and job satisfaction in their study. Participants were faculty members who had participated in the Preparing Future Faculty (PFF) program at Indiana University. Of the 131 program alumni, 124 were sent email surveys, and 113 responded. After excluding responses with missing data and those alumni who did not work in academia, data from 86 respondents were analyzed. Job satisfaction was measured by a single question “How satisfied would you say you were with your first job?” (p. 53) Respondents were offered a Likert-type response scale ranging from 1 = not at all to 4 = a great deal. Though it was found that the PFF participants had higher levels

of self-reported job competence, there was no finding of a relationship between PFF program exposure and reported levels of job satisfaction.

Meneghel, Salanova, and Martinez (2014) found that collective positive emotions contributed to better organizational performance as well as team resilience. McMurray and Scott (2013) discussed the impact of organizational climate and how it can help or hinder teaching effectiveness. It was their belief that the faculty perception of support most clearly connects to feelings about the organizational climate and that collective positive emotions contribute to better organizational performance.

Current Research in Job Satisfaction at For-Profit Universities

Markowitz (2012) studied faculty at a for-profit career school to research the connection between faculty job satisfaction and perceived relationship with supervisors. There was a 39% rate of response to the online survey that was distributed to both full-time and part-time faculty. Variables of interest included: perception of faculty-administrator relationship, intent to stay, organizational commitment, and pay satisfaction. Demographic variables included: gender, age, years at the university, length of time with current supervisor and campus at which they teach. Due to the nature of this research focused on the faculty/supervisor relationship, only campus faculty were invited to participate, as online faculty were located throughout the U.S. and had limited face-to-face interaction with an actual supervisor. Faculty intent to stay was linked with faculty organizational commitment. Markowitz' suggestions included strengthening the sense of organizational commitment by increasing faculty members' perceptions that they have value beyond the classroom. He suggested involvement in committees as well as

opportunities to participate in decision making at the university. Additionally, he found that the longer faculty members were employed by the university the less happy they were with their immediate current supervisors.

Curran (2013) delved into factors related to online faculty members' job satisfaction at a for-profit institution. For-profit institution was defined "as a corporate entity that uses post-secondary education as a medium to achieve profit" (p. 9). Research participants came from two separate for-profit institutions and were either full-time or part-time faculty members who had taught a fully online course within the past year. Of 485 potential participants, 243 faculty completed an adapted version of the Online Faculty Satisfaction Survey using surveymonkey.com.

The factors explored in this research were those related to students, instructors and the institution. Curran found that all three factors contributed to overall faculty satisfaction and that student-related factors had the most significant impact. Additionally, faculty who worked exclusively at the institution studied had higher satisfaction among all dimensions that were measured. Curran recognized that a limitation of the research related to the quantitative nature of the data that were collected and suggested that future researchers try to gain a deeper understanding of the factors that were studied here. Curran also addressed the challenges that come with conducting research at for-profit schools by stating,

For-profit schools have, in the past, not been open to outside research.

Additionally, schools that view themselves in competition with each other may be

unlikely to cooperate in such a venture. However, this remains an important area for further research. (p. 90)

Maisto (2014) discussed the use of contingency (part-time) faculty most frequently in general education classes and expressed that this can lead to a marginalization of these faculty. This leads to questions regarding the potential for different levels of faculty job satisfaction due (a) to their part-time or full-time status and (b) to the nature of their teaching (e.g., general education vs. degree-specific courses).

Conceptual Framework for Job Satisfaction

Hagedorn's (2000) framework of job satisfaction was inspired by the work of Herzberg (1964) who introduced a new theory of motivation. In his research, he posited that opportunities related to job satisfaction are motivators and that removing factors that are negative or create dissatisfaction have a preventative value. Data were collected through interviews with over 200 engineers, and interview questions were generated to gain better understanding of what factors are involved with feeling exceptionally happy or exceptionally unhappy with jobs. Herzberg found two categories of factors related to job satisfaction: satisfiers and dissatisfiers. The satisfiers related to the work and the individual's relationship to the work (i.e., achievement, recognition for achievement, intrinsic interest, responsibility and advancement). The dissatisfiers related to the environment or context with which one does one's job (i.e., administration, supervisor, salary, interpersonal relationships, working conditions). Ultimately, the dissatisfiers were named hygiene factors, and the satisfiers were named motivators. Hygiene factors affect job dissatisfaction, and motivators affect job satisfaction. Additional observations by

Herzberg addressed the finding that, though motivators affect job satisfaction, they have very little impact on job dissatisfaction. Conversely, hygiene factors contribute very little to job satisfaction.

Hagedorn (2000) concentrated on the psychology of job satisfaction and introduced a general framework by which to understand and study this concept. Her work expanded the previous work of Herzberg and addressed triggers and mediators as constructs that interact and affect job satisfaction. Triggers are defined as “a significant life event that may be either related or unrelated to the job” (p. 6). Mediators are defined as “a variable or situation that influences (moderates) the relationships between other variables or situations producing an interaction effect” (p. 6). Her model included six identified triggers and three mediators.

Hagedorn’s framework allows for a satisfaction continuum that includes identified points of disengagement, acceptance/tolerance and appreciation. On the high end of the continuum is job appreciation with active engagement in work. This reflects high job satisfaction which results in appreciation of position and pride in the organization and translates “in a high likelihood of job engagement and productivity” (p. 9). On the opposite end of the continuum is disengagement, whereby workers experience very low levels of job satisfaction resulting in active disengagement from work, low or no affinity for the organization, and little or no desire to contribute to the benefit of the organization. This theory contends that the effects of both the mediators and triggers play significant roles in the satisfaction levels along the continuum.

For the purposes of applying this theory directly to faculty at colleges and universities, Hagedorn made a few clarifications on items listed as triggers. Life stages refer to career stages and connect directly to years until retirement. Additionally, change in rank or tenure is considered to cause a movement in life stage and can ultimately impact satisfaction as well.

For the purposes of this research, Hagedorn's framework was modified. Triggers, or significant life events that may or may not be job related were not explored. Rather, the focus of this research was on the impact of specific mediators on job satisfaction. The use of the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) as the measurement instrument for this research allowed for direct exploration of the following mediators: (a) work itself, (b) advancement, (c) salary, and (d) collegial relationships.

Job Descriptive Index

The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) has been used for over 50 years in researching job satisfaction. It is a self-report measure of job satisfaction which is defined as the feelings that workers have about their jobs. It consists of short lists of adjectives or phrases that describe different facets of the job or the job in general. Those completing the survey select *Yes*, *No*, or *?* in response to each adjective or phrase. A *Yes* response means that the adjective or phrase describes the job situation; a *No* response means that the adjective or phrase does not represent the job situation; a response of *?* means that the respondent cannot decide. The JDI is available from Bowling Green State University free of charge, is distributed in conjunction with the Job in General (JIG) scale, and both measures are frequently delivered together. Those who complete the survey are asked to

consider specific facets of their job and their satisfaction with these facets. There are five total facets included in the JDI and they are: (a) work on present job, (b) pay, (c) opportunities for promotion, (d) supervision, and (e) people on your present job. The Job in General (JIG) is considered a global measure of job satisfaction, and participants are asked to consider how satisfied they are with their job in a broad overall sense as they answer.

Summary

This literature review included a historical overview of faculty in higher education. A brief history of for-profit universities was provided as well. Research findings that related to faculty job satisfaction were discussed in three distinct categories. The categories were demographics, motivators (salary, advancement, work itself, recognition) and environmental conditions. Hagedorn's (2000) framework for job satisfaction was discussed as well as the Job Descriptive Index, that measures job satisfaction.

CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY

Introduction

Austin (1991) stated “Faculty who are excited, committed, and involved with their work help create stimulating, supportive, and challenging environments for students. In short, college environments that sustain faculty are likely to enrich students” (p. 4). As such, faculty job satisfaction warrants investigation by researchers. It is important not only to know if faculty are satisfied with their jobs but to understand the factors that contribute to this satisfaction. This chapter contains a discussion of the methods and procedures that were used to conduct this study, the research questions that guided the study, and the theoretical framework underpinning the research. The goal of this research was to determine levels and dimensions of job satisfaction of full-time faculty members at a for-profit university.

Research Design and Rationale

A quantitative design using a positivistic paradigm was used to conduct the study. Although the experiences of faculty members may be subjective, the instrumentation that was used to measure job satisfaction was quantitative in nature and warranted a quantitative research design. The measure has been verified for validity and reliability and is discussed as a part of this chapter.

Research Questions

The research questions for this study were developed to build on prior research in the field of higher education with regard to faculty job satisfaction.

1. What difference, if any, exists in job satisfaction among full-time faculty members from different disciplines in a for-profit university?
2. What are the levels of job satisfaction of faculty members at a for-profit university with regard to the different facets of the job situation: the work itself, salary, advancement, administration and collegial relationships?

Site Selection

This study was conducted at a for-profit media arts university, Apollinaire University [AU] (pseudonym) in the southeastern United States. At the time of the study, the campus of AU occupied 210 acres. There were 78 degree programs offered through the university, and the student body was comprised of 15,300 students. Both undergraduate and graduate degrees were offered. The school was founded over 30 years ago and has graduated over 52,000 students. The faculty pool consisted of 842 full-time faculty members and three part-time faculty members.

Participant Selection and Recruitment

Voluntary survey respondents came from the university's full-time faculty pool. All 842 full-time university faculty were emailed a survey link and had the opportunity to participate. They served in the following faculty positions: 45 department chairs, 413 course directors, 167 associate course directors, and 216 laboratory specialists. Additionally, faculty were separated into departments based on the disciplines in which they teach. The faculty departments were: A, B, C, D, E and F.

Measurement

The Job Descriptive Index [JDI] (n.d.) has been used in research since the 1960s and currently is available through Bowling Green State University where the instrument is continually being developed and modified by the university's Job Descriptive Index Research group. The scales are available to use free of charge; however, the university suggests that researchers purchase the users' manual prior to administering the scales.

Stanton, Sinar, Balzer and Smith (2002a) reported on the need to reduce the length of self-report scales and the issues and strategies for doing so. This team of researchers acknowledged that a combination of forces has led to longer surveys and an increase in the number of organizational surveys in the field of work-relevant research. This increase in the number of surveys, paired with the good psychometric practice of including several items per construct, has resulted in longer surveys. The researchers set out to better understand how to reduce constructs while retaining psychometric quality. They determined that reduced scales can maintain the same level of quality as longer versions of the same scale; however, they cautioned "that reduced-length versions of scales produce scores that are not directly comparable to scores from their full-length parents" (p. 187).

Building on the information gained in their prior research, Stanton et al. (2002b) set out to develop a compact measure of job satisfaction. Their work resulted in the abridged Job Descriptive Index (aJDI). As an instrument measuring job satisfaction, the JDI has been translated into nine different languages and administered in at least 17 countries. The JDI contains 72 items across five subscales while the aJDI contains a total

of 25 items across the same five subscales. A national sample of 1,534 respondents using the JDI was used in the development of the aJDI. Results of the national sample informed the decision on which items to retain in each scale. The abridged scales were then tested using a sample of 636 university workers, and the five abridged subscales maintained the validity of the instrument. Additionally, according to its authors, the aJDI “preserves many desirable characteristics of the full-length version of the scale while reducing the item count, administration time, and required survey space for the instrument” (p. 189). A table that includes item correlations for the aJDI can be found in Appendix B.

Russell (2004) reported on the abridged version of the Jobs in General (JIG) scale. The JIG is a subset of the larger measurement the JDI. They tested the abridged JIG (aJIG) for validity and reported the results of three separate validation studies. The aJIG has been used to measure job satisfaction in a global manner. The researchers have acknowledged that trends in increasing the length of survey instruments have led to a “decrease in respondents’ willingness to complete them” (p. 879). They confirmed that the abridging process used in the JIG (trimming from 18 to 8 items) resulted in only minimal impact on reliability and validity and still held “internal consistency, validity, and compatibility with the JDI family of scales” (p. 891).

Although the aJDI has been developed and is accepted as a viable instrument for measuring job satisfaction, the Job Descriptive Index and Job in General Quick Reference Guide provided, for a fee, by the Job Descriptive Index Office at Bowling Green State University has clear instructions and advice for cleaning and scoring the JDI

and JIG data. The instructions are not inclusive of the abridged versions of the measurements. As a result, this research was conducted using the JDI and JIG.

Reliability and Validity

Buckley, Carraher, and Cote (1992) reviewed several job satisfaction instruments, including the Job Descriptive Index (JDI), to explore construct validity. Since the development of the JDI in 1969, it has been widely used as a self-report measure of job satisfaction. Although the original measure was validated in 1969, minor revisions were made in 1978, and another validation process was undertaken in 1989. These researchers sought to explore the validity of the JDI and to identify how generalizable the instrument could be across disciplines. They used 14 data sets taken from research between 1977 and 1985 (Appendix C).

The research findings suggested that the JDI can be used across populations. There was shown to be some trait variance associated with the JDI, but the researchers determined that the amount of variance was no more significant than that found in other job satisfaction measurement instruments. However, due to the variance found, the researchers made two suggestions. First, consideration should be given to using the JDI in concert with another instrument used to measure job satisfaction. Second, techniques such as regression should not be used when analyzing data collected using this instrument as “regression estimates would be severely biased and would misreport the estimated relationship between job satisfaction and the criteria of interest” (p. 539). Buckley et al. (1992) further commented on the scale by identifying that certain subscales of the measurement (satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion) have high levels of

validity, but other subscales (satisfaction with the work itself, satisfaction with coworkers) could benefit from further development. The researchers concluded that, “Overall, the JDI has been instrumental in advancing knowledge about the job satisfaction construct” (p. 540).

Additionally, the Job Descriptive Index and Job in General Quick Reference Guide provided by Bowling Green State University reported Cronbach’s coefficient alpha scores for each of the JDI facet scales along with correlations among the JDI facets and the JIG to show that each facet of the JDI measures a distinct aspect of job satisfaction. A full report from Bowling Green State University can be found in Appendix D. This information was taken from the most recent validation work conducted in 2009. (Brodke et al., 2009)

Instrumentation

The JDI (Appendix E) consists of the following job satisfaction facets that are measured: (a) work on present job, (b) pay, (c) opportunities for promotion, (d) supervision, (e) people on your present job and (f) job in general. Descriptions of each facet follow:

Work on Present Job

Survey respondents are asked to think about the work they do at present. They are then asked to respond with a *Yes*, *No*, or *?* to each adjective or phrase if it does describe their work, does not describe it, or they cannot decide. There are a total of 18 items in this facet (items 3-20).

Pay

Survey respondents are asked to think about the pay they currently receive. They are then asked to respond with a *Yes*, *No*, or *?* to each adjective or phrase if it does describe their pay, does not describe it, or they cannot decide. There are a total of nine items in this facet (items 21-29).

Opportunities for Promotion

Survey respondents are asked to think about the opportunities for promotion that they have now. They are then asked to respond with a *Yes*, *No*, or *?* to each adjective or phrase if it does describe their opportunities for promotion, does not describe them, or they cannot decide. There are a total of nine items in this facet (items 30-38).

Supervision

Survey respondents are asked to think about the supervision that they receive in their jobs. They are then asked to respond with a *Yes*, *No*, or *?* to each adjective or phrase if it does describe the supervision they get on the job, does not describe it, or they cannot decide. There are a total of 18 items in this facet (items 39-56).

People on Your Present Job

Survey respondents are asked to think about the majority of people with whom they work or meet in connection with their work. They are then asked to respond with a *Yes*, *No*, or *?* to each adjective or phrase if it does describe people with whom they work, does not describe them, or they cannot decide. There are a total of 18 items in this facet (items 57-74)

Job in General

Survey respondents are asked to think about their job in general. They are then asked to respond with a *Yes*, *No*, or ? to each adjective or phrase if it does describe their job, does not describe it, or they cannot decide. There are a total of 18 items in this facet (items 75-92).

In addition to the JDI facet questions, the survey also included three demographic questions. Survey items 1 and 2 asked: “Which department are you a faculty member with?” and “What is your faculty position?” There was also a faculty status question where the respondent could identify whether they worked full-time or part-time. Only those faculty with full-time responses were included in this research. Also, all participants had the opportunity to respond freely to the prompt, “Please feel free to add anything you feel is relevant to this survey as it relates to your job satisfaction.”

The following table identifies survey questions that were used to identify and/or measure job satisfaction theoretical framework variables and answer the research questions.

Table 1

Relationship of Research Questions, Conceptual Framework, and Survey Items

Research Question	Variables
	Conceptual Framework (Survey Items)
1. What difference, if any, exists in job satisfaction among full-time faculty members from different disciplines in a for-profit university?	Demographics Academic discipline (1) Race (3) Gender (4) Age (5) (75-92)
2. What are the levels of job satisfaction of faculty members at a for-profit university with regard to the different facets of the job situation: the work itself, salary, advancement, administration and collegial relationships?	Motivators Work itself (6-23) Salary (24-32) Advancement (33-41) Environmental Conditions Administration (42-59) Collegial relationships (60-77)

Data Collection Plan

The data was collected using an online survey, and Survey Monkey was the platform to collect the responses. The initial contact was made with all university full-time faculty by email. This researcher used a five-step plan, based on the model developed by Dillman (2007) for achieving high response rates (Appendix F). Based on the recommendation of the committee members at the time of the proposal defense, a response rate of 15% to 25% was sought.

Confidentiality and Anonymity

Participants were provided a Survey Monkey link to complete the research survey. No personal or identifying information was collected. The researcher and the

statistician for this research were the only individuals with access to the data collected. The survey and collected data was deleted from Survey Monkey at the conclusion of this research. Only the data was saved as an excel file for possible additional analysis.

Analysis of the Data

Descriptive statistics were used to evaluate the first research question: “What differences, if any, exist in job satisfaction of full-time faculty members at a for-profit university among university faculty from selected academic disciplines?” The mean job satisfaction scores were identified for the following departments: A, B, C, D, E, F.

Descriptive statistics were used to evaluate the second research question: “What are the levels of job satisfaction of faculty members at a for-profit university with regard to the different facets of the job situation: the work itself, salary, advancement, administration and collegial relationships?” The mean facet scores were identified for each facet.

The survey data were examined for possible input errors and invalid responses, organized and coded as suggested by the JDI Quick Reference Guide distributed by Bowling Green State University. The responses were entered into the Statistical Program for Social Sciences (SPSS) and appropriate statistical tests were run.

Authorization

The authorization from the institution where the data were to be collected and the signed form can be reviewed in Appendix G. Distinguishing names and items have been

masked to retain institutional anonymity. IRB approval was sought from the University of Central Florida before the research was initiated (Appendix G).

Originality Score

This document was submitted to iThenticate to ensure the originality of this work. The dissertation chair presented the scores to the committee on the date of the defense.

Summary

The methods and procedures used in this study have been presented in this chapter. The research design and rationale were discussed. Research questions were restated. The research site was identified, and the participant selection process and recruitment strategies were presented. The instrumentation and measurement associated with the instrument were fully explained, and data collection and analysis procedures were established. Actions that were taken in regard to authorizing institutions and originality score were also identified.

CHAPTER 4 DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

Introduction

Faculty job satisfaction has been linked to student performance, (Schuster & Wheeler, 1990), increased faculty performance, (Lyons & Akroyd, 2014) organizational commitment (Lyons & Akroyd, 2014; Schuster & Wheeler, 1990;) and intent to leave (Johnsrud & Heck, 1994, 1998; Johnsrud & Rosser, 2002). This extensive body of literature has come from research conducted primarily in the public and private not-for-profit sectors. Very little research is available regarding faculty and faculty job satisfaction from those members in the for-profit sector (Kinser, 2006). This study was intended to contribute to the body of literature on faculty job satisfaction at for-profit institutions.

This chapter provides the statistical analysis results for the two research questions that guided the study. Data reported in this chapter were analyzed using SPSS 24 for Mac OS.

Participants

The participants in this research study consisted of full-time faculty members at a for-profit media arts school in the southeast. All of the 838 current faculty members were invited to participate in the research. There were a total of 385 responses received over the course of the four weeks that the survey was available. Of the 385 potential respondents, 31 did not complete the survey and did not complete the qualifying question that identified whether they were full-time faculty or part-time faculty. As a result, their

data were not included in the analysis. A total of 354 full time faculty completed surveys, and their data were used in this research. The demographic profile of the participants is presented in Table 2. The majority of the participants were between the ages of 26-45 with 30% of the participants falling in the 26-35 age group and 37% falling in the 36-45 age group. Male participants constituted the majority of respondents (63%) and a full 80% of participants were Caucasian.

Table 2

Participants' Demographic Data (N = 354)

Characteristics	N	%
Age		
18-25	2	0.5
26-35	108	30.6
36-45	131	37.0
46-55	65	18.5
56+	42	11.9
Unknown	6	1.5
Gender		
Male	223	63.0
Female	123	35.0
Transgender	2	0.5
Unknown	6	1.5
Race		
White	282	80.0
Hispanic, Latino or Spanish Origin	30	8.4
Black or African American	14	3.9
American Indian or Alaska Native	2	0.5
Other	13	3.6
Unknown	13	3.6

A set of work characteristics were also collected as data. These characteristics related to Academic Discipline (department), faculty position, and current mode of teaching (online, campus or both). These characteristics are presented in Table 3. With regard to faculty position, Laboratory Specialists make up 24% of overall faculty; Associate Course Directors, 21%; Course Directors, 50% and Department Chairs, 5%. Considering responses received for each faculty position there were the following response rates for each faculty position: Laboratory Specialists, 21%; Associate Course Directors, 45%; Course Directors, 52%; Department Chairs, 51%.

Table 3

Participants' Work Characteristics Data

Work Characteristics	N	%
Academic Discipline (Department)		
A	64	18.0
B	42	11.9
C	70	19.8
D	42	11.9
E	70	19.8
F	59	16.6
Unknown	7	2.0
Position		
Laboratory Specialist	56	15.8
Associate Course Director	74	21.0
Course Director	200	56.5
Department Chair	20	5.7
Unknown	4	1.0
Current Mode of Teaching		
Online	71	20.0
On campus	122	34.5
Both	158	44.7
Unanswered	3	0.8

Research Question 1

Research Question 1 sought to determine if there were any differences in job satisfaction of full-time faculty members at a for-profit university among the academic disciplines. The Job in General (JIG) scores were used to determine the means and standard deviation scores for each of the academic disciplines. Table 4 displays these data for the survey respondents by academic discipline as well as the minimum and maximum scores for job satisfaction. Also included are the mean and standard deviation scores. Respondents from Academic Discipline F had the overall highest job satisfaction score ($M = 43.64$, $SD = 12.36$), and respondents from Academic Discipline C had the lowest ($M = 39.5$, $SD = 14.98$). The range of mean scores for overall job satisfaction was 4.14. Respondents from Academic Disciplines C and F showed the largest range in job satisfaction scores (54), and those from Academic Discipline A showed the smallest range (43).

Table 4

Job Satisfaction by Academic Discipline

Academic Discipline	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
A	64	11	54	41.88	10.96
B	42	15	54	43.50	9.38
C	70	0	54	38.49	14.98
D	42	3	54	39.50	13.36
E	70	5	54	43.60	10.30
F	59	0	54	43.64	12.36
Unknown	7	8	54	37.29	16.87

Research Question 2

Research Question 2 sought to determine the levels of job satisfaction with regard to specific facets of the job situation: the work itself, salary, advancement, administration and collegial relationships. The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) facet scores (work on present job, pay, opportunities for promotion, supervision, people on your present job) were used to determine the means and standard deviation in each of these areas. Results are presented in Table 5. All job satisfaction scores had the maximum score range of 54. The facets of the job that faculty were least satisfied with were pay ($M = 23.51$, $SD = 17.66$) and opportunities for promotion ($M = 12.5$, $SD = 15.16$). Faculty were most satisfied with the people on the present job ($M = 45.68$, $SD = 10.76$).

Table 5

Job Satisfaction Facet and Job in General Scores

Facet	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
Work on present job	354	0	54	36.22	14.41
Pay	354	0	54	23.51	17.66
Promotion	354	0	54	12.50	15.16
Supervision	354	0	54	41.77	13.45
People on your present job	354	0	54	45.68	10.76
Job in general	354	0	54	41.66	12.31

Additional Analyses

Additional analyses were performed using the gathered demographic data. Overall job satisfaction was explored as it related to position, race, gender, and age. These results are displayed in Tables 6, 7, 8 and 9. With regard to these demographics, the highest

overall job satisfaction scores were found with course directors ($M = 43.42$, $SD = 11.61$), Black or African American faculty ($M = 45.07$, $SD = 11.59$), females ($M = 42.8$, $SD = 10.21$) and faculty aged 56+ ($M = 45.36$, $SD = 11.28$). Considering response categories with substantial responses, the demographic data analysis also showed that those with the lowest job satisfaction scores were laboratory specialists ($M = 38.23$, $SD = 13.75$) and faculty between the ages of 26-35 ($M = 38.71$, $SD = 13.58$).

Table 6

Overall Job Satisfaction by Position

Position	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
Laboratory Specialist	56	0	54	38.23	13.75
Associate Course Director	74	1	54	40.43	12.00
Course Director	200	0	54	43.42	11.61
Department Chair	20	6	54	39.75	14.02
Unknown	4	24	48	34.00	10.86

Table 7

Overall Job Satisfaction by Race

Race	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
White	282	0	54	41.55	12.37
Hispanic, Latino or Spanish Origin	30	0	54	43.10	12.26
Black or African American	14	11	54	45.07	11.59
American Indian or Alaskan Native	2	35	49	42.00	9.89
Other	13	6	54	39.54	14.87
Unanswered	13	18	54	39.15	10.40

Table 8

Overall Job Satisfaction by Gender

Gender	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
Male	223	0	54	41.58	12.95
Female	123	5	54	42.80	10.21
Transgender	2	8	19	13.50	7.77
Unanswered	6	6	45	30.50	14.18

Table 9

Overall Job Satisfaction by Age

Age	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
18-25	2	42	45	43.50	2.12
26-35	108	0	54	38.71	13.58
36-45	131	0	54	41.98	11.80
46-55	65	6	54	44.17	11.18
56+	42	5	54	45.36	11.28
Unanswered	6	24	41	34.17	6.30

Additional exploration was conducted with regard to the job satisfaction facet scores of pay and promotion, as these were the two lowest facet scores with the faculty as a whole. Further analysis included looking at these two facets with regard to faculty position in order to appreciate the differences that faculty role might have on the levels. The results are displayed in Tables 10 and 11. On both facet scores, faculty position appears to impact scoring. Of the faculty members who answered the position question, the scores increased on both facets as the faculty position increased from entry level position (Laboratory Specialist) to highest level faculty position (Department Chair) with

Laboratory Specialists having the lowest pay facet score ($M = 14.04$, $SD = 15.19$) and promotion facet score ($M = 10.07$, $SD = 14.06$). Department Chairs had the highest pay facet score ($M = 24.5$, $SD = 15.61$) and promotion facet score ($M = 20.7$, $SD = 16.98$).

Table 10

Job Satisfaction Pay Facet Scores by Position

Position	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
Laboratory Specialist	56	0	54	14.04	15.19
Associate Course Director	74	0	54	20.81	16.78
Course Director	200	0	54	25.91	17.62
Department Chair	20	6	54	35.80	15.61
Unanswered	4	6	42	24.50	15.78

Table 11

Job Satisfaction Advancement Facet Scores by Position

Position	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
Laboratory Specialist	56	0	54	10.07	14.60
Associate Course Director	74	0	54	11.97	15.87
Course Director	200	0	54	12.67	14.78
Department Chair	20	0	54	20.70	16.98
Unanswered	4	0	18	6.50	8.06

Teaching mode and job satisfaction levels were also explored. The findings can be found in Table 12. Faculty who teach both online and campus courses had the highest scores in three of the five facets: The Work Itself ($M = 37.92$, $SD = 13.64$), Administration ($M = 43.5$, $SD = 12.27$) and Collegial Relationships ($M = 47.45$, $SD = 9.12$). These faculty members also scored highest in the Job in General scores ($M =$

41.97, $SD = 11.95$). Although online faculty members scored lowest on the facet score for The Work Itself ($M = 29.96$, $SD = 15.83$), they scored highest on the facet score for Salary ($M = 28.56$, $SD = 16.57$).

Table 12

All Job Satisfaction Facet Scores and Job in General Scores Based on Teaching Mode

Facet	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std Deviation
Work Itself				
Online	3	54	29.96	15.83
Campus	0	54	37.81	13.61
Both	0	54	37.92	13.64
Unanswered	13	42	30.33	15.30
Salary				
Online	0	54	28.56	16.57
Campus	0	54	21.31	17.93
Both	0	54	23.16	17.65
Unanswered	0	20	11.33	10.26
Opportunities for Advancement				
Online	0	54	12.56	14.98
Campus	0	54	13.30	15.99
Both	0	54	12.06	14.71
Unanswered	0	2	1.33	1.15
Administration				
Online	6	54	41.42	14.21
Campus	0	54	39.95	14.32
Both	0	54	43.50	12.27
Unanswered	25	43	32.67	9.29
Collegial relationships				
Online	14	54	44.94	10.73
Campus	0	54	43.76	12.42
Both	8	54	47.45	9.12
Unanswered	42	54	47.33	6.11
Job in General				
Online	5	54	40.69	12.55
Campus	0	54	41.92	12.83
Both	0	54	41.97	11.95
Unanswered	34	40	37.67	3.21

Note. N values = Online, 71; Campus, 122; Both, 158; Unanswered, 3.

The last area of analysis completed was with regard to mode facet and Job in General scores, frequency of mode score occurrence, and percentage of respondents who hit the mode score. Table 13 displays these results.

Table 13

Facet and Job in General Scores: Mode, Frequency and Percentages (N = 354)

Facets and Job in General	Mode	Frequency	%
The work itself	54	54	9.6
Salary	0	41	11.6
Opportunities for Advancement	0	101	28.5
Administration	54	63	17.8
Collegial relationships	54	121	34.2
Job in General	54	68	19.2

The most frequently occurring scores for each of these areas were the absolute high (54) and low (0) that could be scored on each of these measures. With regard to opportunities for advancement, 28.5% of respondents scored this area as a 0, the lowest possible rating. However, with regard to collegial relationships, the highest rating possible (54) was given by 34.2% of respondents.

Open-ended Question

In addition to the demographic and JDI/JIG survey questions, there was an open-ended question, "Please feel free to add anything you feel is relevant to this survey as it relates to your job satisfaction." A total of 139 respondents (39%) chose to answer in the free response area. Although the responses were varied there were two themes that

emerged: working in positions without the appropriate compensation and dissatisfaction with senior management.

Almost 10% of the free response answers identified respondent who were currently completing additional work responsibilities and/or duties at one level above their current faculty position yet remained uncompensated for this work. One respondent included this statement: “

Overall, my satisfaction is very high. However, I must mention that paperwork for promotions moves at a very slow rate. As a result, there are employees doing higher level jobs that they are not being compensated fairly for. For example, I know of a lab staff employee [who] has been doing an ACD job for over six months while not being compensated at an ACD rate.

There were two stated reasons why this was happening. One was identified as the slow rate in which promotion paperwork is approved which was identified in the previous response as well as another, “I was acting Course Director of my course for 13 months.” Another stated reason had to do with increasing workloads, “The biggest problem is increasing workloads. Staff will leave and won’t be replaced, creating more work for those who have stayed.” and “For more than 3 years now, for all intents and purposes, every person who has left has not had their position refilled, making more and more work for those of us left.”

A second theme that emerged was in the area of administration and dissatisfaction with upper management. A full 17% of the free responses addressed this issue. Many of the responses wanted to distinguish between their direct supervisors and those in

management and leadership positions who did not directly supervise faculty, “Direct supervision and department supervision is excellent, but many of the people in administrative positions are out of touch with what we do as educators.” This sentiment was echoed in another response, “I believe there is a major disconnect between upper management and the rest of the staff.” and “. . . I feel the necessity to specify that at the department chair and program manager positions, the leadership is great, but the leadership above that is questionable.” An additional comment added an element as to why this dissatisfaction might be felt, “My boss is great and the exact opposite of what I feel executive management is based on emails and things handed down that I feel demoralizing.”

Summary

The findings for this research have been reported in this chapter. A total of 838 faculty members were invited to complete the faculty job satisfaction survey. A total of 385 faculty took the survey. Of those 385, 31 responses were incomplete and did not include a response for the qualifying question about working full-time or part-time as a university faculty member. Thus, 354 completed survey responses were used in the data analysis. These responses equated to a 42% response rate which exceeded the minimum (15-25%) established by the researcher’s committee for the study.

The first research question sought to identify what differences, if any, would be found between academic disciplines on the measure of satisfaction with the Job in General. It was found that respondents from Academic Discipline F had the overall highest job satisfaction score ($M = 43.64$, $SD = 12.36$) and respondents from Academic

Discipline C had the lowest ($M = 39.5$, $SD = 14.98$). The range of mean scores for overall job satisfaction was 4.14.

The second research question called for identification of individual facet scores for different aspects of the job: the work itself, salary, opportunities for advancement, administration, and collegial relationships. Highest scores were found in the work itself ($M = 36.22$, $SD = 14.41$), administration ($M = 41.77$, $SD = 13.45$), and collegial relationships ($M = 45.68$, $SD = 10.76$) facets. Lowest scores were found in the Salary ($M = 23.51$, $SD = 17.66$) and advancement ($M = 12.5$, $SD = 15.16$) facets.

Additional analyses were conducted with regard to the following: demographics of faculty position, race, gender, and age relative to overall job satisfaction; effects of faculty position on satisfaction with salary and advancement; effects of mode of teaching on the facets of job satisfaction and overall Job in General satisfaction. Lastly, mode, frequency, and percentage statistics for facet scores and Job in General scores were presented.

In Chapter 5, the researcher examines and discusses the results of this research and compares results to those national norm scores collected for the JDI and JIG from Bowling Green State University. Recommendations are given, research limitations are addressed, and areas for future research are identified.

CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Introduction

In this chapter the researcher examines and discusses the results of this research and compares results to those national norm scores collected for the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) and Job in General (JIG) from Bowling Green State University. Overall observations and implications are discussed as a result of findings from the data collected. Recommendations are given at both a global and institutional level. Lastly, study limitations are addressed and recommendations for future research are presented.

Conceptual Framework of Faculty Job Satisfaction

A Comparison of Research Results vs. JDI Norms

This researcher gathered data from full-time faculty at a for-profit institution and sought to appreciate those results through the lens of the following mediators: the work itself, advancement, salary, gender, ethnicity, academic discipline, collegial relationships, and administration.

The mean score for survey respondents on the work itself was 36.22 and fell below the 50th percentile of JDI norms (Gillespie et al., 2016) for the following organization types: government (40), for-profit (40), non-profit (44) and self-employed (47). The mean score for advancement, 12.50, exceeded the 50th percentile norms for government (10), for-profit (11) and non-profit (12) but were below those in self-employed (23). The mean score for salary, 23.51, fell below the 50th percentile norms for all categories: government (25), for-profit (31), non-profit (26) and self-employed (34).

The second group of mediators were the demographic variables and included gender, ethnicity, and academic discipline. A measure of the mean Job in General scores for gender and ethnicity can be compared, on a limited basis, to the JDI norms. However, because the JDI norms do not consider an academic discipline categorization, there was no way to make a comparison. The mean scores for both males (41.58) and females (42.8) were slightly higher than the 50th percentile JDI norms for males (41) and females (42). With regard to ethnicity, the mean scores for Caucasians were almost identical to the JDI norms, 41.55 and 42, respectively. Mean scores for African-Americans (45.07) were higher than JDI norms (40). The only other ethnicity category provided by the JDI norms is “other” and therefore does not provide an opportunity for meaningful comparison.

The last group of mediators considered was environmental conditions and included collegial relationships and administration. The Job in General mean scores were used in comparison to the JDI norms. For collegial relationships, the mean score of 45.68 exceeded the JDI 50th percentile norm score for the organizations of government (36), for-profit (37) and non-profit (40) and was equal to that of the self-employed (45). Administration mean scores (41.77) were found to be higher across all organization types: government (33), for-profit (35), non-profit (38) and self-employed (40).

Conclusions

Based on the review of the data collected there are two conclusions that can be drawn regarding job satisfaction of full-time faculty members at this for-profit university. Full-time faculty at this for-profit university were found to be experiencing greater satisfaction levels with both their co-workers and supervisors than were the majority of workers at other organizations. Based on the JDI and JIG norm scale scores for satisfaction with co-workers, the faculty surveyed for this research would fall in the 73rd percentile among government workers, 75th percentile among for-profit workers, and 66th percentile among non-profit workers. Additionally, based on the JDI and JIG norm scale scores for satisfaction with supervision, the faculty surveyed for this research would fall in the 66th percentile among government workers, 65th percentile among for-profit workers, 57th percentile among non-profit workers and 55th percentile among self-employed workers.

Implications

Given the conclusions drawn from this research, the implications are that the full-time faculty experience at a for-profit university could provide insight into improving job satisfaction levels for faculty at other types of universities. Researchers have identified that there are differences between for-profit universities and not for-profit universities (Schilling, 2013). These differences range from faculty involvement in decision making to tenure and even to academic freedom. These institutional differences certainly have the ability to affect the faculty work experience and job satisfaction. Kinser (2006) identified the need for more research that included institutions from this sector. This

research identified the job satisfaction areas of both supervision and co-workers that were found to be higher than the reported norms across all other organization types. The implication then would be that there are institutional processes or cultures that are affording these faculty members the opportunity to experience greater than average satisfaction in these areas.

Recommendations

As a result of the survey findings, there are national and institutional recommendations that can be offered. In addition to this, study limitations are addressed, and recommendations for future research are presented.

National

From a national perspective, there appears to be much that can be learned from the for-profit sector with regard to the faculty experience and job satisfaction. This research identified two areas of job satisfaction that were exceptional in nature and should be explored further. If research on the faculty experience at for-profit institutions shows a marked difference from that of the faculty experience at not-for-profit institutions, there must be a climate of cross communication and openness between these two types of institutions in an effort to understand why the differences are occurring. As Schuster and Wheeler (1990) stated, “No industry is as dependent on its human capital for excellence as is higher education.” Every effort should be made to ensure that leaders, consistently and across institutions, are exploring faculty job satisfaction and taking steps to both understand and improve job experiences relative to job satisfaction.

Institution

Recommendations for the institution fall primarily in the area of supervision. The supervision facet scores were among the highest of all the job satisfaction scores and were also found to be higher than reported norm scores from all organization types. Yet when the researcher explored the open-ended questions, a theme was found regarding administration/supervision beyond the direct supervisor level. The theme found was one of dissatisfaction with, mistrust of, and lack of confidence in administration beyond the direct supervisor level. It is the researcher's recommendation that this be explored further by the institution in order to understand and correct the issue. The fact that such a discrepancy of faculty satisfaction between levels of management exists can only hurt the institution. If faculty are to fully embrace, trust, and support the vision, policies and curricular decisions made at the upper management level, they must have a positive view of said management. A thorough investigation into what is causing the rift would be in the best interests of all parties involved: the institution, the faculty, and the students.

Study Limitations and Future Research

As the goal of this research was to gather and report baseline results regarding faculty job satisfaction of a specific population, further research initiative should be focused on understanding these results. One of the limitations of this study was that the researcher did not seek to make those connections and therefore cannot offer verifiable identification as to why the supervision and co-worker scores were higher than reported norms. Future research that explores the "whys" of score attainment can then suggest policies, procedures, and improvements that can reliably improve the faculty experience.

For example, with regard to supervision, what are the day to day interactions between faculty and direct supervisors? Do these account for higher than normal supervision scores? Additionally, a mixed method approach might yield more direct insight in these areas. The open-ended question on the survey for this research provided insight to areas that the survey did not query. Conducting further research utilizing both quantitative and qualitative approaches could yield the most insightful findings while expanding the understanding of baseline job satisfaction scores.

An additional limitation of the research was that the heading of “collegial relationships” can be likened to the “co-worker” job satisfaction facet scores. As identified in previous research, for-profit faculty do not have tenure experiences similar to those at non-profit institutions (Lechuga, 2008). As a result of this, the concept of “collegial relationships” would not be the same experience as the interactions with “people on your present job” and thus should not be directly compared to research on collegial relationships. Having said this, Tierney (2006) did call for deeper understanding of how faculty form attachments to their institutions. One such way to form an attachment can come through the socialization process (Tierney, 1994) of faculty which includes faculty interactions with one another. To that end, it is relevant to look at satisfaction with people or co-workers on the present job as it relates to overall job satisfaction, but it would be beneficial to more fully understand the quality and types of interactions that occur. Future researchers should aspire to present a comprehensive picture of faculty socialization for full-time faculty members at for-profit institutions.

Summary

The goal of this dissertation was to explore job satisfaction of full-time faculty members at a for-profit university. Levels of overall job satisfaction among university faculty and levels of job satisfaction relative to different facets of the job were established. This dissertation served to fill a gap in the literature regarding for-profit full-time faculty and job satisfaction. Findings from this research were aligned with previous findings that lower ordered needs, such as salary, only become job satisfaction issues when higher order needs, such as collegiality, are not being met (Eagans et al., 2015) and that collegiality can serve as social/emotional support factors that promote faculty job satisfaction (Lindholm, 2001; Norman et al., 2006). An additional finding, in line with the prior research of Gappa et al., 2005, was that this faculty population was also being asked to do more in their faculty roles than they were at the time of their initial hiring. The most important finding in this study is in regard to faculty job satisfaction facet levels of supervision and co-workers. The fact that these facet levels were the highest scored, and were also higher than JDI scale levels, would suggest that these are areas worthy of additional investigation.

APPENDIX A
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APPENDIX B
ABRIDGED JOB DESCRIPTIVE INDEX (JDI) CORRELATIONS

Table 2

Abridged Job Descriptive Index (JDI) Items With Corrected Item-Total Correlations From Study 1 and Study 2

JDI Facet Scale	Item Content	Corrected Item-Total Correlations	
		Study 1	Study 2
Work	1. Gives sense of accomplishment	.70	.63
Work	2. Dull	.69	.71
Work	3. Satisfying	.65	.69
Work	4. Uninteresting	.69	.61
Work	5. Challenging	.64	.58
Pay	1. Fair	.49	.66
Pay	2. Underpaid	.67	.68
Pay	3. Income adequate for normal expenses	.53	.42
Pay	4. Well paid	.63	.48
Pay	5. Insecure	.33	.34
Promotion	1. Good chance for promotion	.72	.72
Promotion	2. Dead-end job	.59	.61
Promotion	3. Promotion on ability	.63	.64
Promotion	4. Good opportunities for promotion	.68	.71
Promotion	5. Unfair promotion policy	.40	.37
Supervision	1. Praises good work	.57	.55
Supervision	2. Annoying	.58	.64
Supervision	3. Tactful	.59	.65
Supervision	4. Bad	.61	.74
Supervision	5. Up to date	.52	.55
Coworkers	1. Helpful	.62	.59
Coworkers	2. Boring	.55	.46
Coworkers	3. Intelligent	.65	.51
Coworkers	4. Lazy	.58	.49
Coworkers	5. Responsible	.65	.62

Note. JDI items © 1997, Bowling Green State University. Please contact first author for permission to use these scales.

APPENDIX C

DATA SET CHARACTERISTICS

TABLE 1
Characteristics of Data Sets Used in the Analysis

Author (Date)	Subjects	Construct(s) of Interest	Measurement Method
Dunham, Smith & Blackburn (1977)	622 Supervisors	Job Satisfaction (JDI, MSQ, IOR, FACES)	Likert Scale (5 pt.) Modified Likert Scale (Yes, ?, No)
Evans (1969) Data Set 1	311 Public Utility Workers	Job Satisfaction (JDI) Goal Attainment (Self-Developed)	Likert Scale (7 pt.) Modified Likert Scale (Yes, ?, No)
Data Set 2 Futrell (1979)	88 Nurses 209 Salespeople	Job Satisfaction (JDI) Job Performance (INDSALES)	Likert Scale (5 pt.) Modified Likert Scale (Yes, ?, No)
Gillet & Schwab (1975)	273 Production Employees	Job Satisfaction (JDI, MSQ)	Likert Scale (5 pt.) Modified Likert Scale (Yes, ?, No)
Johnson, Smith & Tucker (1982)	100 Students	Job Satisfaction (JDI)	Likert Scale (5 pt.) Modified Likert Scale (Yes, ?, No)
Lefkowitz & Brigando (1980)	268 Customer Engineers	Job Satisfaction (JDI) Job Alienation (Self-Developed)	Likert Scale (5 pt.) Modified Likert Scale (Yes, ?, No)
Locke, Smith, Kendall, Hulin & Miller (1964) Data Set 1	81 Farmers' Cooperative Employees	Job Satisfaction (JDI)	FACES, Graphic Triad, Graphic Direct, Boxes
Data Set 2	52 Chemical Company Employees		
McCabe, Dalessio, Briga, & Sasaki (1980) Data Set 1	82 Bilingual Workers	Job Satisfaction (JDI, ROI)	Likert Scale (5 pt.) Modified Likert Scale (Yes, ?, No)
Data Set 2	82 Bilingual Workers		
Soutar & Weaver	242 Production Workers	Job Satisfaction (JDI, IOR)	Likert Scale (5 pt.) Modified Likert Scale (Yes, ?, No)
Spector (1985)	102 Human Services Workers	Job Satisfaction (JDI, Job Satisfaction Survey)	Likert Scale (7 pt.) Modified Likert Scale (Yes, ?, No)

APPENDIX D
RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF INSTRUMENTATION

Appendix: Reliability and Validity of the JDI and JIG

Cronbach's coefficient alpha measures how strongly each of the items in the JDI facet scales and the JIG are related to the other items on their respective scales. Hence, it is often used as a measure of the degree to which the items all measure the same underlying construct. Generally scales with Cronbach's coefficient alpha of .80 or higher are considered to have high levels of reliability, in that the items consistently measure the same underlying construct.

Correlations among the JDI facets and the JIG are included to demonstrate that each JDI facet and the JIG measure a distinct aspect of job satisfaction. Note that no facet of the JDI correlates above .50 with any other facet. Also note that the JIG is most highly correlated with the Work facet of the JDI and that this correlation is well below .80. These statistics suggest that the JDI facets are distinct from each other and from the JIG.

Correlations among the JDI facets*

JDI Facets	Cronbach's coefficient alpha	Work	Pay	Promotion	Supervision	CoWorkers	JIG
Work	.90	1.00					
Pay	.88	0.34	1.00				
Promotion	.91	0.37	0.31	1.00			
Supervision	.92	0.42	0.31	0.41	1.00		
Co-Workers	.92	0.47	0.31	0.26	0.47	1.00	
Job in General	.92	0.69	0.45	0.42	0.58	0.54	1.00

* All correlations are significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Pearson correlations with selected outcome measures are included below. Note that the JIG is the best predictor of intent to quit (for more information on the intent to quit scale see the JDI website). Correlations with feelings of job stress as measured by the Stress in General® (SIG) scale are also included (for more information on the SIG scale see the JDI website). Finally, correlations with a single item measure of overall job satisfaction are included. The single item measure reads, "Considering everything, how would you rate your overall satisfaction with your job?" and was evaluated on a scale from 1 (Very dissatisfied) to 5 (Very satisfied).

Validity Coefficients (Pearson Correlations)*

JDI Facets	Intent to Quit	Feelings of Job Stress	Single Item Measure of Overall Job Satisfaction
Work	-0.45	-0.07	0.63
Pay	-0.36	-0.18	0.42
Promotion	-0.36	-0.10	0.42
Supervision	-0.42	-0.33	0.49
CoWorkers	-0.33	-0.28	0.44
Job in General	-0.61	-0.30	0.79

* All correlations are significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

APPENDIX E
JDI IN SURVEY MONKEY

Job Descriptive Index

Welcome!

This survey is being distributed to gain a better understanding of your overall satisfaction with your job and different facets of your job. The results will be used to identify areas where the university might be able to create a more satisfying experience for you as faculty members at this school. It is genuinely appreciated that you are taking the 5-7 minutes necessary to complete this survey. We truly want to embody one of the university's guiding principles "Learn and Grow Always" and your survey responses are helping to achieve that goal.

1. Which department are you a faculty member with?

- ☐ Liberal Studies and Creative Writing
- ☐ Development and Programming
- ☐ Audio Arts
- ☐ Film and Video
- ☐ Digital Arts
- ☐ Business and Media
- ☐ Other (please specify)

2. What is your faculty position?

- ☐ Lab Specialist
- ☐ Associate Course Director
- ☐ Course Director
- ☐ Department Chair
- ☐ Other (please specify)

3. Race or Origin

- ☐ White
- ☐ Hispanic, Latino or Spanish Origin
- ☐ Black or African American
- ☐ American Indian or Alaska Native
- ☐ Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander
- ☐ Other (please specify)

4. Gender

- ☐ Female
- ☐ Male
- ☐ Transgender
- ☐ Other (please specify)

5. Age

- ☐ 18-25
- ☐ 26-35
- ☐ 36-45
- ☐ 46-55
- ☐ 56+

1 / 9  11%

Next

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Job Descriptive Index

Work on Present Job

Think of the work you do at present. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe your work? Answer "Yes" if it describes your work, "No" if it does not describe it, and "?" if you cannot decide.

6. Fascinating

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

7. Routine

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

8. Satisfying

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

9. Boring

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

10. Good

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

11. Gives sense of accomplishment

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

12. Respected

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

13. Exciting

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

14. Rewarding

14. Rewarding

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

15. Useful

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

16. Challenging

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

17. Simple

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

18. Repetitive

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

19. Creative

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

20. Dull

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

21. Uninteresting

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

22. Can see my results

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

23. Uses my abilities

- ☐ Yes

Pay

Think of the pay you get now. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe your present pay? Answer "Yes" if it describes your pay, "No" if it does not describe it, and "?" if you cannot decide.

24. Income adequate for normal expenses

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

25. Fair

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

26. Barely live on income

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

27. Bad

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

28. Comfortable

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

29. Less than I deserve

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

30. Well paid

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

31. Enough to live on

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

32. Underpaid

- ☐ Yes

Opportunities for Promotion

Think of the opportunities for promotion that you have now. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe these? Answer "Yes" if it describes your opportunities for promotion, "No" if it does not describe them, and "?" if you cannot decide.

33. Good opportunities for promotion

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

34. Opportunities somewhat limited

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

35. Promotion on ability

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

36. Dead-end job

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

37. Good chance for promotion

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

38. Very limited

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

39. Infrequent promotions

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

40. Regular promotions

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

41. Fairly good chance for promotion

Job Descriptive Index

Supervision

Think of the kind of supervision that you get on your job. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe this? Answer "Yes" if it describes the supervision you get on your job, "No" if it does not describe it, and "?" if you cannot decide.

42. Supportive

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

43. Hard to please

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

44. Impolite

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

45. Praises good work

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

46. Tactful

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

47. Influential

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

48. Up-to-date

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

49. Unkind

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

50. Has favorites

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

51. Tells me where I stand

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

52. Annoying

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

53. Stubborn

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

54. Knows job well

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

55. Bad

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

56. Intelligent

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

57. Poor planner

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

58. Around when needed

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

59. Lazy

- ☐ Yes

Job Descriptive Index

People on Your Present Job

Think of the majority of people with whom you work or meet in connection with your work. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe these people? Answer "Yes" if it describes the people with whom you work, "No" if it does not describe them, and "?" if you cannot decide.

60. Stimulating

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

61. Boring

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

62. Slow

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

63. Helpful

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

64. Stupid

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

65. Responsible

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

66. Likeable

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

67. Intelligent

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ -

68. Easy to make enemies

☐ Yes

☐ No

☐ ?

69. Rude

☐ Yes

☐ No

☐ ?

70. Smart

☐ Yes

☐ No

☐ ?

71. Lazy

☐ Yes

☐ No

☐ ?

72. Unpleasant

☐ Yes

☐ No

☐ ?

73. Supportive

☐ Yes

☐ No

☐ ?

74. Active

☐ Yes

☐ No

☐ ?

75. Narrow interests

☐ Yes

☐ No

☐ ?

76. Frustrating

☐ Yes

☐ No

☐ ?

77. Stubborn

☐ Yes

☐

Job Descriptive Index

Job in General

Think of your job in general. All in all, what is it like most of the time? Answer "Yes" if it describes your job, "No" if it does not describe it, and "?" if you cannot decide.

78. Pleasant

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

79. Bad

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

80. Great

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

81. Waste of time

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

82. Good

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

83. Undesirable

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

84. Worthwhile

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

85. Worse than most

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

86. Acceptable

- ☐ Yes

87. Superior

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

88. Better than most

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

89. Disagreeable

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

90. Makes me content

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

91. Inadequate

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

92. Excellent

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

93. Rotten


- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

94. Enjoyable

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

95. Poor

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ ?

7 / 9  78%

Job Descriptive Index

Faculty Status

96. I work

- ☐ Full-time
- ☐ Part-time
- ☐ Other (please specify)

97. At the time this survey was completed, I was teaching

- ☐ Online
- ☐ On campus
- ☐ Both
- ☐ Other (please specify)

8 / 9  89%

Prev

Next

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Job Descriptive Index

Concluding Thoughts

Thank you for taking the time to complete this survey. Should you have any questions about this survey or the results please feel free to contact me, Joanna Leck, directly at jleck@fullsail.com or at 407-679-0100 ext 2452. This survey is anonymous and if you choose to contact me directly I will keep all communication strictly confidential. Should you desire to add any information related to job satisfaction that was not covered by the survey you can do so below. Again, thank you for participating in this survey.

98. Please feel free to add anything you feel is relevant to this survey as it relates to your job satisfaction.

9 / 9  100%

Prev

Done

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APPENDIX F
DILLMAN'S PRINCIPLES FOR ACHIEVING HIGH SURVEY RESPONSE RATES

1. Approximately four weeks after this proposal is approved by the dissertation committee and the offices of the IRB, a pre-notice will be sent to each contact name to describe the research project.
2. Approximately one week after the pre-notice email is sent, a link to the online instrument with a cover letter will be emailed to the contact list.
3. Approximately one week after the cover letter is sent and the link mailed, a brief follow-up email will be sent.
4. Approximately one week after #3 above, another email will be sent to participants.
5. A final reminder will be given, one week after #4 above.

APPENDIX G
APPROVAL TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

University of Central Florida, IRB
Letter of Permission

Date: 2/24/16

[REDACTED] understands that Joanna Leck, a student at the University of Central Florida, will be conducting research with [REDACTED] full-time faculty. The university understands that this will be a survey to analyze faculty job satisfaction levels. The survey that will be used is the Job Descriptive Index and Job in General Scale. Data will be collected via Survey Monkey and the survey link will be sent to all full-time faculty members at the university. Joanna Leck has permission to collect survey responses and analyze the data. [REDACTED] does not have an IRB board and this letter is granting Joanna Leck permission to conduct her research regarding job satisfaction with full-time faculty. [REDACTED] [REDACTED] understands that data collected will be used to assist with understanding what faculty levels of job satisfaction are at the university. We look forward to assisting Joanna Leck with this significant study.



University of Central Florida Institutional Review Board
Office of Research & Commercialization
12201 Research Parkway, Suite 501
Orlando, Florida 32826-3246
Telephone: 407-823-2901 or 407-882-2276
www.research.ucf.edu/compliance/irb.html

Approval of Exempt Human Research

From: **UCF Institutional Review Board #1**
FWA00000351, IRB00001138

To: **Joanna M. Leck**

Date: **July 15, 2016**

Dear Researcher:

On 07/15/2016, the IRB approved the following activity as human participant research that is exempt from regulation:

Type of Review:	Exempt Determination
Project Title:	Job satisfaction of full-time faculty members at a for-profit university
Investigator:	Joanna M Leck
IRB Number:	SBE-16-12384
Funding Agency:	
Grant Title:	
Research ID:	n/a

This determination applies only to the activities described in the IRB submission and does not apply should any changes be made. If changes are made and there are questions about whether these changes affect the exempt status of the human research, please contact the IRB. When you have completed your research, please submit a Study Closure request in iRIS so that IRB records will be accurate.

In the conduct of this research, you are responsible to follow the requirements of the [Investigator Manual](#).

On behalf of Sophia Dziegielewski, Ph.D., L.C.S.W., UCF IRB Chair, this letter is signed by:

A handwritten signature in black ink that reads "Joanne Muratori".

Signature applied by Joanne Muratori on 07/15/2016 02:54:51 PM EDT

IRB Manager

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