

THE INTERRELATIONSHIP AMONG JOB SATISFACTION/DISSATISFACTION
OF STUDENT AFFAIRS PROFESSIONALS AND SELECTED
DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

By

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of the requirements for the degree of

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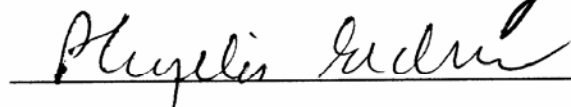
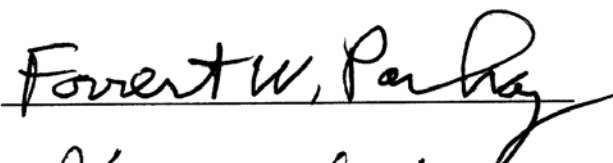
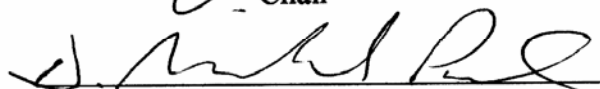
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To the Faculty of Washington State University:

The members of the Committee appointed to examine the dissertation of
JENNIFER L. COOK find it satisfactory and recommend that it be accepted.



Chair



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DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

Abstract

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Chair: Willie J. Heggins, III

This study explored demographic variables that correlate to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction among student affairs professionals in residence life, student activities, and Greek life. Emphasis was placed on understanding the interrelationship between job satisfaction/dissatisfaction and selected demographic variables as identified by Blank (1993) and Bailey (1997). The selected demographic variables examined in this study included the following: gender; age; ethnic background; marital status; highest degree completed; salary; years of post-baccalaureate student affairs experience; current functional area; years of experience in current functional area; and years in current position.

This study utilized a mixed-methods approach that explored the nature of correlations between job satisfaction and dissatisfaction variables as identified in Herzberg's Dual Factor Theory. Bailey's (1997) adaptation of Blank's (1993) survey instrument was distributed to directors of residence life, student activities, and Greek life departments at four-year land grant universities. The instrument is comprised of three

parts: open-ended questions, a Likert-type scale for rating factors of satisfaction and dissatisfaction, and demographic variables.

This study concluded that there is no significant correlation between the job satisfaction/dissatisfaction factors and the demographic variables of marital status or years of experience in their current position. Other variables including age, post-baccalaureate experience in student affairs, and professional experience in current functional area were significantly correlated to select factors of job satisfaction/dissatisfaction.

The demographic variables of gender, ethnic background, highest degree completed, annual salary, and current functional area were significantly correlated to select job satisfaction/dissatisfaction factors. Statistically significant between-group differences were found for the following correlations: gender as it correlated with job security; ethnic background as it correlated with recognition; highest degree completed as it correlated with achievement and interpersonal relationships with peers; annual salary range as it correlated with achievement and salary; and current functional area as it correlated with achievement, interpersonal relationships with subordinates, status and the work itself.

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And to God who is my Abba, Jesus Christ who is my Savior and friend, and the Holy Spirit who leads in my heart; this is meaningless without You. With You, everything is possible. May all praise be Yours; I am just a pencil.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This study sought to uncover the relationship between demographic variables and job satisfaction and dissatisfaction among student affairs directors in residence life, student activities, and Greek life. A small number of studies have explored job satisfaction and dissatisfaction among student affairs professionals (e.g., Bailey, 1997; Bender, 1980; Blank, 1993; Burns, 1982; Evans, 1988; Jackson, 2003; Lawing, Moore, & Groseth, 1983; Tarver, Canada & Lim, 1999). These studies limited the exploration of the relationship of demographics to factors related to satisfaction and dissatisfaction to merely collecting demographic data to provide a basic description of the participants.

Student affairs administration within the university system began in the 1800s when LeBaron Briggs of Harvard University stepped out of the ranks of faculty and was appointed as an administrator of student concerns (Lamadrid, 1999). Student affairs grew from the ground up rather than being developed from a theorized notion of student needs (American College Personnel Association, 1997). The grassroots nature of student affairs creates a constant state of change within the field. These changes address the evolving nature of the student population as well as the subsequent programmatic efforts to meet those changing needs (American College Personnel Association, 1994). Programming in student affairs extends beyond social functions for students. Professionals develop long-term approaches to providing students with enriching opportunities to build community, which assists students in academic success and increases overall retention and graduation rates (Cheng, 2004). Employees in residence life, student activities, and Greek life serve on the front lines in student affairs of these

programmatic initiatives to address students' extracurricular needs (Hirt, Amalink, & Schneider, 2004). Change serves as a common factor related to dissatisfaction among employees regarding their work (Tarver et al., 1999). Subsequently, job dissatisfaction often leads to employee discord, decreased productivity, and decisions to leave an organization entirely (Davis, 2003; Hybels, 2003; Kouzes & Posner, 1995).

For more than 25 years, student affairs has been concerned with the high rate of attrition from the field of student affairs (e.g., Bender, 1980; Burns, 1982; Evans, 1988; Hancock, 1988; Jackson, 2003; Lorden, 1998; Richmond & Sherman, 1991). "Position change and turnover in the student affairs profession continues to be much higher" when compared to other higher education units (Rosser & Javinar, 2003, p. 825). The statistics associated with student affairs attrition are astounding. Based on previous research, Richmond and Sherman (1991) found that one year after graduating from a graduate program in student affairs, 60% of graduates anticipated leaving the field; three years after graduation, the numbers rose to 65% intending to migrate out of student affairs. In an earlier study, Evans (1988) found that only 36% of graduates from a student affairs graduate degree program planned on working in student affairs, while 64% were either undecided or had intention to leave the field entirely.

Midlevel administrators (i.e., directors and unit heads) must deal with the fallout of continual attrition in student affairs, including recruiting and training replacements. Directors, as midlevel student affairs administrators in student affairs divisions, serve as the connection between the executive university administration and the ever-changing entry-level student affairs administrator (Rosser & Javinar, 2003). Midlevel administrators "can significantly affect the tone, manner, and style of the entire

institution” (Johnsrud & Rosser, 1999, p. 121). Additionally, “despite their goal commitment, loyalty, dedication, and high turnover rates, there is little national research that examines the professional and institutional work life issues that may have an impact on student affairs leaders’ job satisfaction” (Rosser & Javinar, 2003, p. 813).

Disturbingly, those midlevel student affairs administrators with the most organizational commitment also reported the lowest level of job satisfaction (Rosser & Javinar, 2003).

As a result of the continual problem of attrition in student affairs, there have been several calls for research to explore factors related to job satisfaction among student affairs professionals (e.g., Avery, 2001; Berwick, 1992; Evans, 1988; Holmes, 1983; Lorden, 1998; Ward, 1995). However, since Bender’s (1980) study on job satisfaction among student affairs professionals, there have been very few research studies published specifically examining these issues. Blackhurst (2000a; 2000b) explored career satisfaction among women student affairs professionals in two very specific circumstances. The first (Blackhurst, 2000a) addressed career satisfaction as it related to perceived sex discrimination. In this study, Blackhurst found that perceived sex discrimination was not a factor in women student affairs professionals’ level of career satisfaction. Blackhurst’s second study (2000b) hypothesized that mentoring would increase career satisfaction among women student affairs administrators. Blackhurst’s (2000b) findings did not support this hypothesis. More recently, Rosser and Javinar (2003) also examined student affairs professionals’ perceptions of their work lives, finding that these perceptions held implications for professionals’ job satisfaction, morale, and intent to leave.

There is a repeated call to research the factors relating to job satisfaction among student affairs professionals, as previously addressed, however, there are limited studies to answer this call. Additionally, very few studies have delineated the sample of participants based on the programmatic or administrative function of their specific department within the division (e.g., Berwick, 1992; Brower, Golde, & Allen, 2003). The departments that serve a front-line programmatic function within student affairs divisions are residence life, student activities, and Greek life. These departments incorporate the whole of campus resources and deliver them in a long-term, strategic way to the students with whom they work (Schuh et al., 2001). These departments often experience the highest turnover rate due to the non-traditional hours and high stress involved in the work (Lorden, 1998; Richmond & Sherman 1991; Rosser & Javinar, 2003; Ward, 1995). Examples of primarily administrative offices include student advising, career services, and financial aid (Schuh et al., 2001). Professionals in these departments do not experience the high rate of burnout and attrition like the programmatic departments (Lawing, et al., 1983).

Research Question

There are limited studies that explore the specific demographic factors related to student affairs job satisfaction (Blackhurst, 2000a, 2000b; Blackhurst, Brandt, & Kalinowski, 1998; Jackson, 2003). Studies that explore job satisfaction of student affairs professionals have focused on the level of satisfaction/dissatisfaction without exploring the variables that may contribute to satisfaction/dissatisfaction (Arnold, 1983; Avery, 2001; Bender, 1980; Berwick, 1992; Burns, 1982; Cutler, 2003; Hancock, 1988; Johnsrud & Rosser, 1999; Lorden, 1998; Rosser & Javinar, 2003; Tarver, Canada, & Lim, 1999;

Ward, 1995). These studies also did not explore the individual factors that contribute to job satisfaction/dissatisfaction.

There is a need to advance the literature exploring among student affairs professionals and the possible contributors to their satisfaction/dissatisfaction. This study sought to examine the interrelationship between select demographic variables and factors of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction as identified in Herzberg's Dual Factor Theory.

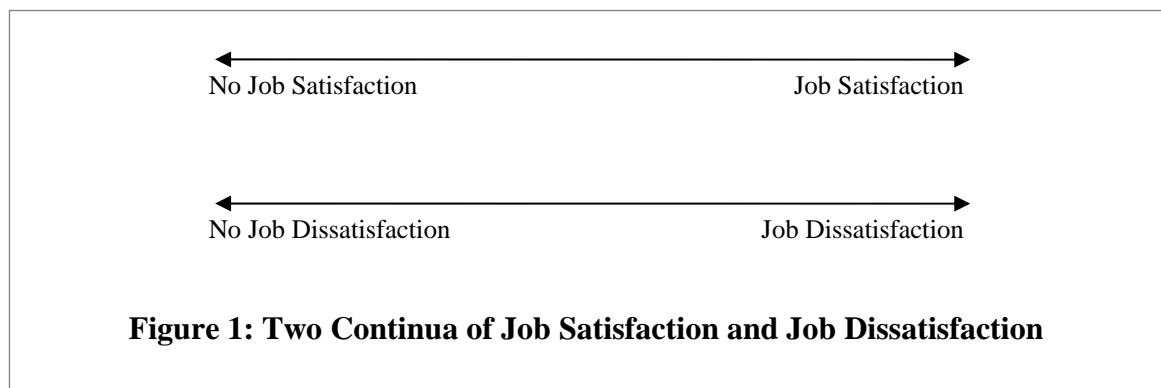
This study explored demographic variables as they correlate to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction among student affairs professionals in residence life, student activities, and Greek life. Emphasis was placed on understanding the interrelationship between job satisfaction/dissatisfaction and selected demographic variables as identified by Blank (1993) and Bailey (1997). The selected demographic variables examined in this study included the following: gender; age; ethnic background; marital status; highest degree completed; salary; years of post-baccalaureate student affairs experience; current functional area; years of experience in current functional area; and years in current position.

Theoretical Framework

Herzberg's dual factor theory resulted from research conducted by Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) which sought to determine the factors associated with job satisfaction and dissatisfaction across a number of disciplines and hierarchical organizational positions. Herzberg, et al., (1959) found through qualitative research methods, that when participants spoke of incidents that contributed to job satisfaction, the factors they listed as critical to feeling that sense of satisfaction were separate and distinct from those factors which the participants associated with incidents contributing to job

dissatisfaction. These findings were fairly consistent across the 1,685 participants within the study. Where traditional job satisfaction research plotted job satisfaction on one continuum, describing job satisfaction as the opposite of job dissatisfaction, Herzberg's research proposed two continua on which to gauge overall job satisfaction.

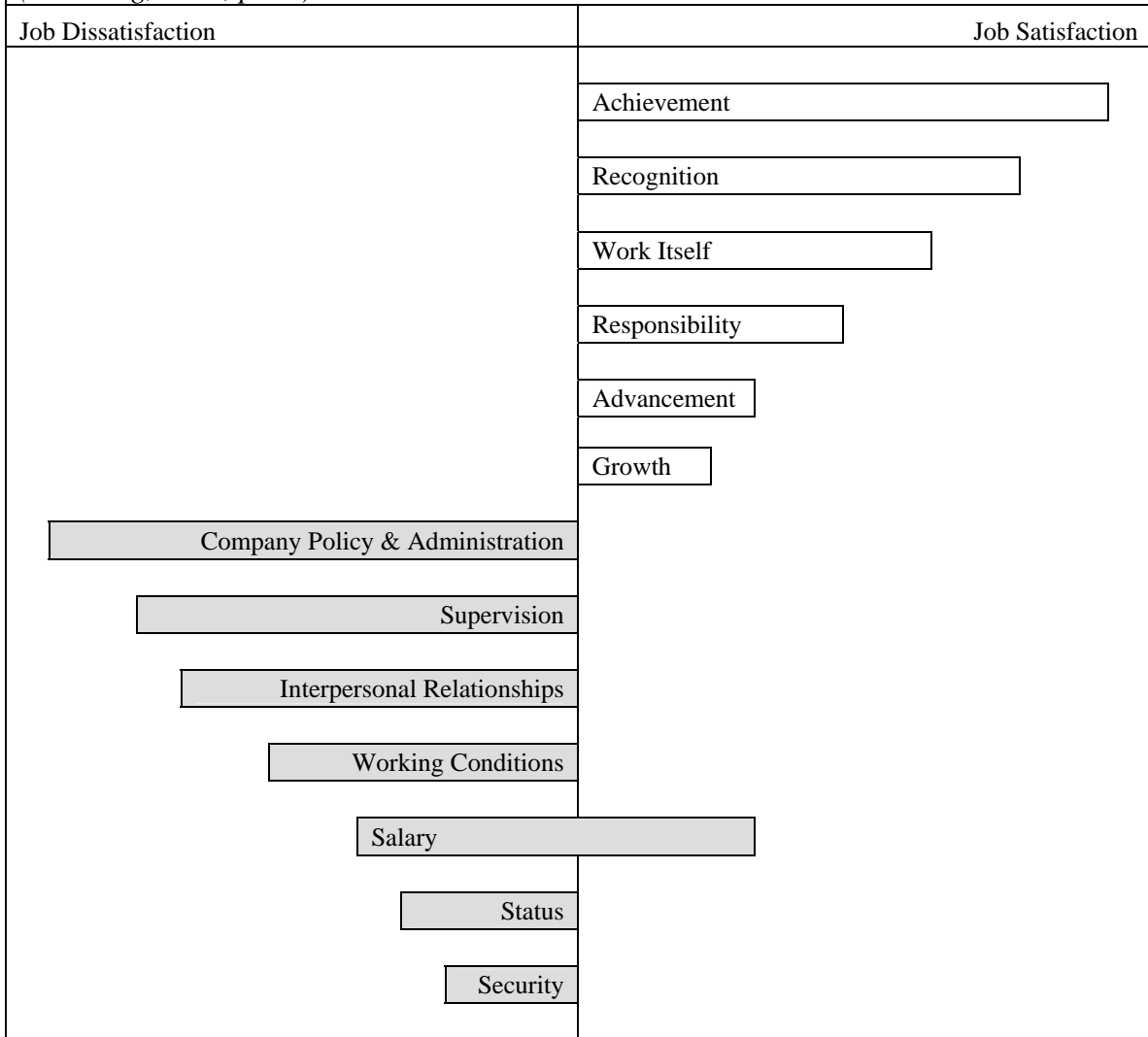
The researchers described the distinction by discussing how a starving artist may be very satisfied with his/her work, but very dissatisfied with the system he/she must follow in order to have his/her work seen. A one continuum approach would place his/her satisfaction level at fifty percent, but it would miss the distinction of his/her true satisfaction. A satisfaction level of fifty percent on one continuum would indicate a moderate level of overall satisfaction, when in reality the artist is very satisfied with his/her work but very dissatisfied with the system. The artist's moderate overall satisfaction level would be seen as the same for the artist as it would for someone who was only moderately satisfied with his/her work and moderately satisfied with the system in which he/she worked. Because one continuum satisfaction scale misses the detail of one's satisfaction level, the researchers proposed that job satisfaction was the opposite of no job satisfaction and the opposite of job dissatisfaction was no job dissatisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1959) (see Figure 1).



A two continua approach (see Figure 1) would accurately describe his/her high level of satisfaction with the work and his/her low level of satisfaction with the greater organizational structure (Herzberg, et al., 1959).

Herzberg, et al. (1959) found that the factors associated with job satisfaction, which they termed as motivators, were achievement, advancement, growth, recognition, responsibility, and the work itself (see Figure 2). The researchers found that these factors, when addressed by the organization on an individual basis with employees, contributed to the employee's increased feeling of job satisfaction (Herzberg, et al., 1959). The factors associated with job dissatisfaction, termed hygiene or job context factors, were organizational policy and administration, interpersonal relations, job security, salary, status, supervision, and working conditions.

Figure 2: Herzberg's Classic Job Satisfaction/Job Dissatisfaction Profile
(Herzberg, 1976, p. 71)



The researchers found that when these factors were addressed by organizational leadership, employees' feelings of job dissatisfaction decreased, but their satisfaction level did not similarly increase (Herzberg, et al., 1959).

Support of the Dual Factor Theory

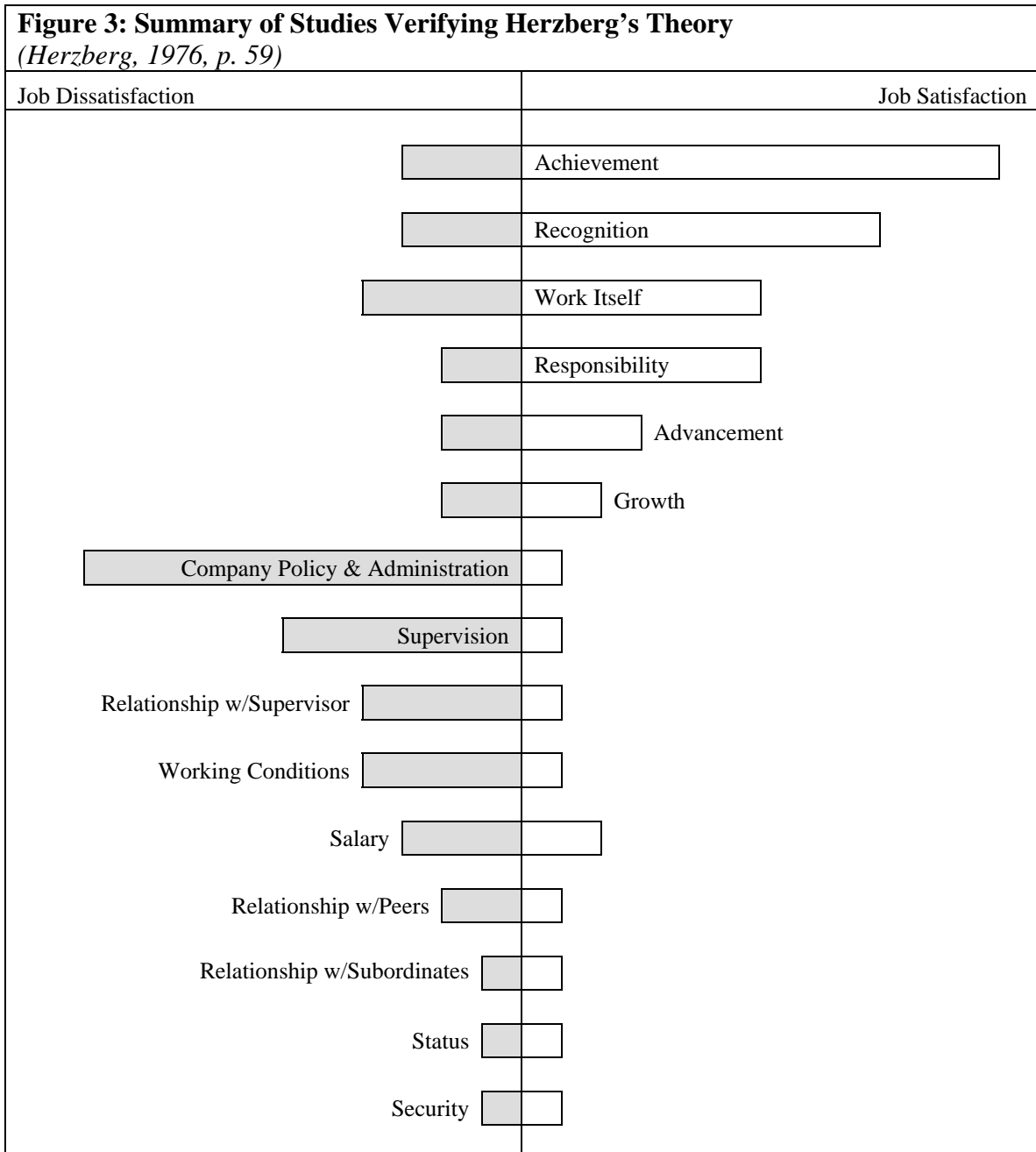
After the first publishing of the dual factor theory, Herzberg (1966) reported a significant number of researchers applied his theory to multiple populations for the purpose of determining its generalizability and validity. The types of employment in

which the theory was tested and validated included engineers, accountants, supervisors and managers, high-level professional positions, agriculture extension workers, scientists, hourly technicians, assembly line workers, nurses, skilled and unskilled hospital employees, and housekeepers (Herzberg, 1966). These studies supported Herzberg's theory that motivation factors affected job satisfaction and hygiene, or job context, factors affected job dissatisfaction (Herzberg, 1966). Some of these studies replicated Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman's (1959) methodology exactly while others used the dual factor theory to construct mixed method and quantitative studies (Herzberg, 1966). Regardless of specific methodology, the studies found the dual factor theory of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction to remain valid across disciplines. Similarly, Blank (1993) and Bailey (1997) applied the dual factor theory to student affairs and found the theory to remain true in this industry as well.

Criticisms of the Dual Factor Theory

Early criticism of the dual factor theory of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction addressed the generalizability of the theory to multiple industrial concepts (Herzberg, 1966). The study from which the dual factor theory was derived interviewed only engineers and accountants in managerial and professional roles (Herzberg, et al., 1959). The argument was made that only including those of manager and professional status in the study limited its generalizability to greater populations of employees, including clerical and hourly employees (Herzberg, 1966). However, as previously discussed, the myriad studies conducted after the publishing of the theory in 1959 explored a wide range of workers, from unskilled to skilled, in a variety of occupations, both professional and hourly work environments (Herzberg, 1966). Those follow-up studies (as summarized in

Figure 3) found the dual factor theory as applicable across all industries and hierarchical boundaries (Herzberg, 1976).



Significance of the Study

There remains a significant gap in the literature regarding the demographic variable related to work satisfaction of student affairs administrators who work within a programming-based department. This line of inquiry provides four major implications for the purposes of increasing job satisfaction among the programmatic professionals in residence life, student activities, and Greek life to in turn improve the quality of programming delivered to the students.

The first implication of this study addresses the importance of organizational culture. Midlevel administrators, serve as the connection that holds student affairs together through its alarming attrition rate among lower level professionals (Rosser & Javinar, 2003). Research suggests that these administrators report the highest organizational commitment, yet the lowest job satisfaction rate among student affairs administrators (Rosser & Javinar, 2003). Midlevel administrators serve as the constant presence in the ever-changing environment of student affairs, and as such they also serve as the person to whom professionals look in order to determine departmental and university norms (Kuh & Whitt, 1997). Allen and Cherry (2003) compare the organizational culture of student affairs to waves on a lake when a storm rolls in: “this condition of ongoing waves is like the world of practice for student affairs administrators” (p. 32).

Through turbulent times and organizational change, such as occurs throughout student affairs on an ongoing basis, it is critical that there is a center of reference around which the changes can revolve (Mills, 2000). It is often the mid-level administrator who serves this function. Further, few studies have attempted to link demographic variables

with satisfaction among these midlevel administrators (Blackhurst, Brandt, & Kalinowski, 1998; Blackhurst, 2000a, 2000b; Jackson, 2003). This study sought to determine how demographic variables relate to job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction among directors of residence life, student activities, and Greek life can help to create a more positive organizational culture.

The second implication of this study addresses the issue of shrinking finances in higher education. Higher education budgets are shrinking across the nation due to decreased state budget allocations to fund higher education, creating a situation where professionals need to accomplish more with less financial resources (Schuh et al., 2001). Improving employee job satisfaction could lead to lower turnover, thus decreasing expenses necessary to conduct a search and subsequent training for employee replacements (Freiberg & Freiberg, 1996).

A third implication for understanding employee job satisfaction among directors in residence life, student activities, and Greek life is that satisfied employees are more likely to spend more time on work, create new projects, and are more apt to complete assignments on time (Bender, 1980). When the employee is satisfied, the consumer and the greater organization reap those benefits. A satisfied employee is more invested in their job, more intent on increasing the productivity of the organization, and has a greater desire to please the consumer (Freiberg & Freiberg, 1996).

This study offers a fourth implication for the higher education community. By shedding light on the work of residence life, student activities, and Greek life and the demographic variables that contribute to job satisfaction, higher education professionals outside of student affairs may gain a greater understanding and respect for the importance

of such programmatic work (Kuh, Shedd, & Whitt, 1987). As Evans (1988) noted, recognition among peers increases role satisfaction.

Limitations

The first limitation is that the results of this study cannot be generalized to student affairs professionals outside of the areas of residence life, student activities, and Greek life, as the study only surveyed directors in these three areas. The job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction of directors in these three areas cannot necessarily be generalized to all student affairs professionals.

The second limitation of this study was due to sampling. The study surveyed specific student affairs professionals from only four-year land grant colleges and universities in the United States. Results can therefore not be generalized to professionals at other types of higher education institutions in the United States or internationally.

The third limitation of this study is with regard to categories within several demographic variables. There are several categories that have a low number of participants. For example, there was only one participant from a blended ethnic background. In such cases, results cannot be generalized to the greater population for those specific categories.

The fourth limitation is that due to the self-reported nature of descriptive data, responses are indicative of the participants' perceptions and may not accurately describe the true environment in which they work (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Self-report data are based on the respondent's perception of the situation, not necessarily what is actually occurring (Wetherell, Taylor, & Yates, 2001). However, because job satisfaction or

dissatisfaction is also a personal perception, this methodology remains appropriate (Kouzes & Posner, 1995).

Definition of Terms

Achievement: Successful or unsuccessful completion of a job; solution or non-solution of problems; seeing the results of one's own work.

Advancement: Change in status within the organization as a result of performance (i.e., promotion, lack thereof, or demotion).

Growth: Changes in the work situation such that advancement is more or less likely; increase or decrease in chances to learn.

Interpersonal relations with subordinates: Pleasant or unpleasant interactions with persons at lower levels in the organizational hierarchy.

Interpersonal relations with peers: Pleasant or unpleasant interactions with persons at the same level in the organizational hierarchy.

Interpersonal relations with students: Pleasant or unpleasant interactions with students.

Interpersonal relations with superiors: Pleasant or unpleasant interactions with superiors that may or may not be directly relevant to task accomplishment.

Job security: Clear indications of the likelihood or unlikelihood of continuous employment, such as tenure, permanent contracts, budgetary stability, assurances of continued employment.

Organizational policy and administration: Adequacy or inadequacy of university management, including clarity of communications, adequacy of resources, personnel policies, fringe benefits.

Recognition: Attention in the form of praise; personal acknowledgement by management; reward that is directly related to task accomplishment.

Responsibility: Presence or absence of autonomy in carrying out assignments; increase or decrease of authority over others; accountability for task accomplishment.

Salary: Wage and compensation factors, such as pay scales, adjustments, reimbursements.

Status: Signs, symbols, or tokens of position and prestige, such as privileges, work space size and location, work space décor, symbolic titles.

Supervision: Competence or incompetence, fairness or unfairness, and efficiency or inefficiency of superiors.

Work itself: The nature of the task to be accomplished on the job (i.e., routine or varied, interesting or dull).

Working conditions: The physical conditions of work, such as the amount of work, temperature control, ventilation, adequate equipment and supplies.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter will explore literature relevant to the study of job satisfaction among student affairs directors in the areas of residence life, Greek life, and student activities. This chapter will present the historical development of the student affairs profession, detail student affairs work including current issues for student affairs professionals, describe a pilot study conducted in the spring of 2004, and explore current literature on job satisfaction in student affairs. The chapter will conclude by describing three theories of job satisfaction, detailing the one chosen to serve as the theoretical framework for this study.

Historical Development of Student Affairs

An understanding of the student affairs profession today must begin with an understanding of the profession's development. The history of the student affairs profession begins as a history of higher education and moves on through the development of student affairs as a profession. The history of student affairs can also be described as the history of meeting student's changing needs over time.

The beginning of higher education in the United States was characterized by higher education administrators striving toward the common social, moral, and intellectual development of their students (Cohen, 1998). The mid-1600s was a period of time when *in loco parentis* was the driving theory as to how the college or university should interact with the students. Administrators took on almost a parental role in their dealings with the students with whom they interacted (Lucas, 1994).

Higher education administrators believed that a holistic approach to education was necessary in order for students to graduate with a well-rounded education (Hirt et al., 2004). As part of this approach to holistic education college and university faculty and administrators lived with students in housing complexes, ate with the students, and were very much a part of the students' lives outside the classroom prior to 1766 (Lucas, 1994). However, in 1766 the "Butter Rebellion" at Harvard University dramatically changed this mode of interaction. Students at Harvard began a food fight as an alleged protest to the rancid butter served in the cafeteria. The faculty and staff were so appalled by the students' behaviors, they began to distance themselves from the personal interactions they formerly valued with their students. As a result the faculty and administrators no longer eat and live with the students (Lucas, 1994).

This distancing of the faculty from the students was a precursor to changes to come in the higher education organizational structure. The mid-1800s marked the spread of the Germanic Influence on higher education (Ward, 2003). The Germanic form of education held high regard for research and intellectualism, simultaneously holding little regard for interaction with students outside of the classroom environment or holistic student development (Cohen, 1998; Lamadrid, 1999). This influence served to further separate faculty and administration from the extracurricular lives of students (Lucas, 1994).

The Morrill Land Grant Acts of 1862 and 1890 had a dramatic influence on higher education. Through the land grant acts, William Morrill sought to promote liberal and practical education for the industrial class (Rhatigan, 2000). The act of 1862 provided funding a state college or university in each state where agriculture and/or

mechanic arts were leading programs, without excluding other areas of study (Lucas, 1994). The act was instituted during times when financial hardships of some higher education institutions led to those institutions contemplating closing their doors for good. The funding that came through the land grant acts revived some state institutions and saved others (Rhatigan, 2000). The act of 1890 defined limitations on receiving the funding available under the 1862 act. The land grant act of 1890 indicated that no funding appropriations would be made for institutions who limited admissions based on race, unless “separate but equal” accommodations were made (Rhatigan, 2000).

The land grant acts introduced a different type of student to higher education institutions (Rhatigan, 2000). A university education was no longer preserved for the religious elite or the wealthy. The common person was now on college campuses, creating a need in student affairs to adapt their programs to meet these new needs (Cohen, 1998). Though on-campus housing was a part of these four-year land grant colleges and universities, the Germanic Influence was still quite prevalent and these “common” students interacted with their staff and faculty very little (Lucas, 1994).

The number of undergraduates in colleges and universities increased thirty-fold during the years between 1879-1930 (Lamadrid, 1999). Housing and residence life operations had to increase their on-campus living capacity in order to accommodate this incredible growth (Cohen, 1998). The ongoing increase in the number of undergraduate students in colleges and universities created a need for activities outside the classroom to keep the students occupied (Lucas, 1994). Clubs, Greek organizations, and athletics involvement grew with the student body expansion. Involvement in these activities drove

the students back onto campus, creating a greater housing need, as the students could be more involved in various activities when they lived on campus (Cohen, 1998).

The year 1891 marked the official beginning of student affairs as a division within colleges and universities across the United States. LeBaron Briggs, a former professor, accepted a new position at Harvard consisting of entirely non-academic duties (Rhatigan, 2000). Briggs emphasized students' life in and out of the classroom as well as their acclimation to the college and university setting (Rhatigan, 2000). This served as the foundational step to creating what is today called student affairs. In 1897, Briggs developed what is now called a paraprofessional student staff to aid in the programmatic efforts of residence life operations. The paraprofessional staff member assisted in developing a sense of community among students and facilitating programming to assist students in academic and personal development. The paraprofessional also served to maintain an environment conducive to these goals through intervening in situations where students engage in negative behavior which is detrimental to personal and community health (Rhatigan, 2000). Briggs believed that housing upperclassmen in buildings with freshmen and sophomores may help the underclassmen better adjust to the university life. Briggs hired sixty juniors and seniors as "informal counselors" to the underclassmen students (Rhatigan, 2000).

The Germanic Influence on American higher education exacerbated an already present distancing between faculty and the out-of-class lives of students (Lucas, 1994). Students' extracurricular needs grew and expanded over time, so student affairs expanded to meet those changing needs (Williamson et al., 1949). In 1899, William Harper, President of the University of Chicago and former professor at Yale, called for colleges

and universities to refocus their visions on the development of students and the importance of the residential campus experience (Lucas, 1994). Harper encouraged his colleagues, those both internal and external to the University of Chicago, toward the emphasis of holistic student development through academic and student affairs programming (Lucas, 1994). Students do not leave their non-academic issues at the door when they enter the classroom, nor do they leave the stresses of the classroom in the lecture hall. A holistic view of education sees the entirety of the college campus as impacting a students' success (Schuh et al., 2001). The effects of Harper's call to his colleagues extended through the first two decades of the 1900s. This renewed emphasis on student development within higher education spurred the growth of what we would now call student affairs divisions (Lucas, 1994). The number of student affairs professionals increased nationwide as the student development was brought center-stage and the still-increasing number of undergraduate students expanded college campuses (Lucas, 1994).

This thirty-fold growth in the student population in higher education between 1879 and 1930 was tremendous, however colleges and universities were about to experience a whole new set of student demands. The G.I. Bill, enacted in 1944, changed the face of higher education dramatically (Cohen, 1998; Rhatigan, 2000). The traditional college student, aged 18-22, was no longer the primary demographic (Rhatigan, 2000). Servicemen were returning from the war and entering higher education, bringing with them their wives and children whose needs also needed to be accommodated by higher education institutions (Rhatigan, 2000). As researched showed that students' involvement and feeling of community positively contributed to retention and success,

student affairs took the extra step to provide community development programming for the servicemen's wives and children (Rhatigan, 2000). They functioned under the view that if the family could not feel at home on campus, the student would feel the stress of that situation and struggle in the classroom as a result (Rhatigan, 2000). Colleges and universities across the nation needed to create new housing and programmatic initiatives in order to accommodate this changing demographic (Rhatigan, 2000).

Two decades later, the changing needs of students spurred student affairs professionals to new programmatic objectives. Three objectives common to most student affairs divisions during the mid-1900s were: 1) providing adequate living accommodations for students, 2) supporting the academic life of the student in their out-of-classroom experience, and 3) promote the development of the students' personal lives through programmatic activities (Rentz, 1994). To this end, residence life and Greek life departments provided living arrangements which were conducive to academic success by increasing their programming that focused on academic success (Rentz, 1994). Similarly, student activities departments sought to develop community service initiatives which brought in-class learning out of the classroom and into the community (Rhatigan, 2000). Though student affairs divisions attempted to bridge the gap between students' academic and personal lives, the academic side of the higher education house resisted such initiatives. The deep-seated influence of the Germanic approach to higher education continued to encourage separation between faculty and students outside of the classroom (Ward, 2003). By 1976, student affairs professionals predominantly viewed the entire campus as part of the academic community (Cohen, 1998). The emphasis on academic development within the residence hall and Greek settings contributed to this new view of

the holistic academic experience within colleges and universities, however academic staff and faculty did not buy into this view of housing facilities as academic communities (Lucas, 1994).

As student affairs professionals continued to work for a holistic approach to student education, they encountered their first major blow from the legal realm. The mid-1970s ushered in a new reality for student affairs professionals in the form of legal action against universities (Lucas, 1994). As a result, colleges and universities, specifically student affairs professionals are forced to change the way they view their work. The case of *Tarasoff v Board of Regents of the University of California* found the university responsible for one student assaulting another student. Residence life professionals knew of a threat by one student to the life of another student. University officials, considering the information as private and confidential, did nothing to warn the student whose life was threatened and she was ultimately assaulted. The courts found the University of California liable in the assault. This decision made it very clear to student affairs professionals that no information is truly confidential (Lucas, 1994).

A second major lawsuit against a university was filed in 1979 with *Duarte v State* (Lucas, 1994). In this case, a university was held liable in a crime against one of its students. University officials had knowledge that crimes of this nature were occurring on campus and had no formal procedures for reporting such things to students, nor had they taken measures to prevent these crimes from continuing (Lucas, 1994). In the wake of *Duarte v. State*, the programmatic model of student affairs adapted once again throughout the country (Lucas, 1994). Student affairs professionals needed an increased knowledge of the legal implications of all of their work, anticipating and addressing potential issues

with all of their practices (Gehring, 2000). Colleges and universities focused on reporting procedures for campus crimes and issues. Residence life and Greek life programs turned their efforts toward preventative programming as well as addressing student conduct issues. Student activities programs focused their efforts on night and weekend programming for the purpose of providing students with something positive to do in their evening and weekend spare time (Rhatigan, 2000). The adapted student development model had three very different focuses than the last model including: 1) remedial programming (e.g., addressing student conduct cases in a punitive manner), 2) preventative programming (e.g., educating students as to ways to prevent crime from happening to them), and 3) student development (Rentz, 1994). Emphasis on the development of students was clearly no longer the number one priority in throughout student affairs systems as it shifted to remedial and punitive policies. The implications of these legal findings were vast in terms of policy and practice. Policies adapted to the threat of litigation by increasing the reporting responsibilities of student affairs staff at all levels. Professional staff trained and oversaw the paraprofessional staff who was now required to report much of their interactions with students about anything related to the student conduct code (Gehring, 2000).

However, this remedial/preventative approach to student development would not dominate higher education for long. Beginning in 1989, student affairs systems throughout higher education began to adapt their programming models yet again. Adaptations were based on student interests and the increased need for a sense of community. Professionals found that if students felt a strong sense of community and a responsibility to one another, they would be less likely to participate in destructive

behaviors (Claar & Cuyjet, 2000). This knowledge led to the development of programs which further connected students to one another. Theme programming, such as campus ecology and health and wellness programming, increased throughout American higher education (Rentz, 1994). These served as the beginning models for what are now living/learning communities within residence life. Living/learning communities brought students with the same academic interests together through their living environment (Rentz, 1994). Many of these communities revolve around the students' shared academic major. Two years later, in 1991, the department of residence life at Miami University created added a programmatic system, called the First Year Experience, while keeping the overall vision of student development (Rentz, 1994). The new system was that of the First Year Student Experience, a now widely-used model of programming in systems across the nation (Rentz, 1994). This First Year Experience model focused programming on the needs of freshmen entering college. The First Year Experience program sought to equip students with the necessary skills to succeed throughout college and into life after college. Programmatic themes included topics such as creating a budget, living away from home, how to approach faculty members, and getting involved on campus (Rentz, 1994). These programs brought first year students together through the exploration of shared needs and experiences.

This adaptation in the programmatic goals of student affairs ushered in another professional call toward the holistic development of students in the mid-1990s. The American College Personnel Association published a document in 1994 called the Student Learning Imperative (American College Personnel Association, 1994). This document served as a call to action on the part of student affairs professionals across the

country to realign their programmatic systems to the development of students. This model was a call emphasizing that it was time for the division to become student-centered again, encouraging student affairs systems away from the former model of decreasing their liability created by the late-1970s lawsuits (American College Personnel Association, 1994).

As this historical perspective shows, student affairs experiences a continual state of adaptation and development as both student populations and the greater societal environment change and grow. This perspective aids in understanding the context of what student affairs professionals face in the present day.

Student Affairs Structure and Practice in an Era of Change

The historical development of student affairs follows the growth and development of student needs outside of the classroom. Addressing these needs in current practice involves a wide variety of student services encompassed under the umbrella of student affairs divisions. Current student affairs divisions often include the following service areas: admissions, financial aid, student advising, student unions, counseling services, student conduct, career services, residence life, student activities, and Greek life programs (Schuh et al., 2001; Williamson et al., 1949). A description of common student affairs departments follows, culminating in a focus on the three programming arms of student affairs: residence life, student activities and Greek life.

The admissions office at a university is often the first encounter a potential student will have with that institution. “Successful admissions offices attract a sufficient number of the right kinds of students to provide a steady stream of undergraduates who are successful in achieving their education goals” (Schuh et al., 2001, p. 302). The

students whom offices of admissions most serve are potential students. Once a student accepts admission into a college or university, offices of admissions rarely has continued contact with that student (Carter & McClellan, 2000).

Once a student is admitted to a college or university, the next step in their educational journey often takes them through the office of financial aid (Schuh et al., 2001). Financial aid plays an important part in a student's persistence in college, with over two-thirds of all full-time undergraduate students who attended college in 1995-1996 received some form of financial aid (Rhatigan, 2000). Though financial aid services plays a significant role in keeping students on campus financially, there is very little programming offered by this office to students to aid in their development through higher education (Schuh et al., 2001).

Student advising is another functional area within most divisions of student affairs. Student advising offices manage the assignment of academic advisors to students as well as provide some academic resources, such as tutoring, to aid students in their educational experience (American College Personnel Association, 1994). Academic advising is primarily focused on providing students with adequate guidance for academic success as it pertains to their in-class experiences (American Council on Education, 1997).

Divisions of student affairs also encompass the services provided to students through student unions. "College unions often are the center of student, campus, and community life" providing access to multiple student services offices as well as involvement in student clubs and organizations (Schuh et al., 2001, p. 327). Student unions provide a central location for students to attend to a variety of needs, and though

much programming occurs under the roof of a student union, the management of unions is primarily based on the physical facility and not on the individual student development (McClellan & Barr, 2000).

The increasing number of students on campuses across the nation demand for colleges and universities to provide services to address a range of mental and emotional disorders. “Compared with students in the past, students today arrive on campus with more problems as a result of dysfunctional family situations, with more worries and anxieties about the future and...with an increased awareness of their own personal demons” (Archer & Cooper, 1998, p. 6). Counseling services offices often offer workshops to other student affairs professionals on how to identify students who may need counseling. Though counseling services offices provide important resources to students, they do not interact with the general population of students in a programmatic way (Carter & McClellan, 2000).

In order to aid students in their pursuit of life after college, offices of career services provide career planning, career counseling, and placement services (Rayman, 2001). Though available to all students of an institution, the primary users of career services are those students who have declared their majors and are seeking internships and post-degree job placement (Rayman, 2001). Career services serves an administrative function for the students, however they do not often interact with students outside of the timeframe of normal business hours. Such programming is often spearheaded by one of the three programming arms of student affairs, summarized, and brought to the students where they live and interact outside of the classroom.

In addition to the above services offered under the umbrella of student affairs, offices of student conduct are responsible for adjudicating issues regarding “the institution’s student code of conduct and also serves to educate students about how responsible adults must act in an orderly society” (Schuh et al., 2001, p. 426). Offices of student conduct address a wide range of student behavioral issues, from matters of civility such as adjudicating issues of quiet hours in the residence halls to more serious issues of assault (Schuh et al., 2001). Offices of student conduct do not serve as the front-line enforcers of student conduct codes, but rather as the after-the-fact adjudicators of alleged incidents, sanctioning those in violation of the conduct code with educational and developmental sanctions (Gehring, 2000). The desired outcome of the student conduct process is to aid students in their development of a sense of community and personal responsibility for the purpose of successfully interacting in the world both within and outside of the higher education context (Engstrom, Hallock, & Riemer, 2002; Humphrey, Janosik, & Creamer, 2004). Offices of student conduct provide a response to student code violations, however it is the responsibility of the departments which manage the students’ living environments to proactively address student behavior (Schuh et al., 2001).

As described, the division of student affairs serves an array of student needs. However, the student affairs functions of residence life, Greek life, and student activities provide students with ongoing and comprehensive guidance that holistically addresses the in- and out-of-class experience of students (Schuh et al., 2001). These three programs serve as the front-line of student affairs services throughout higher education institutions. Where the majority of administrative offices, including academic advising and student

conduct, function only during regular business hours, it is residence life, Greek life, and student activities which serves to bring these services to students where they live (Terenzini & Pascarella, 1997). The programmatic functions served by these three front-line student affairs departments strives to meet both the practical and the developmental needs of students throughout their college experience (Terenzini & Pascarella, 1997). The increasing numbers of students entering higher education creates a professional student affairs environment of continual adaptation and retooling of programmatic approaches to holistic education (Hernandez, Hogan, Hathaway, & Lovell, 1999; Ramirez, 1997).

Residence life initiatives typically fall into one or more of the following three areas: providing a safe and orderly living environment in which students can live and study; serve as an environment where in-class learning is extended and practiced while fostering out-of-class learning through interpersonal relationships and leadership experiences; and community-building programs “where residents learn to build, maintain, and enhance a caring, supportive, and equitable climate among residents” (Schuh, et al., 2001, p. 313). Cheng (2004), in his study exploring student’s sense of community, found that “students considered residence halls the place where academic, social, and cultural aspects of their college life could be integrated, with a sense of community ensured” (p. 229). Residence hall staff, both professional and paraprofessional, spend their hours developing and delivering programs to aid in student development. The specific goals of residence hall programming have changed over time, but the pervasive theme has always been to meet the needs of students where they live (Schroeder, 1997). These needs range from academic advising, social and diversity interactions, connection with the greater

community, as well as monitoring the hall to enhance an environment conducive to academic and personal success (Terenzini & Pascarella, 1997). This programming serves to build a students' sense of connection to his/her campus community, which serves to increase retention and academic success (Cheng, 2004).

Greek life provides students with both social and philanthropic opportunities in the setting of a living community (Schuh, et al., 2001). Graduates who were part of a Greek letter community are also more likely to remain loyal to the university from which they graduated through both service and monetary support (Schuh, et al., 2001). Astin (1997) conducted a longitudinal study on student involvement in which he found that students who joined social fraternities and sororities were far less likely to drop out of college when compared to students who were not involved on campus. Similar to residence life, Greek life provides academic, social, and community service programming for their students in order to enhance their holistic college experience and increase student retention (Moran, 2001). Greek life also serves as a breeding ground for future foundation donors; students who have had a positive experience through Greek life often contribute financially to the university and provide mentoring for Greek life students (Cheng, 2004).

Student activities (also commonly known as student involvement) programs also contribute to a student's sense of community and increased likelihood of persisting through college (Hernandez et al., 1999). Involvement opportunities contribute to students completing a college degree, where lack of involvement contributes to student attrition (Astin, 1997; Zuckerman & Kretovics, 2003). Collaborative activities, where students work and play together, build relationships that help them when they hit a rocky

time in their education (Epstein, 2004). This reality drives student affairs professionals in general, and specifically student involvement professionals, to provide an increasingly diverse array of involvement opportunities through the creation of campus clubs, activities, and organizations (Zuckerman & Kretovics, 2003).

Current Issues for Programmatic Professionals

Student affairs work, regardless of focus area, “demands a wide range of skills—managerial, administrative, human relations” (Lorden, 1998, p. 211). The majority of administration in student affairs occurs during what would be described as normal business hours (Miller, 2000). However, the out-of-class programmatic endeavors of residence life, Greek life, and student activities happen beyond the hours of the normal business day (Lorden, 1998). This reality of student affairs results in programmatic professionals feeling a loss of personal time, experiencing burnout at a faster rate than other higher education administrators, and a decreasing lack of organizational commitment and advancement opportunities (Lorden, 1998). The attrition that results from burnout and decreased organizational commitment can be better understood through exploring job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction among current professionals.

The administration and management of these three areas of student affairs requires that professionals work during “regular business hours” in order to schedule meetings with other campus administrators as well as utilize university functions such as business affairs and academic affairs (Miller, 2000). To offer programs that meet student needs, programmatic professionals need to meet with professionals in offices such as career services, financial aid, and academic departments in order to design and implement meaningful programs (Allen & Cherrey, 2003). However, because students are often in

class during those normal business hours, out-of-class programming needs to occur after-hours and on weekends (Claar & Cuyjet, 2000).

The time demands as a result of the programmatic function of residence life, Greek life, and student activities more often than not leads to a faster rate of burnout among these student affairs professionals (Lorden, 1998). Stress and burnout break down a person's motivation to work and can negatively change their perspective on the work that they do, which in turn creates negative results (Leider, 1996). Lorden (1998) suggests that burnout "is a primary cause of attrition, given the long hours and stressful conditions commonly associated with student affairs work" (p. 209).

This burnout can also lead to a decreased organizational commitment on the part of these student affairs professionals (Evans, 1988). A low level of organizational commitment results in lower productivity, fewer creative innovations, and a lack of investment in the purposes of the organization (Alastria & Arrowsmith, 2004; Blackhurst et al., 1998; Kouzes & Posner, 1995, 2003; Thornhill, Lewis, & Saunders, 1996; Wheatley, 2001).

Additionally, in the areas of residence life, Greek life, and student activities, professionals need to move out of the organization in order to move up in the administrative ranks (Arnold, 1983; Avery, 2001; Carpenter, Guido-DiBrito, & Kelly, 1987; Lawing et al., 1983). Opportunities for professional development and advancement help to increase an employee's commitment to the organization (Kouzes & Posner, 1995). However, this need to leave an organization in order to advance further decreases a practitioner's level of organizational commitment (Cutler, 2003).

The issues of time demands, burnout, and decreasing organizational commitment are revealed in the student affairs literature on attrition from the field (e.g., Burns, 1982; Evans, 1988; Rosser & Javinar, 2003). However, research suggests that increased job satisfaction serves as a mediating variable to counteracting the negative effects of these issues (Kouzes & Posner, 1995; Wheatley, 2001).

Pilot Study

This research study emerged from a pilot study conducted in the spring of 2004. The purpose of the pilot study was to find out which practices supervisors in a student affairs division utilized which made their subordinates' work experiences satisfying. The identified practices derived from the study were then compared to the practice of shared leadership to determine to what extent shared leadership was used within the division of Student Affairs.

Theoretical Framework

Several definitions of shared leadership were used in creating a guiding definition for this pilot study. Bernreuter (1998), Healy (2000), Blasé & Blasé (1999), and Wheatley (2001) all defined the practice of shared leadership in similar, but slightly different ways. Those definitions, as well as other concepts from leadership literature with regard to shared leadership, were used as the foundation to form a guiding definition of shared leadership. For the purposes of this analysis, shared leadership was defined as an intentional leadership strategy that supports and empowers staff; leadership emerges throughout the organization as different participants evoke different potentialities in different situations; and the vision for the organization is shared and communicated to and through all organizational members.

Introduction

Student affairs provides students with services that increase retention and academic success. The focus of student affairs is to meet the needs of students from a holistic standpoint. Ultimately, student affairs is a service field. Part of the preparation for the pilot study included exploring other service industries with similar burnout and attrition problems as student affairs to see if there were common approaches to decreasing such problems. It was found that nurses and K-12 administrators experience similar struggles to student affairs. Both industries found success in increasing organizational commitment, decreasing burnout and attrition through the use of shared leadership.

Nursing

The general population does not see nursing as a desirable career field (Barney, 2002). Long hours, verbal abuse from patients and doctors, and a lack of ownership in the care of patients have attributed to the lowered desirability of the profession (Barney, 2002). When strategically implemented and constantly revisited, shared leadership has led to a number of positive results. Nurses experienced increased ownership in their job, increased job satisfaction, and an increased sense of accomplishment on the part of the nurses involved in such programs (Bell, 2000). When nurses were moved from the bottom rung and into the patient care meetings, patients spent less time in the hospital because nurses were seen as colleagues by the doctors rather than merely assistants (Bernreuter, 1998). Nurses were excited to come to work and the doctors began to appreciate the experience and expertise that their nurses brought to the job (Healy, 2000).

K-12 Education

Principals in elementary and secondary education have also experienced the joys and trials of shared leadership. Blasé and Blasé (1999) explore the changing environment of education as “bureaucratic structures are fast giving way to collaborative endeavors” (p. 81). Blasé and Blasé (1999) found that the process of implementing shared leadership, from the principals’ perspective, began with feelings of loss of power and a sense that they may not be seen as needed anymore. However, with the development of the shared leadership program principals found themselves more excited to come to work, learning more about themselves and their teachers, and much less lonely than the previous method of leadership (Blasé & Blasé, 1999). Blasé & Blasé’s (1999) study also found that shared leadership, in order to be successful, must be nurtured, continually revisited and discussed among involved constituents. Without this revisiting, shared leadership can easily fall back into bureaucratic processes (Barney, 2002).

Shared leadership and student affairs

Traditionally, shared leadership in the realm of higher education research has been limited to the arena of academic affairs with mixed reviews (e.g., Buck, 2001; Cox, 2000; Gerber, 2001). It is interesting to note that little, if any, research has been conducted to examine the applicability and use of shared leadership structures within student affairs divisions within higher education. Woodard, Love, and Komives (2000) view structural changes in higher education institutions will require adaptive methods in serving higher education’s student constituents.

The research in nursing management and K-12 education has shown a marked improvement in adaptability of services provided as well as increased satisfaction on the

part of all participants when shared leadership strategies are used. Student affairs is in need of such improvements. The problem is that leadership strategies utilized in student affairs divisions has not been widely studied or discussed. The purpose of this pilot study was to explore the leadership strategy used within the division of student affairs at one university.

Sampling

The pilot study was set up as a case study of one student affairs division at a public research institution in the Northwest. Only one institution was chosen in order to allow the researcher to explore specific practices of specific superiors from a number of subordinates' perspectives. Gaining multiple perspectives regarding one supervisor allowed greater depth and understanding in identifying supervisor practices resulting in job satisfaction for the subordinate from a variety of perspectives (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Participants were chosen from three administrative levels: vice president, associate vice president, and unit directors. These three hierarchical levels were identified as those which had the most organizational commitment (Berwick, 1992) as well as impact on the culture of the division (Herdlein, 2004).

Data Collection

Data were collected through a semi-structured interview format (see Appendix A for pilot study interview protocol). This format allowed for consistency across interviews with regard to which questions were answered. The interviews explored several areas of their individual work experiences, including the participants' own self-reported leadership style, what their supervisors did or could do to make their work more satisfying, and what they intentionally did to make their subordinates' work lives

satisfying. The semi-structured interview format also allowed the researcher to ask probing questions in response to participant comments (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

Interviews were scheduled for one-hour, were audio-taped, and transcribed.

Data Analysis

Interview transcriptions were analyzed following Strauss and Corbin's (1998) grounded theory approach. Grounded theory is a qualitative research technique through which theory is derived from the data as they are systematically gathered and analyzed (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). It is a process by which qualitative data are "broken apart" for the purpose of identifying individual factors and the themes which tie those factors together (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Once factors were determined through line-by-line analysis, themes for groups of factors were derived using the context of the responses. Once factors and themes were derived from the data, those factors and themes were compared to the practice of shared leadership.

Results

The results of this pilot study revealed that shared leadership was utilized as a leadership strategy throughout most of the administrative levels of the student affairs division under study. The vice president claimed to use elements of shared leadership, and her subordinates described her practices which resulted in their satisfaction in the same way. The four associate vice presidents also described their own supervisory practices in ways consistent with shared leadership. However, only the subordinates of three of the associate vice presidents agreed.

Interpretive Perspective

The conclusions drawn from the pilot study indicated that practices consistent with shared leadership did contribute to employee job satisfaction. However, additional factors which fell outside the guiding definition of shared leadership were also described by the participants. These factors were both intrinsic and extrinsic factors contributing to their overall satisfaction. The additional factors included seeing results of positive achievement in their work; opportunities for advancement within the field; and the work itself, commenting that regardless of their supervisor's leadership practices, they would be satisfied with their jobs because of the type of work they did. These additional factors were mentioned by some participants, but not others. As the sample included different genders, ethnicities, and years of experience, further research is needed to describe the correlation of demographic variables to variables of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

As a result of these conclusions, it was determined that a more in-depth research approach was needed to explore job satisfaction among student affairs professionals with an emphasis on the demographic influence on satisfaction variables. The pilot study informed this study by presenting the question of what factors related to job satisfaction. Additionally, responses during the pilot study interviews provided fairly consistent information, with little difference based on demographic variables. For this reason, the following research project sought to statistically explore what demographic variables are related to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. The next section will provide a review of literature that addresses job satisfaction among professionals in the student affairs profession.

Literature Addressing Job Satisfaction in Student Affairs

As previously detailed, there has been limited literature exploring the issue of job satisfaction among student affairs professionals. Since Bender's 1980 study addressing the subject of attrition in student affairs, further studies on attrition from the profession have been conducted (e.g., Burns, 1982; Evans, 1988; Hancock, 1988). Additionally, professionals have called for research examining job satisfaction as one component of the attrition issue (e.g., Avery, 2001; Berwick, 1992; Evans, 1988; Holmes, 1983; Lorden, 1998; Ward, 1995).

Two doctoral dissertations explored in depth the factors related to job satisfaction among student affairs professionals. The first dissertation was Blank's (1993) study of factors relating to job satisfaction among student affairs professionals at a total of three public universities in Wyoming and Colorado. Blank also sought to determine if Herzberg's Dual Factor Theory (Herzberg, 1966) was suitable for use in research of student affairs. Blank offered three recommendations to increase job satisfaction among student affairs professionals: 1) offer greater recognition for job-related accomplishments; 2) professional development plan for professionals; and 3) increased opportunity for shared leadership within individual units and the division as a whole. Blank's (1993) work supported the use of Herzberg's Dual Factor Theory as usable and appropriate for use in student affairs research.

The second dissertation examining job satisfaction among student affairs professionals was completed by Bailey (1997). Bailey expanded on Blank's (1993) study by utilizing a random sample of chief housing officers at four-year public institutions across the United States. She found that chief housing officers were generally satisfied.

Bailey's work also supported the use of Herzberg's Dual Factor Theory for use in student affairs research.

Though valuable, Blank's (1993) research had three major limitations all related to the scope of his sample. The first limitation was that the sample of participants came from only three institutions: University of Northern Colorado, Colorado State University, and University of Wyoming. This small university representation limits the generalizability of his findings. The second limitation to Blank's study is his surveying of a variety of positions within the student affairs divisions, ranging from first-year administrators to vice-presidents. The wide scope of the professional experiences of the sample does not allow for generalizability even within the institution, as the vice president will have very different experiences than a first-year administrator. The third major limitation in Blank's study was his inclusion of ten different units within the division of student affairs. This limits the depth of the findings, as he did not draw distinctions regarding if particular factors were more or less prevalent as job satisfiers/dissatisfiers within individual units.

Bailey's (1997) study expanded the generalizability of Blank's (1993) study by surveying professionals from across the United States. However, Bailey's study also had one major limitation. Bailey limited her research to only chief housing officers, and thus her findings cannot be generalized to other student affairs professionals. Furthermore, Bailey did not specifically define the role of the chief housing officer, leaving one to question if the professionals she surveyed were facilities officers, overseeing both on- and off-campus residences, or if the directors served in a more programmatic role, such as residence life directors.

Theoretical Frameworks Relevant to Job Satisfaction

Several theories are applicable to job satisfaction in organizational settings. The three frameworks considered for this study were Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Kouzes and Posner's theory of exemplary leadership, and Herzberg's dual factor theory. The following section provides a brief outline of each theory and discusses the possible advantages and disadvantages of each for the purposes of this study.

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Maslow developed a human needs theory in an attempt to bring together the partial truths he saw in the work of Freud, Adler, Jung, Levy, Fromm, Horney and Golstein (Oleson, 1999). This human-needs theory proposes that humans are in a constant state of need with the hierarchy representing those needs which most prominently affect their behavior (Oleson, 1999). When needs of the lower levels of hierarchy are not fulfilled, needs on the upper levels of the hierarchy take lesser precedence (Hagerty, 1999). Additionally, as soon as needs are gratified they no longer play an active determining or organizing role in a person's life (Hagerty, 1999). The levels of needs Maslow described, in lowest to highest order, are physiological needs, safety and security needs, love and belonging needs, esteem needs, and self-actualization needs.

Physiological needs serve as the first level of needs in Maslow's hierarchy. These needs include the basic necessities of life including food, water, shelter, rest, and those needs required to sustain life (Maslow, 1970). Unless and until these needs are met, the person's main activities will be at this level of seeking to fulfill these needs (Oleson, 1999). A person will have little regard for higher-level needs until these basic needs are

fulfilled. “When these basic, physiological needs are fulfilled, other levels of needs become important, and these motivate and dominate the behavior of the individual” (Oleson, 1999, p. 64). When these physiological needs are met, needs in the next lowest level will emerge as most important (Maslow, 1970). This process continues up the hierarchy (Oleson, 1999).

Maslow identifies safety and security needs as the second level of human needs. Once physiological needs are met, safety and security needs emerge as the most salient needs in a person. These needs are defined as having freedom from physical and psychological harm (Oleson, 1999).

The third level of human needs is acquiring a sense of love and belonging. These needs are described as the sense of belongingness, companionship, and social acceptability (Oleson, 1999). The need for love in this level is not limited to the need to receive love. Maslow also identified the need to give love as salient in this third level of needs (Oleson, 1999).

Esteem needs serve as the fourth level of human needs, according to Maslow’s hierarchy. In this level of the need hierarchy, the human needs transcend the need for belonging to a group, as identified in the third level. The need for status, self-respect, self-esteem, and the respect of others moves to the forefront of the needs to be satisfied (Oleson, 1999). “Satisfaction of the esteem needs leads to feelings of self-confidence, power, worth, adequacy and other feelings of usefulness” (Oleson, 1999, p. 65).

The highest level of needs in Maslow’s hierarchy is that of self-actualization. These needs are defined as “the need to become fully self-realized and to achieve one’s potential to the greatest extent possible” (Oleson, 1999, p. 65).

Advantage of Maslow's Theory for Studying Job Satisfaction

The major advantage to the use of Maslow's hierarchy of needs in studying job satisfaction is that the theory centers on the person being studied. Job satisfaction or dissatisfaction exists as a perception (Kouzes & Posner, 1995). Maslow's hierarchy would allow the participant to identify whether or not particular needs were being addressed.

Limitations of Maslow's Theory for Studying Job Satisfaction

Maslow's theory addresses human needs. However, this theory only deals with upward movement through the hierarchical levels (Alderfer, 1972). Additionally, this hierarchy presents that lower-level needs must be satisfied before higher-level needs become important (Haggerty, 1999). The inherent problem with studying job satisfaction from this perspective remains that some people remain in jobs because they deeply enjoy the work, even when basic organizational needs, such like psychological safety or rest, are not being met (Malaney & Osit, 1998). Because of these limitations, this theory was not chosen as the theoretical framework for this study.

Kouzes & Posner's Theory of Exemplary Leadership

James M. Posner and Barry Z. Kouzes (1995) set forth a theory of exemplary leadership based in the notion of employee job satisfaction. The concepts explored by Kouzes and Posner (1995) address leadership practices, but the major implications are for the employees rather than the leaders themselves.

Kouzes and Posner's theory of exemplary leadership presents five fundamental practices of exemplary leadership. These concepts address ways in which a leader can behave within the organizational structure in order to motivate individual employees,

contribute to employee job satisfaction, and ultimately advance the vision of the organization (Kouzes & Posner, 1995, 2003). The theory was derived from a research study Kouzes and Posner began in 1983 (Kouzes & Posner, 1995). The researchers developed a survey consisting of 38 open-ended questions asking about the participants' personal best leadership experiences for the first phase of the study. Participants consisted of mid- and senior-level managers from both private and public organizations. They collected 550 usable surveys from which they developed a second survey. The second survey addressed the same research question, but was a two-page survey which was completed by 780 additional managers. The research pair also conducted 42 in-depth interviews. Data analysis from these methods revealed the five fundamental practices of exemplary leadership (Kouzes & Posner, 1995). These fundamental practices represent practices described in the majority of the participants' responses regarding the best leadership experiences. Ultimately, those practices not only benefited the leader but also contributed to employee satisfaction (Kouzes & Posner, 1995). The five fundamental practices of exemplary leadership, described further below, are modeling the way, inspiring a shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others to act, and encouraging the heart.

Modeling the Way. The fundamental practice of modeling the way is based on the concept of respect. "Titles are granted, but it's your behavior that wins you respect" (Kouzes & Posner, 2003, p. 4). Model the way describes the approach that a leader would never ask their employees to do something he/she would do him/herself. This concept extends beyond day-to-day tasks of organizational behavior. Modeling the way

begins with the values and vision of the organization. An exemplary leader, according to Kouzes and Posner (1995, 2003) exemplifies the values and ethics of the organization.

Inspiring a Shared Vision. Inspiring a shared vision, as a fundamental practice of exemplary leadership, addresses communication and values-based leadership. Kouzes and Posner (2003) report that the best leaders have the ability to not only lead based on their own values, but also to communicate that vision to those who are expected to carry out the vision. “A person with no constituents is not a leader, and people will not follow until they accept a vision as their own” (Kouzes & Posner, 2003, p. 5).

Inspiring a shared vision requires the leader to understand what motivates his/her constituents so that he/she can communicate in such a way as to inspire them to follow the vision of the leader (Kouzes & Posner, 1995). This unity of purpose contributes to employees’ sense of belonging and making a difference in the organization (Maxwell, 1998).

Challenging the Process. Challenging the process requires the leader to assess current practices and offer new ways to approach emerging issues (Kouzes & Posner, 2003). One factor of job dissatisfaction is the experience of being in an organizational rut (Collins, 1999). Challenging the process requires the leader and his/her followers to take steps to improve or change practices entirely for the betterment of the organization and its members (Kouzes & Posner, 1995). However, such challenges must be in reference to the central vision of the organization or else the new process will fail in the long run (Wheatley, 1997).

Enabling Others to Act. Enabling others to act extends beyond simply delegating responsibilities to others. This fundamental practice of exemplary leadership requires the

leader to allow his/her constituents to make decisions autonomously and see those decisions through to their end result, whether that be success or failure (Kouzes & Posner, 1995). Enabling others to act requires the leader to be sure that the decision-makers have the necessary knowledge and skills to make the decision while allowing them the freedom to explore options.

This fundamental practice shows the constituent that the leader believes in them and trusts their abilities and ideas (Kouzes & Posner, 1995). Employees report increased job satisfaction when allowed to make decisions without the presence of micro-management (Pinchot, 1996).

Encouraging the Heart. Encouraging the heart serves as the final, yet most pervasive, fundamental practice in exemplary leadership. Encouraging the heart requires the leader to know his/her constituents on a personal level (Kouzes & Posner, 1995). This knowledge goes beyond that which can be found on a resume. This knowledge includes the understanding of why the person is in the career and specific job they are in as well as what motivates them to succeed. Encouraging the heart is typically most visible in recognition programs. “People repeat behavior that’s rewarded, avoid behavior that’s punished, and drop or forget behavior that produces neither result” (Cohen, Fink, Gadon, and Willits, 1994, as cited in Kouzes & Posner, 1995, p. 275).

Advantages of the Exemplary Leadership Theory for Studying Job Satisfaction

The theory of exemplary leadership provides several advantages for the study of job satisfaction. The leaders in Kouzes and Posner’s (1995) study identified the five practices of exemplary leadership as contributing to their own job satisfaction. Locus of control serves as a contributor to job satisfaction when the individual is empowered to act

(Johnsrud & Rosser, 1999). These practices lead to job satisfaction for the leader (Kouzes & Posner, 2003).

Limitations of the Exemplary Leadership Theory for Studying Job Satisfaction

Kouzes and Posner (1995, 2003) present a valuable theory for organizational leadership. The theory is limited in its use for studying job satisfaction of employees because it is leader-centered. The implications of the theory affect the leader's job satisfaction. However, to utilize the theory for assessing the organizational environment beyond the participants' locus of control, one would need specific indicators in order to measure job context factors. This theory does not provide such indicators. These limitations required that this theory not be the theoretical framework for this study.

Herzberg's Dual Factor Theory

Unlike Maslow and Kouzes and Posner, Herzberg's dual factor theory of job satisfaction is location-based and employee-centered. After interviewing nearly 1700 participants, Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) concluded that job satisfaction should not be measured on one continuum. Describing job satisfaction on just one continuum does not take into account all indications of both satisfaction and dissatisfaction, limiting the depth of description of a person's work experience. The researchers concluded that job satisfaction should more accurately be measured on two continua, one indicating level of overall job satisfaction and one indicating the level of overall job dissatisfaction.

Dual Factor Theory

Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) sought to explore factors related to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction across hierarchical organizational lines in a wide

variety of disciplines. The researchers designed a qualitative research study which asked participants to describe incidents that contributed to their job satisfaction. The participants were also asked to describe incidents that contributed to their job dissatisfaction. The researchers interviewed 1,685 participants and concluded that there were two different sets of factors, one set of factors associated with employee satisfaction and one set of factors associated with employee dissatisfaction. Those factors associated with job satisfaction were called “motivators” and those associated with job dissatisfaction were called “hygiene” factors.

The researchers also found that reducing the negative effects of the hygiene factors did not result in job satisfaction, but actually resulted in no dissatisfaction. Similarly, employees expressed that low effects of motivators, or job satisfying factors, did not result in job dissatisfaction, but resulted in decreased levels of satisfaction. For this reason, Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) concluded that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction did not lie on one continuum, but was a combination of two continua.

Those motivator factors associated with job satisfaction included: achievement, advancement, growth, recognition, responsibility, and the work itself (Herzberg, 1966, 1976; Herzberg et al., 1959). These factors, when addressed by the organizational leaders, led to increased employee satisfaction with their jobs (Herzberg, 1976). Herzberg (1976) further defined the motivation factors as those associated with the employee feeling like they were being used well by the organization. When employees felt that their skills, experiences, and abilities were well-used, they expressed job satisfaction. When the employees did not feel well-used they expressed a lack of job satisfaction (Herzberg, 1976).

Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) identified several factors associated with job dissatisfaction. Those factors were organizational policy and administration, interpersonal relations, job security, salary, status, supervision, and working conditions. These dissatisfiers, or hygiene factors, were further classified by Herzberg (1976) as employees' feeling of being treated well in their organizational context. When employees are treated well, their level of dissatisfaction decreased, however their level of satisfaction did not also increase, offering further support of the notion that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction lay on two separate and distinct continua.

Support for the Dual Factor Theory

Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman's (1959) theory of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction was challenged by subsequent researchers multiple times in the years since its development. Once the results were published, other researchers in the field questioned the theory's applicability across disciplines and methodologies (Herzberg, 1966). In the years following publication of the original theory, multiple researchers applied the dual-factor theory to a variety of industries, including engineering, accounting, the utility industry, agricultural workers, laboratory science, assembly and manufacturing, hospital employees, and housekeeping (Herzberg, 1966). These studies supported Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman's (1959) original findings. Additionally, the skeptical researchers also applied the theory across hierarchical organizational lines, from hourly unskilled workers to high-level professionals. Findings from these tests confirmed the validity of the dual-factor theory across hierarchical lines (Herzberg, 1966).

Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman's (1959) research was developed in a qualitative framework, interviewing participants about their experiences related to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Researchers seeking to test the dual-factor theory applied it across methodological lines by developing survey research (Herzberg, 1966). These researchers, using quantitative methodology, also found the theory to retain its validity and generalizability across methodological lines (Herzberg, 1966). Throughout even more subsequent testing of the theory, researchers continued to find supporting evidence of the theory's validity and generalizability across disciplines as well as methodological approaches (Herzberg, 1966). However, the theory also presents limitations for its use.

Limitations of the Dual Factor Theory

The dual-factor theory has two major limitations for use in this study. The first limitation of using this theory in survey research is that quantitative research often misses the rich data that can better be uncovered through qualitative methods (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

The second limitation of using this theory is its complexity for use in survey research. The participant must first identify whether he/she considers a particular factor as contributing to job satisfaction or job dissatisfaction. The participant must then rate each factor according to how strongly they feel about the factor. This two-part rating could be confusing.

Addressing the Limitations

Though the dual-factor theory poses two limitations for use in this study, the researcher believes these limitations can be adequately addressed. The first limitation of potentially missing the rich data that can more easily be gleaned through qualitative

methods was addressed through the use of two open-ended questions. The open-ended questions were: 1) what two factors or elements contribute most to your overall satisfaction in your position, and 2) what two factors or elements contribute most to your overall dissatisfaction in your position. These open-ended questions allowed participants to describe those factors which most contribute to their overall satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Answers to these two questions provided explanatory data that cannot be garnered from only a Likert-type rating scale.

The second limitation due to the complexity of the theory was addressed through survey construction. Blank (1993) developed a survey based on the dual-factor theory which resulted in a reliability rating of .90 in pilot testing and .83 in further testing. Bailey (1997) used this same survey in her dissertation research. Neither research reported participants having difficulty in understanding what was being asked of them. The study used the same survey in order to address the limitation of theory complexity.

Summary

This chapter has presented a historical perspective on the development of student affairs as a profession, described how residence life, student activities and Greek life serve the front-line programmatic needs of students, described a pilot study conducted which led to the proposed research question, and detailed two dissertation studies which explored job satisfaction among student affairs professionals. Three theories related to job satisfaction were explored. Maslow's hierarchy of needs was not chosen as the theoretical framework for this study because it did not allow for the cases where a practitioner stayed in a job because they loved the work, even when basic needs within the organizational may not be met. Kouzes' and Posner's theory of exemplary leadership

was not chosen as the theoretical framework for this study because it is leader-centered and does not provide specific indicators to assess organizational context from the perspective of the employee. Herzberg's dual-factor theory was selected as the theoretical framework for this study because its dual-continua allows for the participants to indicate dissatisfaction with one or more areas of their work without negating the satisfaction in other areas of the work experience.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter will outline the research methodology for this study. This chapter will describe the sampling procedures, instrumentation, data collection techniques, and data analysis used to explore the research question.

Participants

The population for this study consisted of directors of residence life, student activities, and Greek life at four-year land grant colleges and universities in the United States yielding a population numbering 123. Land grant colleges and universities were determined based on the Carnegie classification for land grant colleges and universities. The researcher created a list of those colleges/universities and then gleaned information from those individual college/university websites to determine the directors of residence life, student activities, and Greek life. Positions that were not currently filled, numbering 29, were excluded, yielding a final sample of 94. The researcher assigned case numbers to each member of the sample. Participants were assured that their answers would remain confidential and only be used for the purposes of this study, as stated in the letter of participation (see Appendix C). Returning the completed survey served as their consent to participate in the study (see Appendix C). Survey packets were labeled with the appropriate case number for tracking purposes. Surveys were tracked by case numbers as to whether or not they had been returned. Follow-up surveys were distributed four weeks after the initial mailing to those cases which had yet to be returned. A final reminder survey was sent an additional four weeks later to those who had yet to respond.

These colleges and universities were chosen as a result of the pilot study being conducted at a four-year land grant university. Directors of residence life, student activities, and Greek life were chosen based on the programmatic nature of their positions (Andreas, 1993), which lend themselves to high rates of burnout and attrition (Rosser & Javinar, 2003). The director position was chosen because middle managers often experience high degrees of commitment with low levels of job satisfaction (Rosser & Javinar, 2003). Directors of these departments serve as the continuous link throughout the high rate of lower-level turnover in these departments (Johnsrud & Rosser, 1999).

Instrumentation

The instrument utilized for this study is comprised of three parts: open-ended questions, a Likert-type scale for rating factors of satisfaction and dissatisfaction, and demographic variables. The instrument was copyrighted by Bailey (1997) in her dissertation research exploring job satisfaction/dissatisfaction among chief housing officers at colleges and universities across the United States. The open-ended questions are designed to gather participants' perspectives to factors or elements that contribute to satisfaction as well as dissatisfaction in their respective positions. The Likert-type scale utilizes the factors identified by Herzberg which contribute to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction on a dual continuum. The demographic instrument provides descriptive data of the participants in the study.

The instrumentation was designed and tested by Blank (1993) in his dissertation study of student affairs professionals at three western universities. Blank developed the survey based on Herzberg's Dual Factor Theory. Blank (1993) reported a reliability score of .83 for the survey instrument. The minimum acceptable reliability coefficient is

.80 (Coladarci, Cobb, Minium, and Clark, 2004). As such, Blank's instrument held an acceptable reliability alpha. A complete survey packet is included in Appendix C.

Survey Part I: Open-Ended Questions

The first part of the survey packet is comprised of two open-ended questions in order to allow participants to describe their own experiences without the constraints of a survey. Participants were asked to provide answers to the subsequent statements and encouraged to write additional comments on another piece of paper. The two open-ended questions were: 1) what two factors or elements contribute most to your overall satisfaction in your position, and 2) what two factors or elements contribute most to your overall dissatisfaction in your position? The open-ended questions limit the responses to two factors or elements in order to hopefully elicit those factors most important or salient to the participant (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). The encouragement to include additional comments on another piece of paper allows for participants to share more information should they feel the need. This approach intended to draw out the rich data that can be derived from qualitative research methods (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

Survey Part II: Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction Factors

The second part of the survey packet is comprised of a list of the factors of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. The survey listed each factor and its definition and then has two four-point Likert scales to the right of the factor. One scale is labeled "Satisfaction" and the other labeled "Dissatisfaction". The directions on the top of the survey instruct the participants to "please circle either the satisfaction scale value or the dissatisfaction scale value the best describes how you feel about each of these aspects of your work life." Delineating the rankings into separate scales allows the participant to

choose whether a factor contributes to their satisfaction or dissatisfaction. The scale value circled will then indicate how they feel about that factor. The values for each scale are also defined to allow for consistency between participants, so that each participant circling a three, for example, will use the same definition for that value. The values are defined in the following ways: 1 = slightly satisfied/dissatisfied; 2 = somewhat satisfied/dissatisfied; 3 = moderately satisfied/dissatisfied; 4 = highly satisfied/dissatisfied. The Likert scales were limited to four points in order to not allow for a neutral response on any particular factor. Blank (1993) reported reliabilities of this scale of .90 for his pilot study and .83 for his full dissertation study. These alpha coefficients indicate a high degree of internal consistency for the instrument (Coladarci, et al., 2004).

Survey Part III: Demographic Data

The third part of the survey packet (see Appendix C) asked participants for demographic and descriptive information. This information was used to determine if relationships exist between particular job satisfaction/dissatisfaction levels and a particular demographic characteristic (Coladarci, et al., 2004). “Colleges and universities are no longer operating in a period of homogenous student representation” (Jackson, 2003, p. 21). As such, it is important to understand the different perspectives of participants based on demographic variables. Demographic data allow researchers to explore whether results are significant within subcultures (Attinasi & Nora, 1996).

Data Collection

Written authorization was obtained from Dr. Elizabeth Ann Bailey to use her copyrighted survey for this study (see Appendix B). Written authorization was also

obtained from the Washington State University Institutional Review Board for Human Subjects Review (see Appendix B). The population for this study consisted of directors of residence life, student activities, and Greek life at four-year land grant colleges and universities in the United States yielding a population numbering 123. Land grant colleges and universities were determined based on the Carnegie classification for land grant colleges and universities. The researcher created a list of those colleges/universities and then gleaned information from those individual college/university websites to determine the directors of residence life, student activities, and Greek life. Positions that were not currently filled, numbering 29, were excluded, yielding a final sample of 94. Survey packets including the three survey parts along with a cover letter (see Appendix C) were mailed to the sample.

Survey packets were assigned case numbers prior to mailing for the purpose of being able to track who may need a follow-up reminder. A self-addressed stamped envelope was included in the mailing for ease of survey return. Reminder survey packets were sent to those who had not responded to the initial mailing of the survey by the four-week deadline noted in the original cover letter. A third survey packet was sent to the participants who had not responded by four weeks after the second reminder mailing date. A high return rate of 70%, as reported by McMillan and Schumacher (2001), helps to limit bias in the results among the total sample population.

Analysis

The analysis of this study focuses on the research question through the examination of the significant correlations between factors of satisfaction/dissatisfaction and demographic variables. The qualitative data were analyzed utilizing content analysis

to determine which factor of satisfaction/dissatisfaction the participant was most closely describing. The incorporated the coded responses to the open-ended questions to further describe the significant analyses of variance results.

Survey Part I, the open-ended questions, was analyzed utilizing content analysis to determine which satisfaction/dissatisfaction factor with which the response most closely aligns. Content analysis allowed the researcher to code qualitative data according to a set of categories that were predetermined by previous research or theory (Wimmer & Dominick, 2000). Content analysis also allowed the researcher to determine the issues most salient to the participants as well as gain further insights into the feelings of satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

Open-ended answers were coded and categorized according to Blank's definitions of each of Herzberg's satisfaction and dissatisfaction factors. Once statistical analysis was complete on the Likert-type survey part, the qualitative data were then used to further explain the significant findings.

Survey Part II, the Likert scaling of Herzberg's job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction factors, and Survey Part III, the demographic variables, were analyzed using SPSS statistical analysis software. Statistical analyses included: frequencies, means, standard deviation, correlations, and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to further explore significant correlations between satisfaction/dissatisfaction factors and demographics. Frequency distributions allowed the researcher to view data in terms of the frequency of the occurrence of each possible response in the entire set of data (Coladarci, et al., 2004). The mean revealed the average response to each factor as reported by the participants (Coladarci, et al., 2004). Standard deviation results allowed

the researcher to see how data were distributed according to the mean (Coladarci, et al., 2004). Correlation statistics revealed if a relationship existed between the two variables (Coladarci, et al., 2004). One-way ANOVA allowed the researcher to see “the sources of variance in a set of scores on one or more independent variables” (Wimmer & Dominick, 2000, p. 276). In this study, the one-way ANOVA was the appropriate methodological approach to determine if between-group differences existed among demographic variables.

Summary

This chapter described the research methodology used for this study. The population for this study consisted of directors of residence life, student activities, and Greek life at four-year land grant colleges and universities in the United States yielding a population numbering 123. Land grant colleges and universities were determined based on the Carnegie classification for land grant colleges and universities. The researcher created a list of those colleges/universities and then gleaned information from those individual college/university websites to determine the directors of residence life, student activities, and Greek life. Positions that were not currently filled, numbering 29, were excluded, yielding a final sample of 94. The three-part survey instrument consisted of open-ended questions, a Likert-type scale for job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, and a demographic instrument. A cover letter and the survey were mailed to each participant with a self-addressed stamped envelope. Reminder packets were sent twice to participants who had yet to respond. Data were analyzed to determine significant correlations between the factors of satisfaction/dissatisfaction and demographic variables. Data analysis will be further described in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

This chapter describes the analysis of the data and the findings of the study. Analysis was completed to address the research question which sought to determine the nature of the correlation of demographics to Herzberg's factors of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Content analysis was performed for open-ended response data, and responses were coded according to Herzberg's satisfaction and dissatisfaction factors. These data were used later to describe statistically significant between-group differences for significant correlations. Statistical analyses were performed with the data collected in the Likert-type scale for level of satisfaction/dissatisfaction with each of Herzberg's 16 factors of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction as compared with each demographic variable. Statistically significant correlations were tested using one-way ANOVA to determine whether significant between-group differences exist. Open-ended response data were used to provide explanation of the statistically significant between-group differences.

Brief Description of Participants

The population for this study consisted of directors of residence life, student activities, and Greek life at four-year land grant colleges and universities in the United States yielding a population numbering 123. Land grant colleges and universities were determined based on the Carnegie classification for land grant colleges and universities. The researcher created a list of those colleges/universities and then gleaned information from those individual college/university websites to determine the directors of residence life, student activities, and Greek life. Positions that were not currently filled, numbering

29, were excluded, yielding a final sample of 94. McMillan and Schumacher (2001) described a 70% response rate for mailing surveys is considered a high return rate. Wimmer and Dominick (2000) report that mail surveys hold an average response rate of 47%. The response rate for this study was 66 surveys, yielding a high return rate of 70%.

The largest percentage of participants in each demographic category were male (56.1%), between the ages of 40 and 49 (37.9%), Caucasian (90.9%), married (59.1%), held a Masters degree (65.2%), had an annual salary of over \$50,000 (72.7%), had 10-19 years of post-baccalaureate experience in student affairs (45.5%), currently work in residence life (39.4%), with 10-19 years of experience in their current functional area (50.0%), and had been in their current position four to nine years (43.9%). The full frequency results for each demographic variable are included in Table 1 on the following page.

Table 1: Frequency Distribution for Demographic Variables

The category resulting in the highest percentage of participants is highlighted in bold throughout Table 1

<i>Demographic</i>	<i>Category</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>%</i>
Gender	Female	29	43.9
	Male	37	56.1
Age	Under 30	5	7.6
	30-39	19	28.8
	40-49	25	37.9
	50-59	14	21.2
	60 and above	3	4.5
Ethnic Background	African American	3	4.5
	Caucasian/White	60	90.9
	Hispanic	2	3.0
	Blended	1	1.5
Marital Status	Single	23	34.8
	Married	39	59.1
	Divorced	4	6.1
Highest Degree Completed	Bachelors	3	4.5
	Masters	43	65.2
	Doctorate	18	27.3
	Other	2	3
Annual Salary	\$20-29,000	2	3.0
	\$30-39,000	7	10.6
	\$40-49,000	9	13.6
	\$50,000 or higher	48	72.7
Years of Post-Baccalaureate Experience in Student Affairs	3 years or less	5	7.6
	4-9 years	6	9.1
	10-19 years	30	45.5
	20 years or more	25	37.9
Current Functional Area	Greek Life	19	28.8
	Housing/Residence Life	26	39.4
	Student Activities	20	30.3
Years of Experience in Current Functional Area	3 years or less	6	9.1
	4-9 years	10	15.2
	10-19 years	33	50.0
	20 years or more	17	25.8
Years in Current Position	3 years or less	20	30.3
	4-9 years	29	43.9
	10-19 years	14	21.2
	20 years or more	3	4.5

Analysis of Open-Ended Questions

Data collected through open-ended questions were coded according the definitions of Herzberg's factors of job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. Content analysis was performed for each response to determine with which one of Herzberg's factors the response most closely aligns. The qualitative data were then separated for each demographic variable, grouping responses according to their demographic association. For example, all the responses provided by women were grouped together as were all of the responses by men. Once statistical analysis was completed, the open-ended response data were then used to further describe the significant interrelationships among job satisfaction/dissatisfaction and demographic variables.

Statistical Analysis

Both the Likert-type scale and demographic parts of the survey instrument were analyzed using SPSS Statistical Analysis software. Data were analyzed for frequencies, means, and correlations in order to find statistically significant correlations between satisfaction/dissatisfaction factors and demographics. One-way ANOVA was performed for statistically significant correlations to determine which between-group differences were also statistically significant.

The second part of the survey, asked participants to identify and rate factors that contributed to satisfaction or dissatisfaction. The responses from the participants resulted in a high level of reliability for each satisfaction/dissatisfaction factor. This part of the survey had a reliability alpha of .84, indicating a high reliability for the individual factors. Reliability alphas greater than .80 are considered to have high reliability (Coladarci, et al., 2004). Responses to this part of the survey were recoded to aid in easily classifying

results as contributing to satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Responses indicating levels of satisfaction were coded in the following way: slightly satisfied = 5, somewhat satisfied = 6, moderately satisfied = 7, and highly satisfied = 8. Responses identified by participants as contributing to levels of dissatisfaction were coded in the following way: slightly dissatisfied = 4, somewhat dissatisfied = 3, moderately dissatisfied = 2, and highly dissatisfied = 1.

Overall Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction

Though the overall instrument was reliable in measuring each individual factor, the factors Herzberg identified as contributing to satisfaction, those being achievement, advancement, growth, recognition, responsibility, and the work itself, did not hold statistical reliability as a multi-variate measure in this study. These factors, when combined together to measure overall satisfaction, only yielded a reliability alpha of .65, which does not meet the .80 measure for high reliability (Coladarci et al., 2004). Similarly, the factors associated with dissatisfaction, those being all interpersonal relationships, organizational policy and administration, status, supervision, and working conditions, also did not yield statistical reliability to accurately measure overall dissatisfaction in this study. The alpha for these combined factors for overall dissatisfaction was only .76. As a result, overall satisfaction and dissatisfaction measures were not considered reliable. Therefore, Herzberg's factors were analyzed as individual measures of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

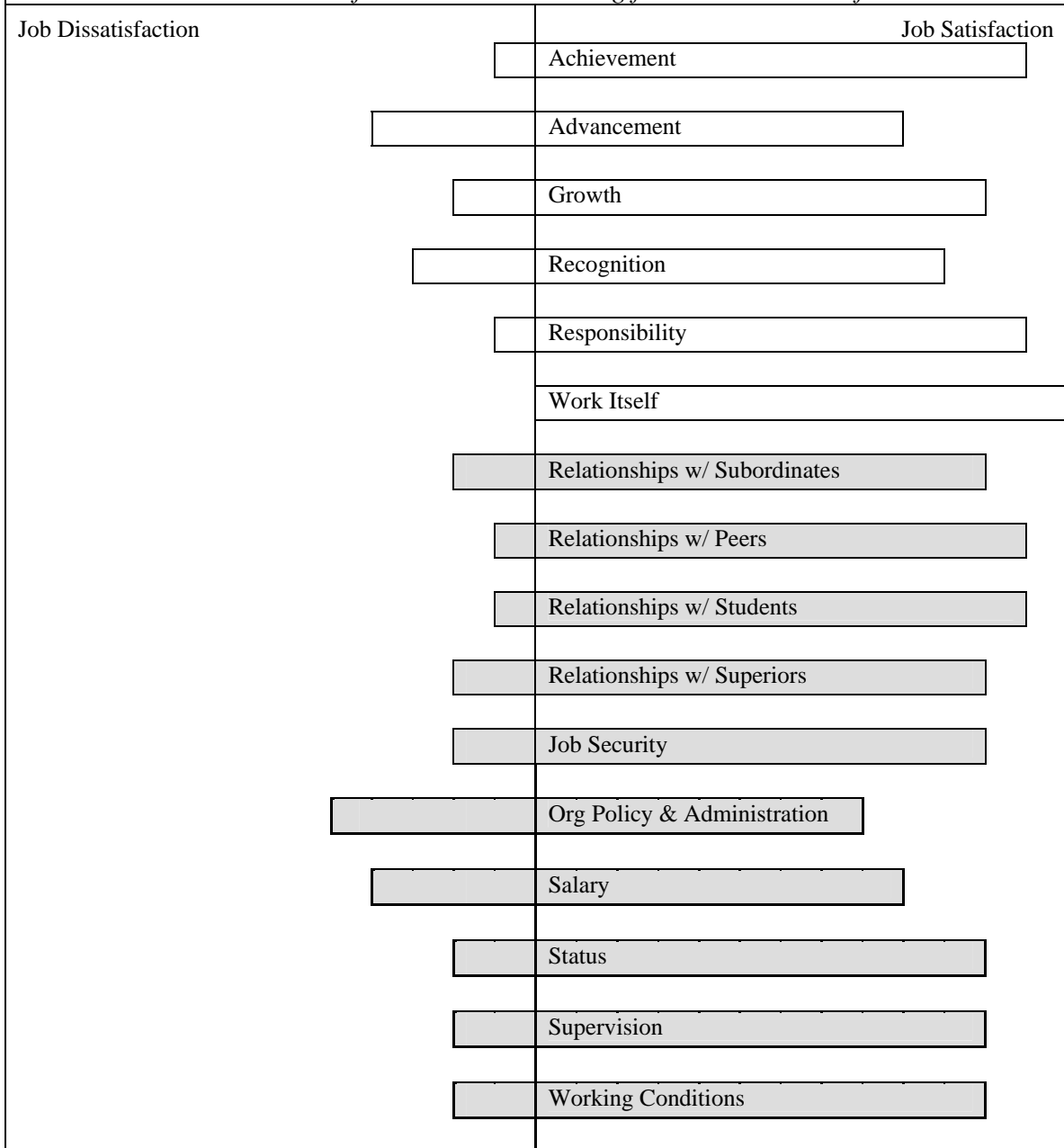
A second difference resulted from this study. The majority of all respondents identified each factor as one with which they were satisfied. As indicated in the shaded rows of Table 2, the findings of this study showcase that the majority of participants rated

Herzberg's dissatisfier variables as satisfiers. Herzberg identified interpersonal relationships, job security, organizational policy and administration, salary, status, supervision, and working conditions as dissatisfiers. However, the majority of participants in this study identified those factors as satisfiers in the following percentages: interpersonal relationship with subordinates 90.9%, interpersonal relationship with peers 93.9%, interpersonal relationships with students 95.5%, interpersonal relationships with superiors 83.3%, job security 86.4%, organizational policy and administration 62.1%, salary 68.2%, status 86.2%, supervision 87.9%, and working conditions 86.4% (see Table 2 on the following page). In some cases a participant did not answer all of the questions, resulting in some factors with $n = 65$ and some with $n = 66$.

Table 2: Frequency of Factors Identified as Satisfiers or Dissatisfiers				
<i>Shaded rows indicated those factors which Herzberg found to be dissatisfiers</i>				
	<i>N</i>	<i>Identification</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>
Achievement	65	Satisfier	63	96.9
		Dissatisfier	2	3.1
Advancement	65	Satisfier	26	70.8
		Dissatisfier	19	29.2
Growth	65	Satisfier	55	84.6
		Dissatisfier	10	15.4
Relationship w/ Subordinates	66	Satisfier	59	90.9
		Dissatisfier	7	9.1
Relationship w/ Peers	66	Satisfier	62	93.9
		Dissatisfier	4	6.1
Relationship w/ Students	66	Satisfier	63	95.5
		Dissatisfier	3	4.5
Relationship w/ Superiors	66	Satisfier	55	83.3
		Dissatisfier	11	16.7
Job Security	66	Satisfier	57	86.4
		Dissatisfier	9	13.6
Org Policy & Administration	66	Satisfier	41	62.1
		Dissatisfier	25	37.9
Recognition	66	Satisfier	50	85.8
		Dissatisfier	16	24.2
Responsibility	65	Satisfier	61	93.8
		Dissatisfier	4	6.2
Salary	66	Satisfier	45	68.2
		Dissatisfier	21	31.8
Status	65	Satisfier	56	86.2
		Dissatisfier	9	13.8
Supervision	66	Satisfier	58	87.9
		Dissatisfier	8	12.1
Work Itself	66	Satisfier	66	100.0
		Dissatisfier	0	0.0
Working Conditions	66	Satisfier	57	86.4
		Dissatisfier	9	13.6

As shown in Figure 4, these results of this study do not agree with Herzberg's categorization of factors as satisfiers or dissatisfiers (see Figure 2).

Figure 4: Frequency of Responses Identified as Dissatisfiers or Satisfiers
Shaded rows indicated those factors which Herzberg found to be dissatisfiers



Demographics

The demographic variables used for this study were as follows: gender, age, ethnic background, marital status, highest degree completed, annual salary, years of post-baccalaureate experience in student affairs, current functional area, years of experience in

current functional area, and years in current position. The following sections will discuss the presence or absence of statistically significant correlations between the demographic variables and the factors of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

No Statistically Significant Correlations

Statistical analysis revealed that two demographic variables from the survey held no statistically significant correlation to any of the 16 factors of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. The demographic variables that showed no significant correlations were marital status and years in current position.

Significant Correlation without Significant Between-Group Differences

The demographic variables of age, years of post-baccalaureate experience in student affairs, and years of experience in current functional area showed statistically significant correlations to one or more of the job satisfaction/dissatisfaction variables. However, for those statistically significant correlations, there were no statistically significant between-group differences. For example, age was shown to have a statistically significant correlation with achievement; however there was not a statistically significant difference between how participants under the age of 30 responded as compared with other age ranges.

Age. Statistical analyses revealed a significant correlation between age and two factors of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. These factors were achievement and status. Each of these correlations were significant at the .05 level. The .05 level of significance indicates that only 5 times out of 100 the results will be due to chance.

Age and achievement resulted in a Pearson r of .246 (see Table 3). The coefficient of determination was .061. The coefficient of determination describes how

much of the variance is explained in the correlation. A coefficient of determination of .061 means that 6.1% of the time the variation between the variables can be described by each other. The coefficient of determination measure shows that though the correlation is statistically significant, the actual level of explanation is only 6% for the relationship between age and achievement.

Age and status resulted in a Pearson r of .284 (see Table 3). The coefficient of determination (r^2) was .081. A coefficient of determination of .081 means that 8.1% of the time the variation between the variables can be described by each other. The coefficient of determination measure shows that though the correlation is statistically significant, the actual level of explanation is only a little over 8% for the relationship between age and status.

Table 3: Significant Correlations—Age N=65		
Achievement	Pearson Correlation (r)	.246*
	Coefficient of Determination (r^2)	.061
	Significance (2-tailed)	.048
Status	Pearson Correlation (r)	.284*
	Coefficient of Determination (r^2)	.081
	Significance (2-tailed)	.022

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Years of Post-Baccalaureate Experience in Student Affairs. Statistical analyses revealed a significant correlation between years of post-baccalaureate student affairs experience and only one of the variables of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. The satisfaction/dissatisfaction level for one's salary showed a statistically significant

correlation with years of post-baccalaureate student affairs experience. This correlation was significant at the .05 level.

The analysis of years of post-baccalaureate experience in student affairs and salary resulted in a Pearson r of .293 (see Table 4). The coefficient of determination was .086. The coefficient of determination measure shows that though the correlation is statistically significant, only 8.6 of the variance can be explained by this relationship.

Table 4: Significant Correlations—Years of Post-Baccalaureate Student Affairs Experience N=65		
Salary	Pearson Correlation (r)	.293*
	Coefficient of Determination (r^2)	.086
	Significance (2-tailed)	.017

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Years of Experience in Current Functional Area. Statistical analyses revealed a significant correlation between years of experience in current functional area and satisfaction/dissatisfaction with one's salary. This correlation was significant at the .05 level. The Pearson r for this relationship was .300, resulting in a coefficient of determination of .090 (see Table 5). This coefficient of determination indicates that 9.0% of the variance between these variables can be explained by this relationship. Again, though statistically significant, this relationship is not significant on a practical level.

Table 5: Significant Correlations—Years of Experience in Current Functional Area		
N=66		
Salary	Pearson Correlation (r)	.300*
	Coefficient of Determination (r ²)	.090
	Significance (2-tailed)	.014

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Significant Correlations and Significant Between Group Differences

Results of this study show that several demographic variables held statistically significant relationships with job satisfaction/dissatisfaction variables. The relationships explored in this section also showed that some of those statistically significant correlations also held statistically significant between-group differences, as determined by the one-way ANOVA. The demographic variables described in this section are: gender, ethnic background, highest degree completed, annual salary, and current functional area.

Gender. Statistical analyses revealed a significant correlation between gender and only one of the factors of job satisfaction/dissatisfaction. The statistically significant correlation was between gender and job security (see Table 6). This correlation was significant at the .05 level. The Pearson r for this correlation was .273, with a coefficient of determination of .075. This coefficient of determination measure shows that though the relationship between gender and job security is statistically significant, only 7.5% of the variance can be described. Though the correlation is statistically significant, the practical implications of the relationship are limited due to the low coefficient of determination.

Table 6: Significant Correlations—Gender		
N=66		
Job Security	Pearson Correlation (r)	.273*
	Coefficient of Determination (r ²)	.075
	Significance (2-tailed)	.026

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

The statistically significant relationship between gender and job security was then tested for statistically significant between-group differences using the one-way ANOVA. The ANOVA analysis revealed that there is a statistically significant difference between groups as those groups rated their satisfaction/dissatisfaction level with job security (see Table 7).

Table 7: One-Way ANOVA—Gender					
Job Security	<i>Sum of Squares</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Mean Square</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Between Groups	13.672	1	13.672	5.162	.026*
Within Groups	169.418	64	2.647		
Total	183.091	65			

*Significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed)

A comparison of means was conducted to further detail the between-group difference in how the genders rated job satisfaction/dissatisfaction with job security (see Table 8). The mean score for females rating job satisfaction/dissatisfaction with job security was 7.24. This mean falls between the descriptions of moderately satisfied and highly satisfied. The mean score for males was 6.32, which falls between the rating descriptions of somewhat satisfied and moderately satisfied.

Job Security	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Standard Deviation</i>
Female	29	7.24	1.504
Male	37	6.32	1.717
Total	66	6.73	1.678

In order to better understand the reasons behind this statistically significant difference of means, content analysis was performed for the open-ended questions to identify qualitative data which were coded as related to job security. Job security in this study was defined as clear indications of the likelihood or unlikelihood of continuous employment, such as tenure, permanent contracts, budgetary stability, and assurances of continued employment. The content analysis did not result in responses consistent with the definition of job security.

Ethnic Background. Statistical analyses revealed a statistically significant correlation between ethnic background and four factors of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction (see Table 9). One correlation was significant at the .01 level. A significance level of .01 indicates that only 1 time out of 100 results will be due to chance. This correlation was between ethnic background and recognition. The Pearson *r* for this correlation was .339, with a coefficient of determination of .115. This coefficient of determination shows that 11.5% of the variance for these variables can be explained by this statistically significant correlation.

Three correlations were significant at the .05 level (see Table 9). These correlations were between ethnic background and interpersonal relationships with peers, salary, and working conditions. The Pearson *r* for the correlation between ethnic

background and interpersonal relationship with peers was .285, resulting in a coefficient of determination of .081. This coefficient of determination shows a practical significance of the relationship by showing that 8.1% of the variance between the variables is explained by this relationship. The Pearson r for the correlation between ethnic background and salary was .278, with a corresponding coefficient of determination of .077, revealing that 7.7% of the variance is described by the relationship between these two variables. The Pearson r for the relationship between ethnic background and working conditions was .288. The coefficient of determination was .083 revealing that 8.3% of the variance for these variables can be described by this statistically significant relationship.

Interpersonal Relationships w/Peers	Pearson Correlation (r)	.285*
	Coefficient of Determination (r ²)	.081
	Significance (2-tailed)	.020
Recognition	Pearson Correlation (r)	.339**
	Coefficient of Determination (r ²)	.115
	Significance (2-tailed)	.005
Salary	Pearson Correlation (r)	.278*
	Coefficient of Determination (r ²)	.077
	Significance (2-tailed)	.024
Working Conditions	Pearson Correlation (r)	.288*
	Coefficient of Determination (r ²)	.083
	Significance (2-tailed)	.019

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

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

Subsequent one-way ANOVA measures showed no statistically significant between-group differences among the different ethnicities as they related to interpersonal relationships with peers, salary, or working conditions. However, there was a statistically significant between-group difference for the ethnicities as they related to recognition at the .05 level (see Table 10).

Table 10: One-Way ANOVA—Ethnic Background					
Recognition	<i>Sum of Squares</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Mean Square</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Between Groups	28.408	3	9.469	3.828	.014*
Within Groups	153.350	62	2.473		
Total	181.758	65			

*Significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed)

A comparison of means was conducted to further detail the between-group difference in how those from different ethnic backgrounds rated job satisfaction/dissatisfaction with recognition (see Table 11). The mean score for those from a blended background was 8.00. There was only one participant who reported themselves as from a blended background. This participant reported that their satisfaction level for recognition was highly satisfied. Two participants reported being from an Hispanic American background. Both of these participants indicated being highly satisfied with recognition in their jobs. The mean score for participants from a Caucasian background was 7.15, which falls between the satisfaction levels of moderately satisfied and highly satisfied. The scores of the three participants reporting an African American background combined for a mean score of 5.33. This mean score falls between the satisfaction levels of slightly satisfied and somewhat satisfied.

Table 11: Comparison of Means—Ethnic Background			
Recognition	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Standard Deviation</i>
African American	3	5.33	3.055
Caucasian/White	60	7.15	1.246
Hispanic American	2	8.00	.000
Blended	1	8.00	
Total	66	7.11	1.371

In order to better understand the reasons behind this statistically significant difference of means, content analysis was performed for the open-ended questions to identify qualitative data which were coded as related to recognition. Recognition in this study is defined as attention in the form of praise, personal acknowledgement by management, and reward that is directly related to task accomplishment.

Participants of Hispanic American and blended ethnic backgrounds did not list factors of recognition as either of the two factors contributing most to satisfaction and dissatisfaction in their jobs. Only one of the three African American participants discussed recognition in their open-ended responses, listing it as one of the top two factors contributing to satisfaction in their job. This participant reported satisfaction with “the degree to which student leaders and student groups acknowledge the benefits of the services provided on a daily basis.”

Caucasians listed recognition as both a factor contributing to satisfaction and dissatisfaction in their jobs. Caucasian participants who identified recognition as one of the two factors contributing most to satisfaction described the recognition within their division of student affairs as one of professional respect. When listed as a factor

contributing to dissatisfaction, participants described the “lack of understanding and appreciation of student affairs by upper administration” outside of student affairs.

Participants also described being blamed by administration outside of student affairs for the choices of students. One participant reported that “we professionals continually get blamed for students’ choices.”

Participants described issues regarding recognition as both factors that contributed to satisfaction and dissatisfaction in their jobs. However, this content analysis did not reveal any clear explanations of the differences in the between-group means.

Highest Degree Completed. Statistical analyses revealed a statistically significant correlation between ethnic background and three factors of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction (see Table 12). One of those three statistically significant correlations was significant at the .01 level. This correlation was between highest degree completed and achievement. The Pearson r for this correlation was .326, with a coefficient of determination of .106. This coefficient of determination shows that 10.6% of the variance for these variables can be explained by this statistically significant correlation.

Two correlations were significant at the .05 level (see Table 12). These correlations were between highest degree completed and interpersonal relationships with peers and status. The Pearson r for the correlation between highest degree completed and interpersonal relationship with peers was $-.272$. This negative correlation indicates that as one of the variables increases, the other decreases. The coefficient of determination for this correlation was .074. This coefficient of determination shows a practical significance of the relationship by showing that 7.4% of the variance between the variables is explained by this relationship.

Status also showed a statistically significant relationship with highest degree completed. The Pearson r for this relationship was .305, which resulted in a coefficient of determination of .093 (see Table 12). This coefficient of determination indicates that 9.3% of the variance between status and highest degree completed can be explained by this interaction.

Achievement	Pearson Correlation (r)	.326**
	Coefficient of Determination (r^2)	.106
	Significance (2-tailed)	.009
Interpersonal Relationship w/Peers	Pearson Correlation (r)	-.272*
	Coefficient of Determination (r^2)	.074
	Significance (2-tailed)	.029
Status	Pearson Correlation (r)	.305*
	Coefficient of Determination (r^2)	.093
	Significance (2-tailed)	.014

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

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

A one-way ANOVA measure resulted in no statistically significant between-group difference for highest degree completed as they related to status. However, there was a statistically significant between-group difference for the highest degree completed as it related to achievement and interpersonal relationships with peers. The between-group differences for highest degree completed in combination with achievement were statistically significant at the .05 level (see Table 13). The between-group differences for highest degree completed when associated with interpersonal relationships with peers

was statistically significant at the .001 level (see Table 13). The .001 level of significance indicates that in less than 1 time out of 100 cases will results be due to chance.

Achievement	<i>Sum of Squares</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Mean Square</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Between Groups	5.670	3	1.890	3.570	.019*
Within Groups	31.767	60	.529		
Total	37.438	63			
Interpersonal Relationships w/Peers					
Between Groups	27.663	3	9.221	5.998	.001***
Within Groups	93.783	61	1.537		
Total	121.446	64			

*Significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed)

***Significant at the 0.001 level (1-tailed)

A comparison of means was conducted to further explain the statistically significant between-group results of the correlation between highest degree completed and the job satisfaction/dissatisfaction variables of achievement and interpersonal relationships with peers (see Table 14). The one participant whose highest degree completed was an associate’s degree, classified as “other” in this study, indicated a satisfaction level of 8.00, highly satisfied, with regard to achievement. The mean score for participants with doctoral degrees, either a Ph.D. or an Ed.D., was 7.67, indicating a mean satisfaction level also between moderately satisfied and highly satisfied. Ratings for participants whose highest degree is a masters degree resulted in a mean score of 7.35, which falls between the rating descriptions of moderately satisfied and highly

satisfied, but closer to moderately satisfied. Participants whose highest degree completed was a bachelor's degree reported a mean score of 6.00, somewhat satisfied, when rating their level of satisfaction with achievement.

Table 14: Comparison of Means—Highest Degree Completed			
Achievement	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Standard Deviation</i>
Bachelor's Degree	2	6.00	2.828
Master's Degree	43	7.35	.686
Doctoral Degree	18	7.67	.485
Other	1	8.00	
Total	64	7.41	.771
Interpersonal Relationships w/Peers			
Bachelor's Degree	3	7.67	.577
Master's Degree	43	7.21	1.186
Doctoral Degree	18	7.00	1.414
Other	1	2.00	
Total	65	7.09	1.378

Content analysis of open-ended questions was used to better understand the statistically significant between-group differences. Achievement is defined as successful or unsuccessful completion of a job, solution or non-solution of problems, and seeing the results of one's own work. Interpersonal relationships with peers was defined as pleasant or unpleasant interactions with persons at the same level in the organizational hierarchy.

Open-ended responses from participants with an associate's or bachelor's degree as their highest degree did not reflect achievement as one of the top two factors contributing to their job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Consequently, content analysis

could provide no further detail as to possible reasons why the mean for those with a bachelor's degree is so much lower than their counterparts.

However, participants holding master's degrees described achievement on a personal level. Responses from these participants described their personal achievements in their work. Participant responses from this level of degree attainment included "the ability to be creative and follow through on my ideas" and "I think I'm making a positive contribution to students' experience on the campus. I find it very rewarding personally".

Participants who had completed a doctorate degree contributed to a mean satisfaction score that was higher than participants with only a master's degree. Participants with a doctoral degree described achievement from a larger perspective beyond personal accomplishment. One participant described their sense of achievement in the following way: "seeing my staff achieve their goals—implementing programs that are effective and well-received." Another participant described their sense of achievement as the "opportunity to lead a unit that strives for mission accomplishment, and where continuous improvement is a hallmark". Participants with doctoral degrees considered achievement from a staff and student perspective—if the staff and students are successful, then those participants reported feeling that they had achieved something important.

Content analysis of open-ended responses identifying interpersonal relationships with peers as one of the top two factors contributing to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction offered no clear delineation between groups for highest degree completed. All participants who listed interpersonal relationships with peers called it a factor contributing to job satisfaction, and described their peer colleagues as quality individuals

with whom they enjoyed working. Open-ended responses did not offer further clarification on the statistically significant between-group differences for the variable of interpersonal relationships with peers.

Annual Salary. The demographic of annual salary, when compared to the factors of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction revealed three statistically significant correlations (see Table 15). The respondent's annual salary held a statistically significant relationship to their level of satisfaction/dissatisfaction with their salary at the .01 level (see Table 15). The Pearson r for this correlation was .401, which resulted in a coefficient of determination of .161. This coefficient of determination indicates that 16.1% of the variance in satisfaction/dissatisfaction with salary is related to the participants' annual salary.

The remaining two statistically significant correlations were between annual salary and the satisfaction/dissatisfaction factors of achievement and advancement (see Table 15). These correlations were significant at the .05 level. The Pearson r for the correlation between annual salary and achievement was .263, which resulted in a coefficient of determination of .069 (see Table 15). This coefficient indicates that 6.9% of the variance can be explained by the relationship between these two variables. The correlation between annual salary and advancement resulted in a Pearson r of .257 and a subsequent coefficient of the determination of .066 (see Table 15). This coefficient shows that the relationship between these two variables accounts for 6.6% of the variance.

Table 15: Significant Correlations—Annual Salary N=65		
Achievement	Pearson Correlation (r)	.263*
	Coefficient of Determination (r ²)	.069
	Significance (2-tailed)	.034
Advancement	Pearson Correlation (r)	.257*
	Coefficient of Determination (r ²)	.066
	Significance (2-tailed)	.039
Salary	Pearson Correlation (r)	.401**
	Coefficient of Determination (r ²)	.161
	Significance (2-tailed)	.001

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

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

A one-way ANOVA measure resulted in no statistically significant between-group difference for highest degree completed as it related to advancement. However, the test resulted in statistically significant between-group differences as annual salary ranges were correlated with achievement and satisfaction with salary.. The between-group differences for annual salary in combination with achievement was statistically significant at the .05 level (see Table 16). The between-group differences for annual salary when associated with satisfaction level with salary was statistically significant at the .01 level (see Table 16).

	<i>Sum of Squares</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Mean Square</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Achievement					
Between Groups	7.485	3	2.495	3.102	.033*
Within Groups	49.069	60	.804		
Total	56.554	63			
Salary					
Between Groups	66.322	3	22.107	5.614	.002**
Within Groups	244.163	62	3.938		
Total	310.485	65			

*Significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed)

**Significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed)

A comparison of means was conducted to further detail the between-group difference in how those from with different annual salary ranges rated their job satisfaction/dissatisfaction level with the statistically significant correlation with achievement and salary (see Table 17). The highest mean score for achievement was from participants with an annual salary range of \$40,000 to \$49,000. The mean for these participants was 7.44, falling between moderately satisfied and highly satisfied. The mean rating of achievement for participants in the annual salary range of \$50,000 and higher was 7.43, also falling between moderately satisfied and highly satisfied. The next highest mean score for achievement was from participants whose annual salary fell in the range of \$30,000 to \$39,000. The mean score for this group was 7.14, which falls between moderately satisfied and highly satisfied, though much closer to moderately satisfied. The group with the lowest mean satisfaction level with regard to achievement was those in the \$20,000 to \$29,000 annual salary range. The mean score for this group was 5.50, which falls between slightly satisfied and somewhat satisfied.

The demographic variable of annual salary also showed a statistically significant between-group difference with regard to their satisfaction/dissatisfaction rating of their salary (see Table 17). Those with the highest mean satisfaction level were participants in the \$50,000 and higher annual salary range. This mean score was 6.04, falling slightly above somewhat satisfied toward moderately satisfied. The mean score for participants in the annual salary range of \$30,000 to \$39,000 was 4.86. This score indicates that some of these participants rated their salary as a satisfier (coded ratings of 5-8) and some rated it as a dissatisfier (coded ratings of 1-4). This mean score falls between the ratings of slightly dissatisfied and slightly satisfied. Similarly, some participants in the \$40,000 to \$49,000 annual salary range indicated that salary was a satisfier and some indicated that salary was a dissatisfier. The mean score for this group was 4.11. Participants in the lowest annual salary range, \$20,000 to \$29,000 reported being the least satisfied with their salaries, resulting in a mean score of 1.50. This mean falls between highly dissatisfied and moderately dissatisfied.

Table 17: Comparison of Means—Annual Salary			
Achievement	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Standard Deviation</i>
\$20-29,000	2	5.50	2.121
\$30-39,000	7	7.14	.690
\$40-49,000	9	7.44	.726
\$50 and higher	47	7.43	.903
Total	65	7.34	.940
Salary			
\$20-29,000	2	1.50	.707
\$30-39,000	7	4.86	1.773
\$40-49,000	9	4.11	2.205
\$50 and higher	48	6.04	1.989
Total	66	5.52	2.186

Open-ended questions were analyzed using content analysis in order to better understand the statistically significant between-group differences for the annual salary ranges of participants as they correlate to achievement, and salary. Achievement was defined as successful or unsuccessful completion of a job, solution or non-solution of problems, and seeing the results of one’s own work. Salary was defined as wage and compensation factors, such as pay scales, adjustments, and reimbursements.

Open-ended responses from fourteen participants were coded as describing achievement as a factor relating to job satisfaction. Thirteen of those fourteen participants reported an annual salary range of \$50,000 or higher. The remaining case reported being in the annual salary range of \$30,000 to \$39,000. All participants described achievement as a factor associated with job satisfaction, not dissatisfaction, and described achievement as the success of their students and staff. Participants in the group

with the lowest mean score for satisfaction, those in the \$20,000 to \$29,000 annual salary range, did not describe salary in their open-ended responses of the top two factors associated with their satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Therefore, content analysis of the open-ended questions did not provide clear additional information to describe the between-group differences for achievement.

Nine participants from across all salary ranges described their salary as one of the top two factors associated with job satisfaction or dissatisfaction in the open-ended questions. Seven participants listed their salary as a dissatisfier, indicating that the amount of work required for the position exceeded the pay. The two participants who described salary as a satisfier provided no additional information in their open-ended responses; they only indicated that salary was a factor contributing to satisfaction. These responses came from across salary ranges, and therefore provide very little detail to explain the between-group differences.

Current Functional Area. Participants' current functional area showed a statistically significant correlation with four factors of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Two of these correlations were significant at the .01 level, and two were significant at the .05 level. The correlations between current functional area and the factors of achievement and interpersonal relationships with subordinates were significant at the .01 level. The Pearson r for the relationship between current functional area and achievement was .433, resulting in a coefficient of determination of .187 (see Table 18). This coefficient shows that the correlation between these two variables explains 18.7% of the variance for the variables. The Pearson r for the correlation between current functional area and interpersonal relationships with subordinates was .251. The coefficient of

determination for this correlation is .063 (see Table 18), indicating that 6.3% of the variance for these variables is explained by the relationships between them.

The two correlations with current functional area that were statistically significant at the .05 level were with status and the work itself. The Pearson r for the correlation between current functional area and status was .334 with a coefficient of determination of .112 (see Table 18). This coefficient shows that 11.2% of the variance is explained by this correlation. The Pearson r for the correlation between current functional area and the work itself was .380 with a coefficient of determination of .144 (see Table 18). This coefficient shows that 14.4% of the variance is described by this correlation.

Achievement	Pearson Correlation (r)	.433*
	Coefficient of Determination (r ²)	.187
	Significance (2-tailed)	.000
Interpersonal Relationships w/ Subordinates	Pearson Correlation (r)	.251*
	Coefficient of Determination (r ²)	.063
	Significance (2-tailed)	.044
Status	Pearson Correlation (r)	.334**
	Coefficient of Determination (r ²)	.112
	Significance (2-tailed)	.007
Work Itself	Pearson Correlation (r)	.380**
	Coefficient of Determination (r ²)	.144
	Significance (2-tailed)	.002

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

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

A one-way ANOVA test resulted in all four statistically significant correlations also showing statistically significant between-group differences. The between-group

differences for current functional area as they related to achievement was statistically significant at the .001 level (see Table 19). The between-group differences of current functional area for the factors of status and the work itself were statistically significant at the .01 level (see Table 19). The between-group differences of current functional area for the factor of interpersonal relationships with subordinates was statistically significant at the .05 level (see Table 19).

Table 19: One-Way ANOVA—Current Functional Area					
	<i>Sum of Squares</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Mean Square</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Achievement					
Between Groups	10.921	2	5.461	7.371	.001***
Within Groups	45.188	61	.741		
Total	56.109	63			
Interpersonal Relationships w/Subordinates					
Between Groups	14.281	2	7.141	3.733	.029*
Within Groups	118.580	62	1.913		
Total	132.862	64			
Status					
Between Groups	27.335	2	16.667	5.157	.009**
Within Groups	161.665	61	2.650		
Total	189.000	63			
Work Itself					
Between Groups	7.262	2	3.631	6.153	.004**
Within Groups	36.585	62	.590		
Total	43.846	64			

*Significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed)

**Significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed)

***Significant at the 0.001 level (1-tailed)

A comparison of means was conducted to further detail the between-group difference in how those in the different functional areas rated job satisfaction/dissatisfaction levels for achievement, interpersonal relationships with subordinates, status, and the work itself (see Table 20). The participant group with the highest mean score for satisfaction level as it pertains to achievement was student activities. The mean score for this group was 7.79, falling slightly below highly satisfied but higher than moderately satisfied. The group with the next highest mean score for satisfaction level with achievement was directors in residence life. The mean score for this group was 7.42, which falls slightly below the mid-point between moderately satisfied and highly satisfied. The functional area group with the lowest mean score for satisfaction level with achievement was Greek life. The mean score for this group of directors was 6.74, falling slightly below somewhat satisfied but above slightly satisfied.

Current functional area also showed a statistically significant between-group difference for the satisfaction/dissatisfaction ratings for interpersonal relationships with subordinates (see Table 20). The functional area group with the highest mean satisfaction/dissatisfaction score was student activities, with a mean score of 7.65. This score falls slightly above the midpoint between moderately satisfied and highly satisfied. The next highest mean score for interpersonal relationships with subordinates was in residence life, with a mean score of 7.42. This mean falls slightly below the midpoint between moderately satisfied and highly satisfied. The group with the lowest mean satisfaction score for achievement was Greek life. The mean for this group was 6.74, which falls between somewhat satisfied and moderately satisfied.

Statistically significant between-group differences also resulted with the variable of status (see Table 20). Satisfaction ratings among student activities directors resulted in the highest mean score of the three functional areas. The mean for this group was 6.85, which falls between somewhat satisfied and moderately satisfied. The second highest group mean was for directors in residence life, whose responses resulted in a mean score of 6.73. This mean falls between somewhat satisfied and moderately satisfied. The lowest mean resulted in responses from directors in Greek life. The mean for this group was 5.33, falling between slightly satisfied and somewhat satisfied.

The correlation between current functional area and work itself also produced statistically significant between-group differences (see Table 20). The group with the highest mean score of 7.80 was directors from student activities. This mean falls between the ratings of moderately satisfied and highly satisfied. The second highest mean of 7.15 resulted from the responses of directors from residence life. This mean score also falls between moderately satisfied and highly satisfied, but closer to moderate. Once again, the group with the lowest mean for satisfaction level with the work itself was Greek life. Responses from this group resulted in a mean score of 7.00 which is the rating level of moderately satisfied.

Table 20: Comparison of Means—Current Functional Area			
Achievement	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Standard Deviation</i>
Greek Life	19	6.74	1.327
Residence Life	26	7.42	.643
Student Activities	19	7.79	.419
Total	64	7.33	.944
Interpersonal Relationships w/Subordinates			
Greek Life	19	6.74	1.522
Residence Life	26	6.58	4.629
Student Activities	20	7.65	.745
Total	65	6.95	1.441
Status			
Greek life	18	5.33	2.196
Residence Life	26	6.73	1.373
Student Activities	20	6.85	1.309
Total	64	6.38	1.732
Work Itself			
Greek Life	19	7.00	.882
Residence Life	26	7.15	.881
Student Activities	20	7.80	.410
Total	65	7.31	.828

Content analysis of open-ended questions was used to better understand the statistically significant between-group differences for current functional area as it correlates to achievement, interpersonal relationships with subordinates, status, and work itself. Achievement was defined as successful or unsuccessful completion of a job, solution or non-solution of problems, and seeing the results of one's own work.

Interpersonal relationships with subordinates was defined as pleasant or unpleasant interactions with persons at lower levels in the organizational hierarchy. Status was defined as signs, symbols, or tokens of position and prestige, such as privileges, work space size and location, work space décor, and symbolic titles.

Fourteen open-ended responses were coded as relating to achievement. Each of those responses was considered a factor contributing toward job satisfaction of the participant. Eight responses came from participants in residence life, four were from student activities directors, and two responses were from directors of Greek life programs. Across these functional areas, there was little difference in the responses. Directors of student activities, the group with the highest mean satisfaction score, discussed achievement in terms of successful programs and events offered for students. The responses from directors of residence life directors focused on personal achievement as a reason that they are satisfied.

Directors of Greek life, the group with the lowest satisfaction mean score for achievement, responded that achievement was related to external indicators of which, ultimately, they had no control. They had influence in the change, but no ultimate control over whether or not the person or system chose to accept the change. One participant spoke of achievement as based in changing student lives, saying, "I enjoy seeing the positive changes in students during the year and knowing I helped with it." Another participant noted that one of the top two factors contributing to job satisfaction was the "ability to collaborate to produce change." The locus of control for these changes being considered successful was not with the participant as successful change occurs when the

person or system changes. This external locus of control could contribute to why this group's mean satisfaction score is so much lower than the others.

Responses coded as relating to interpersonal relationships with subordinates offered no clear delineation of content based on the participants' functional area. Those who listed these interpersonal relationships as a factor contributing to job satisfaction mentioned mentoring and the quality and dedication of their staff across the functional areas. Those listing these interpersonal relationships as a factor contributing toward job dissatisfaction used descriptors such as "whining", "pity party", and "negativity" of staff as reasons why these relationships contributed to their dissatisfaction. These were consistent across the functional groups, and therefore offered no further explanation as to the between-group differences of mean scores.

There were three responses which were coded as relating to status, one of which were factors contributing to satisfaction and two which contributed to dissatisfaction. There was one obvious difference in the responses based on the functional area of the participant. One Greek life director explained their dissatisfaction with the status of their position in this way: "The second factor [contributing to job dissatisfaction] is the low status of [Greek life director] position. This includes issues of pay and facility/office space; but is more focused on the layers between [the Greek life director] and the Vice President. Given the high profile negative issues that Greeks tend to create, [the Greek life director] should be higher on the organizational structure."

Responses coded as relating to the work itself offered some interesting differences between the groups. There were 26 responses which were coded as issues relating to work itself with six responses from directors of student activities, 11 responses from

directors of residence life, and nine responses from directors of Greek life. Responses from directors of student activities, the group with the highest mean satisfaction score with regard to the work itself, were listed with five responses being factors contributing toward satisfaction and one response of the work itself contributing toward dissatisfaction. Throughout the responses, the participants discussed the enjoyment of event management and programming for students. The single response indicating that the work itself contributes to job dissatisfaction mentioned that events happen on nights and weekends rather than during normal business hours.

Directors of residence life and Greek life showed mean satisfaction scores very close to each other with regard to rating the work itself, with the residence life mean score being 7.15 and the Greek life mean score being 7.00. Across these two functional areas, responses which listed the work itself as a satisfier were consistent, offering no clear delineation based on the functional area. Across these two functional areas, the responses which were listed as contributing to dissatisfaction described pressure from external sources as a source of dissatisfaction. Half of the responses from directors of residence life (six responses out of a total of twelve which focused on the work itself) categorized the nature of the work as a dissatisfier. These directors described the external pressure on their work. There were twelve responses from directors of residence life, six responses which listed the work as a satisfier and six responses that listed the work as a dissatisfier. These responses revolved around one central theme, the over-involvement of parents in every aspect of the students' lives. One participant described such parents as "helicopter parents—no matter how positive and helpful our staff can be, it is still not enough." Directors of Greek life listed the nature of the work as contributing to

dissatisfaction in nine cases of the eleven open-ended responses coded as work itself. These directors also described external pressures which negatively impacted their work. One participant described their dissatisfaction in the following way: “our office seems to stay under a lot of unnecessary scrutiny and we are forced to accommodate non-stakeholders when we should be serving students.” This participant offered no additional definition of who he/she considered a non-stakeholder, however external pressures remained consistent throughout these responses. Other participants described their dissatisfaction as stemming from the “unwillingness of alumni and advisors to support current policies and procedures [and their] unwillingness to help change system” and “political pressure from constituents including alumni, parents, trustees adds significant stress to my job.”

The nature of student affairs work in the functional areas of student activities, residence life, and Greek life are similar in some ways. All three functional areas offer events and programming to assist students as they develop socially and academically. However, there are differences in the work as well. Residence life and Greek life programs also offer developmental programming for students. However, these two functional areas are also responsible for addressing and changing ongoing negative student behavior issues. Responding to such issues often includes disciplinary action, which then creates the political pressure from internal and external constituents such as university administration, parents, and in the case of Greek life, national chapter organizations. Because these are pressures that directors in student activities departments do not often face, this could be why these directors rate a higher satisfaction level with the work itself than do their residence life and Greek life counterparts.

Summary

This chapter described the data analysis and the findings of the study. In several instances one of the participants did not answer a question, leaving some factors of satisfaction/dissatisfaction with $n = 65$ and some with $n = 66$. Content and statistical analysis methods were used to address the research question. The research question asked how demographic variables were correlated to factors of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction among student affairs directors in residence life, student activities, and Greek life. The results indicate that there were no statistically significant correlations between the factors of satisfaction/dissatisfaction and either of the two demographic variables of marital status or years of experience in current position.

Each of the demographic variables of age, years of post-baccalaureate experience in Student Affairs, and years of experience in current functional area showed statistically significant correlations with some of the satisfaction/dissatisfaction factors. Age was significantly correlated to achievement and status. Years of post-baccalaureate experience in Student Affairs showed a statistically significant correlation with satisfaction level for salary. Years of experience in current functional area also showed a statistically significant correlation with satisfaction level of salary. Though statistically significant correlations were found, none of these correlations resulted in statistically significant between-group differences of satisfaction/dissatisfaction ratings.

The demographic variables of gender, ethnic background, highest degree completed, annual salary range, and current functional area each showed statistically significant correlations to some of the factors of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Some of these statistically significant correlations also showed, through one-way

ANOVA tests, that significant between-group differences also existed. Gender was significantly correlated to job security; this correlation also showed a significant between-group difference in satisfaction ratings.

Ethnic background had statistically significant correlations with the satisfaction/dissatisfaction variables of interpersonal relationships with peers, recognition, salary, and working conditions. The correlation between ethnic background and recognition also showed a statistically significant between-group difference in the satisfaction/dissatisfaction ratings.

Highest degree completed showed three statistically significant correlations, with two of those correlations also showing statistically significant between-group differences. The three variables with significant correlations to highest degree completed were achievement, interpersonal relationships with peers, and status. Each of the correlations with achievement and interpersonal relationships with peers showed statistically significant between-group differences in ratings of satisfaction/dissatisfaction.

Annual salary range held statistically significant correlations with satisfaction/dissatisfaction ratings for achievement, advancement, and salary. The correlations with achievement and salary also showed statistically significant between-group differences.

The demographic variable of current functional area held four statistically significant correlations with factors of satisfaction/dissatisfaction. Each of these four correlations also showed statistically significant between-group differences in ratings of satisfaction/dissatisfaction levels. The four factors significantly correlated with current

functional area were achievement, interpersonal relationships with subordinates, status, and the work itself.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS

This study explored demographic variables that correlate to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction among student affairs professionals in residence life, student activities, and Greek life. Emphasis was placed on understanding the interrelationship between job satisfaction/dissatisfaction and selected demographic variables as identified by Blank (1993) and Bailey (1997). The selected demographic variables examined in this study included the following: gender; age; ethnic background; marital status; highest degree completed; salary; years of post-baccalaureate student affairs experience; current functional area; years of experience in current functional area; and years in current position. A number of studies of student affairs work have explored job satisfaction in higher education (Bender, 1980; Blackhurst, 2000a, 2000b; Rosser & Javinar, 2003). However those studies limited the use of demographic information to the basic use of describing participants. This chapter describes the conclusions drawn from the study as well as theoretical, methodological, and practical implications.

Herzberg's Dual Factor Theory (1966) asserts that when satisfier factors, also called motivation factors, are increased, job satisfaction increases. Participants in this study did not rate the 16 factors along the same satisfier/dissatisfier lines that Herzberg and others cited (see Figure 4). Herzberg's research (1976) showed that when management focused on increasing the motivation factors, job satisfaction increased at a greater rate than when they focused on trying to change the factors associated with dissatisfaction. The significance of this study was to identify ways to increase job satisfaction among the directors of residence life, student activities, and Greek life so

they would be more invested in the quality of programming for student development. For this reason, the results of content analysis for correlations with significant between-group differences were used to draw conclusions and offer implications for practice.

This study resulted in statistically significant demographic correlations with four of the six factors which Herzberg identified as satisfiers. Those factors were achievement, advancement, recognition, and work itself. The factors of achievement, recognition, and work itself also showed statistically significant between-group differences. Content analysis of the between-group differences offers several implications for practice. Though the influence of the demographic itself cannot always be mitigated, the lessons learned from the between-group differences can change the way directors' supervisors carry out their mentoring and guidance for these positions.

Achievement

Achievement held significant between-group differences for the demographic variables of highest degree completed, annual salary, and current functional area. This study defined achievement as successful or unsuccessful completion of a job, solution or non-solution of problems, and seeing the results of one's own work.

Content analysis of responses based on highest degree completed showed that those who were most satisfied with achievement held a doctoral degree. These participants viewed achievement as based in the success of their staff and students. Their view of achievement did not rest solely on what they personally accomplished. Those least satisfied with achievement viewed it from a personal-level perspective.

Content analysis which showed statistically significant between-group differences with regard to annual salary for achievement did not provide clear indication as to why

those differences existed. The annual salary group with the highest mean satisfaction score for achievement was that of \$50,000 and higher. The group with the lowest mean satisfaction score for achievement was the \$20,000 to \$29,000 group. Several participants from the highest mean score group discussed salary in their open-ended responses as a source of satisfaction. These responses were simple in nature, simply stating that salary and benefits contributed to their satisfaction. No participants from the lowest mean score group offered salary as a satisfier or dissatisfier in the open-ended section of the survey. As a result, there is no clear indication as to how salary level affects the sense of achievement at lower salary levels.

Open-ended responses addressing achievement and grouped based on current functional area provide no clear indication of why the difference exists. Participants from all three functional areas discussed achievement at both a personal and departmental level.

These conclusions suggest an implication that might be applicable for practice within the student affairs profession. Those who were most satisfied in their perception of achievement viewed achievement as a broader perspective than simply personal achievement. Those who were least satisfied in their perception of achievement viewed achievement from only a personal level. The supervisors of directors of residence life, student activities, and Greek life could provide ongoing training and mentoring to broaden the perspective of achievement in these directors. Significant changes in work and process do not often happen at the director level. However if directors' perspective of achievement focuses more in staff and student development, like those directors with

doctoral degrees, resulting in increased satisfaction in their work as their sense of achievement broadens.

Recognition

Recognition held a significant between-group difference for the demographic variable of ethnic background. This study defined recognition as attention in the form of praise, personal acknowledgement by management, and reward that is directly related to task accomplishment.

Participants from Hispanic American and blended ethnic backgrounds reported the highest level of satisfaction with regard to recognition. However, these participants did not describe recognition in their open-ended responses. Participants from an African American ethnic background held the lowest mean score, falling just above the “slightly satisfied” level. Only one participant from this ethnic background discussed recognition in the open-ended response, listing it as a satisfier.

The participants from a Caucasian ethnic background held a mean score slightly above “moderately satisfied.” Participants from this ethnic background identified recognition as both a satisfier and a dissatisfier in the open-ended responses. When listed as a satisfier, participants described a sense of professional respect from members of upper student affairs administration. When listed as a factor contributing to dissatisfaction, participants expressed that members outside of the realm of student affairs did not grasp the scope or nature of their work. These participants did not express a sense of professional respect from their colleagues from divisions of academic and business affairs.

Several participants indicated through their open-ended responses that there is a lack of understanding among administrators outside of student affairs of the scope and importance of the student affairs profession. Participants described the “lack of understanding and appreciation of student affairs by upper administration” outside of student affairs. Professionals throughout student affairs divisions should be more cognizant of the need for educating others in the academic community of the scope of student affairs work. Student affairs professionals should function with their non-student affairs colleagues with an understanding that there is little understanding outside of the student affairs community about the scope and breadth of the profession. There seems to be a sense of dissatisfaction because members of the university community outside of student affairs do not recognize the work of student affairs. Student affairs professionals at all levels should recognize and capitalize on opportunities to broaden the understanding of the entire academic community as to the scope and importance of student affairs work.

Work Itself

Work itself held a statistically significant between-group difference for the demographic variable of current functional area. The study defined the variable work itself as the nature of the task to be accomplished on the job (i.e., routine or varied, interesting or dull).

The functional areas of Greek life and residence life held relatively consistent mean satisfaction scores for the work itself variable. Additionally, open-ended responses were consistent in content across these two functional areas. Directors from the area of student activities held the highest mean satisfaction score for the work itself. Across all

three functional areas, when work itself was listed as a factor contributing to job satisfaction, participants described the programs that they developed and delivered for departmental staff and university students. Some of the participants from residence life and Greek life described the nature of the work as a contributory factor to job dissatisfaction. “Our office seems to stay under a lot of unnecessary scrutiny and we are forced to accommodate non-stakeholders when we should be serving students.” Analysis of these open-ended responses showed that the dissatisfaction occurred as a result of external pressures. Residence life directors discussed over-involved parents while Greek life directors mentioned external scrutiny based on high-profile mistakes their students made as well as pressure from alumni and national chapters.

These conclusions could result in a couple of ways in which directors could be supported in their work. Supervisors and upper student affairs administrators could institute mentoring and training programs for directors to provide them with skills to cope with external pressures. Such a mentoring program could also help directors focus on the programs instituted to not only see them as contributing to satisfaction, but to also use them as to deal with external constituents. For example, when an external constituent applies pressure to a director, that director could focus on the positive programming already in place or being developed to address the concern rather than allow them to be caught up in the complaint.

A second approach to supporting directors facing external pressures lies in staff development training. Supervisors could provide ongoing training for directors in ways to effectively communicate with someone who is challenging them. Ongoing training such as this can give directors the communication tools they need to confidently converse

with those who challenge them in a way that supports the institution as well as provides information to the complainant. Effectively bearing up under external pressure often lies in the confidence of the director. Raising this confidence level through training could lessen the impact of negative external pressures.

Theoretical Implications

Herzberg's theory proved useful in providing distinct factors of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. However, the grouping of certain factors as only satisfiers or only dissatisfiers did not reliably apply to this sample. The factors as defined are worth using again as individual factors of satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

This research could be also be extended by the addition of a leadership theory for studying this population's supervisors. Kouzes' and Posner's theory of exemplary leadership implores leaders to employ practices that provide recognition, acknowledgement for achievements, and working with employees to increase their investment and interest in the work they are doing. These three practices directly address three of the statistically significant correlations for job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Studying the leadership practices of this population's supervisors could increase the understanding of why the levels of satisfaction and dissatisfaction exist in this population.

Methodological Implications

This research can be expanded in several ways based on alternative methodological considerations in its analysis. For example, future researchers may choose to employ a Logit regression model, which takes into account categorical variables in its analysis. An additional line of inquiry could take the statistically significant results in between-group difference and explore these differences qualitatively

with either the same participants or a second sample of participants from the same population. The open-ended section of this research allowed for some qualitative data. However, a further exploration of these concepts would greatly enhance the understanding of how demographics influence job satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

A third line of inquiry could change the participant population to see if similar results are true across student affairs administration. This study explored the satisfaction/dissatisfaction of director-level administrators. The highest percentage of attrition in student affairs happens at the front-line administrator level. Using the same methodology, the researcher could explore the reasons why there is such a high attrition rate within the first three years of practice and whether demographics influence such attrition.

A fourth line of inquiry could explore the career pattern of satisfaction and dissatisfaction through a longitudinal study. The study could begin by surveying students in student affairs graduate programs from the time they graduate throughout their student affairs career. Surveys and interviews could be conducted throughout the span of the participants' student affairs careers. Those who stayed in the career field would provide data as to what periods in their career provided the highest levels of satisfaction and dissatisfaction. These participants could also provide information as to what specifically enhanced or decreased their levels of satisfaction throughout their career. Those who choose to leave the career field could participate in an "exit interview" in order to ascertain the reasons for their departure. This information could be used by upper administration in student affairs divisions to better encourage and support their student affairs professionals.

Practical Implications

Directors of residence life, student activities and Greek life can transfer the recognition of those factors which contribute to their own satisfaction and dissatisfaction to improve the satisfaction of their own employees. Front-line student affairs administration experiences the highest rate of attrition. If directors can learn about their own satisfaction, they can then develop ways in which to increase their employees' satisfaction.

Higher level student affairs administrators should evaluate the ways in which they recognize employee achievement. Ethnic background for this population showed statistically significant between-group differences. This could indicate that different ethnicities may value recognition at different levels.

Residence life and Greek life directors reported the lowest levels of satisfaction for the variable of the work itself. Open-ended responses which discussed the nature of the work from these two functional areas indicated a frustration with the ongoing student conduct issues inherent in their professional capacities. Residence life and Greek life spend a great deal of time attempting to prevent and also addressing negative student behavior. These negative student behaviors have implications that often reach beyond the department and into the surrounding community, often drawing media attention to the campus, adding to the stress of their professional work. Ongoing training and support should be provided to assist directors in curbing negative student behavior, media management, and personal stress management. Additionally, supervisors of these directors should make a concerted effort to educate the academic and public community regarding complex efforts put forth by these directors to create positive communities for

these students. Educating the greater community could decrease their level of stress, thus increasing job satisfaction.

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APPENDIX A

PILOT STUDY INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

PILOT STUDY INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

Identification Information

1. Name
2. Position Title
3. Brief Position Description

Interview Questions:

1. Please describe to me what you perceive the working environment of the division of Student Affairs to be.
2. Please describe to me your leadership style.
3. Please describe the leadership style of your supervisor.
4. How does this leadership style affect you in your work?
5. If you could change two or three things about the way in which this division was run, what would those be? Why?
6. What could you do/do you do to make the work experience for those who work under you a satisfying experience?
7. What could those above you do/do they already do to make your work experience satisfying?
8. Do you feel you have enough autonomy in your position to make decisions without consulting a supervisor? Can you give me an example?
9. In your organization, do you see yourself as more of a leader or more of a follower? Is that by choice, or by design of the position?

Demographics:

10. How long have you held this position?
11. How long have you been in the division of Student Affairs at WSU?
12. How long have you worked in Student Affairs at any higher education institution?
13. Gender
14. Self-described Ethnicity

APPENDIX B
LETTERS OF APPROVAL

APPROVAL FROM DR. E. ANN BAILEY
FOR USE OF HER COPYRIGHTED INSTRUMENT

Jennifer:

It is my pleasure to authorize your use and revision of my dissertation instrument as needed. I utilized Herzberg's Theory of Job Satisfaction/Job Dissatisfaction to investigate the job satisfaction of chief housing officers in higher education in four-year public institutions. I am happy to share the instrument with you for your dissertation.

I tried to attach pdf files for my dissertation (which includes the instrument in the appendix) and for David Jones' dissertation on job satisfaction. His work was also comprehensive and may be of assistance to you. If you need to get in touch with him, he is director of housing and residence life at the University of Alabama in Tuscaloosa, Alabama. The files were too large and my original message came back to me. Yahoo and some of the other web-based e-mail services do not often accommodate pdf and other large attachments.

Best wishes to you. If you have questions, let me know.

E. Ann Bailey

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WASHINGTON STATE UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
HUMAN SUBJECTS APPROVAL

MEMORANDUM

TO: Jennifer L. Cook
FROM: IRB Staff, WSU Institutional Review Board
DATE: 7/18/05
SUBJECT: Approved Human Subjects Protocol

Your Human Subjects Review Summary Form and additional information Provided for the proposal titled "Demographic Influence on Job Satisfaction Among Student Affairs Professionals" was reviewed and approved for the protection of the subjects participating in the study on July 18, 2005 and assigned IRB No.8637.

IRB approval indicates that the study protocol as presented in the Human Subjects Form by the investigator, is designed to adequately protect the subjects participating in the study. This approval does not relieve the investigator from the responsibility of providing continuing attention to ethical considerations involved in the utilization of human subjects participating in the study.

If any significant changes are made to the study protocol you must Notify the IRB before implementation. Request for modification forms are available online at <http://www.ogrd.wsu.edu/Forms.asp>.

APPENDIX C
SURVEY PACKET

Date of Mailing

Participant Name

Address

Etc

Dear *Participant's Formal Name (e.g., Mr. Smith)*:

I am a doctoral candidate in Washington State University's Higher Education Administration program and I need your help to complete my dissertation work. My study seeks to identify factors which contribute to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction among student affairs directors.

Your involvement in this study would require approximately 25 minutes of your time to complete the enclosed survey and return it to me in the included self-addressed, stamped envelope ***by Insert Deadline Here***. Please respond to all the statements on the survey. I assure you that your answers will remain confidential and only be used for the purposes of this study. Returning the completed survey will serve as your consent to participate in this study.

If you have any questions regarding the survey or the study, please feel free to contact me via email at *crumpledpaper@yahoo.com*. This research has been approved by the Washington State University Institutional Review Board. You can contact them at 509-335-9661 or via email at *ogrd@wsu.edu*.

Thank you for your time and participation in this study. The results will provide much needed data regarding how student affairs directors can be better satisfied with their work. I truly appreciate your time and contribution.

Sincerely,

Jennifer Cook

*Please provide two brief answers to each of the following questions.
If you have other comments, feel free to include additional paper.*

What two factors or elements contribute most to your overall satisfaction in your position?

A. _____

B. _____

What two factors or elements contribute most to your overall dissatisfaction in your position?

A. _____

B. _____

Please circle either the satisfaction scale value or the dissatisfaction scale value that best describes how you feel about each of these aspects of your work life.

SATISFACTION: Contentment, enjoyment, fulfillment, happiness.				DISSATISFACTION: Disappointment, discontentment, displeasure.			
1 Slightly Satisfied	2 Somewhat Satisfied	3 Moderately Satisfied	4 Highly Satisfied	1 Slightly Dissatisfied	2 Somewhat Dissatisfied	3 Moderately Dissatisfied	4 Highly Dissatisfied

	<i>Satisfaction</i>				or	<i>Dissatisfaction</i>			
1. <u>Achievement</u> : Successful or unsuccessful completion of a job; solution or non-solution of problems; seeing the results of one's own work.	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
2. <u>Advancement</u> : Change in status within the organization as a result of performance (i.e., promotion, lack thereof, or demotion).	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
3. <u>Growth</u> : Changes in the work situation such that advancement is more or less likely; increase or decrease in chances to learn.	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
4. <u>Interpersonal Relations (w/ subordinates)</u> : Pleasant or unpleasant interactions with persons at lower levels in the organizational hierarchy.	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
5. <u>Interpersonal Relations (w/peers)</u> : Pleasant or unpleasant interactions with persons at the same level in the organizational hierarchy.	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
6. <u>Interpersonal Relations (w/students)</u> : Pleasant or unpleasant interactions with students.	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
7. <u>Interpersonal Relations (superiors)</u> : Pleasant or unpleasant interactions with superiors that may or may not be directly relevant to task accomplishment.	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
8. <u>Job Security</u> : Clear indications of the likelihood or unlikelihood of continuous employment, such as tenure, permanent contracts, budgetary stability, assurances of continued employment.	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
9. <u>Organizational Policy & Administration</u> : Adequacy or inadequacy of university management, including clarity of communications, adequacy of resources, personnel policies, fringe benefits.	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
10. <u>Recognition</u> : Attention in the form of praise; personal acknowledgement by management; reward that is directly related to task accomplishment.	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
11. <u>Responsibility</u> : Presence or absence of autonomy in carrying out assignments; increase or decrease of authority over others; accountability for task accomplishment.	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
12. <u>Salary</u> : Wage and compensation factors, such as pay scales, adjustments, reimbursements.	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
13. <u>Status</u> : Signs, symbols, or tokens of position and prestige, such as privileges, work space size and location, work space décor, symbolic titles.	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
14. <u>Supervision</u> : Competence or incompetence, fairness or unfairness, and efficiency or inefficiency of superiors.	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
15. <u>Work Itself</u> : The nature of the task to be accomplished on the job (i.e., routine or varied, interesting or dull).	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
16. <u>Working Conditions</u> : The physical conditions of work, such as the amount of work, temperature control, ventilation, adequate equipment and supplies.	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4

Please circle the letter in front of each of the following categories that best describes your status.

Gender

- a. Female
- b. Male

Age

- a. Under 30
- b. 30-39
- c. 40-49
- d. 50-59
- e. 60 or above

Ethnic Background

- a. African-American
- b. Asian/Pacific Islander
- c. Caucasian/White
- d. Hispanic/Mexican American
- e. Native American
- f. _____

Marital Status

- a. Single
- b. Married
- c. Divorced
- d. Widow/Widower

Highest Degree Completed

- a. Bachelors
- b. Masters
- c. Doctorate
- d. Other: _____

Salary

- a. Below \$19,999
- b. \$20,000 - \$29,999
- c. \$30,000 - \$39,999
- d. \$40,000 - \$49,999
- e. \$50,000 or higher

Years of Post-Baccalaureate Student Affairs Experience

- a. 3 years or less
- b. 4 - 9 years
- c. 10 - 19 years
- d. 20 years or more

Current Functional Area

- a. Greek Affairs
- b. Housing/Residence Life
- c. Student Activities

Years of Experience in This Functional Area

- a. 3 years or less
- b. 4 - 9 years
- c. 10 - 19 years
- d. 20 years or more

Years in Current Position

- a. 3 years or less
- b. 4 - 9 years
- c. 10 - 19 years
- d. 20 years or more