

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE AND
JOB SATISFACTION OF ACADEMIC ADMINISTRATORS
IN SELECTED COMMUNITY COLLEGES
AND UNIVERSITIES

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CHAPTER I

THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

Introduction

Interest in systematic study of the nature and causes of job satisfaction dates back at least to the human relations movement of the 1930's. Although the first intensive study of job satisfaction was done by Hoppock in 1935, it was the Hawthorn studies that shaped the trend of study for the next two decades.

The human relations school, emerging as a result of these studies, de-emphasized the psychological and physical characteristics of the individual as a determinant of his satisfaction and productivity. Instead, it revealed that an individual's perception of the organization and his attitudes toward his job were formed by the interrelationships that existed in the informal group of which he was a member (Roethlisberger and Dickson, 1939). The human relations school remained the most influential and prevalent framework for job satisfaction studies until the appearance of Herzber's two-factor theory in 1935. For the "work itself" (or growth) school, satisfaction could be attained " . . . through growth in skill, efficiency, and responsibility made possible by mentally challenging work" (Locke, 1976, p. 1301). For Herzberg, job satisfaction was the result of factors or elements he called "motivators," while dissatisfaction with the job was caused by

"hygiene" factors (Locke, 1976).

There have been literally several thousand studies of job satisfaction, and the number is increasing. Many attempts have been made to classify these studies into distinct groups, primarily on theoretical or methodological grounds (Robinson and Robinson, 1964). The theories originate from different philosophies and do not focus on the same or even similar elements of behavior. These classifications, however, can improve our understanding of the nature of job satisfaction and can be helpful in formulating any future needed research.

Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler, and Werck (1970) divided the theories of job satisfaction into two groups. The first, content theories, including Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory and Herzberg's two-factor theory, try to determine factors within the individual or his environment that initiate, sustain, and modify his behavior. The second, process theories, like equity or social comparison theory, fulfillment theory, and discrepancy theory, are concerned with the way variables are related, leading to the satisfaction of individual.

In the early 1960's a number of researchers proposed that satisfaction may be best understood if it was viewed as a function of the interaction between the individual personality and organizational properties. Likert (1961) for example, assigned central importance to the organizational characteristics as they are perceived by the employee. This view, presented in his interaction-influence model, suggests that variables such as structure, climate of the organization, supervisory practices, and the like, interact with the personality to produce perceptions, and it is only through these perceptions that the relations

between causal and end-result variables, including job satisfaction, may be understood (Likert, 1961).

Even before that, the "transactional model" formulated by Dewey and Bentley (1964) had proposed that the organism and environment influence one another as part of a total transactional field. Three principles involved in this interrelationship are: (a) Each part of the system is interdependent on other parts and on the system as a whole; (b) The relationship between parts are transactional and not causal. That is, one part is not acted upon by other part, instead a constant reciprocal relationship exists; (c) Action in one part of the system affects the other parts of the system.

The proposal regarding this reciprocal relationship between the individual and his surrounding environment was not taken seriously and did not influence the studies of job satisfaction until the late 1960's. Since then, and particularly in the past few years, many researchers have noted the importance of such studies and have begun to develop models for systematic understanding of the relationship between climatic factors and job satisfaction

Significance of the Study

Job satisfaction was originally perceived of as a direct result of the amount of money received by the employee for his work, which in turn determined his productivity level (Taylor, 1911). As a result of the Hawthorne studies and the human relations movement of late 1920's and early 1930's, the emphasis on pay was diminished and in its place, a variety of societal and organizational factors was emphasized.

The view that satisfaction was a direct cause of production persisted much longer. March and Simon, for example, in 1958 argued that "motivation to produce stems from a present or anticipated state of discontent and a perception of a direct connection between individual production and new state of satisfaction" (March and Simon, 1958, p. 47). Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) in their study of two hundred accountants and engineers supported this hypothesis.

Brayfield and Crockett's review of literature (1955) had a major effect on the assumed relationship between job satisfaction and the productivity of the workers. They found major inconsistencies in the literature on causal effects of satisfaction on productivity. Subsequent investigation of this issue revealed that this relationship is not as simple as it was originally thought to be (Lawler, 1970).

The new findings, however, have not diverted or even discouraged attention to the satisfaction issue. Lawler (1970) saw job satisfaction as one of several measures of the quality of organizational life. He suggested that even if there is no relationship between job satisfaction and performance, job satisfaction needs to be studied because it portrays the quality of working life.

This statement becomes even more important when one realizes that each individual spends a large portion of his life at work. Aside from pay, work is an avenue of contact with other individuals and the society at large. It also has a great influence on self-esteem, self-identity, and self-concept. In modern industrial countries, work is described as having certain universal functions. These functions include: providing money, creating and regulating life activity, offering status of social

identification, permitting association with others, and making available a meaningful life experience (Kasl, 1977).

Edwin Locke (1976) in an extensive review of literature on the consequences of job satisfaction, states that many research findings relate job satisfaction to different psychological and behavioral aspects of an individual. For him, job satisfaction can be an important element in determining overall life satisfaction, family and other off-the-job activities, how an individual views himself, physical health, mental health, absenteeism and turnover, rate of learning, and the like. (Locke, 1976).

Another correlate of job satisfaction, which can be indirectly related to productivity, is the counterproductive behavior generated as a result of employee dissatisfaction. Mangoine and Quinn (1975) include actual sabotage, trouble causing, doing work badly on purpose, and theft as different dimensions of counterproductive behavior. The information produced as a result of their research suggest that the consequences of counterproductive behavior can have devastating economic and social effects on the organization.

Despite a great number of systematic research in industrial settings, and despite theoretical and methodological improvements in studying job satisfaction, related research about higher education institutions in general, and the administrators in particular, is far behind. The present economic and political state of higher education, however, has reduced job mobility (both vertical and horizontal) tremendously, which in turn makes understanding and improving job satisfaction of the individuals associated with these institutions even more

important.

Kasl (1977), in his review of literature, found six factors leading to both satisfaction and mental health. They were: conditions of work, work itself, the work group, supervision, the organization, and wages and promotion. They also found that this association becomes even stronger for those who are locked in their jobs, that is, those who do not see much of a chance of finding better job than those who do.

Recent studies by industrial psychologists argue that higher satisfaction is usually expressed by those who find congruency between their individual needs and that of the organization (Downey, Hellriegel, and Slocum, 1975). Since more and more people in academia are becoming "locked in" into their jobs, they try to look elsewhere to find a substitute for what is lacking in the job itself, that is, ". . . the social life around the job" (Strauss, Miles, Snow, and Tannenbaum, 1974, p. 31).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between job satisfaction of academic administrators and their perceived organizational climate of community colleges and universities. Further, it was intended to determine whether or not there was any significant difference between job satisfaction of the administrators in colleges and universities, and whether or not there was any significant difference in organizational climates of these two types of institutions.

Research Questions

The research questions formulated for this investigation were

as follows:

Question 1. To what degree academic administrators in community colleges and universities are satisfied with various aspects of their jobs?

Question 2. Is there a difference between overall satisfaction of academic administrators in community colleges and universities?

Question 3. What differences are there between the organizational climate of community colleges and universities as it is perceived by the academic administrators in these institutions?

Question 4. Is there a relationship between levels of job satisfaction of academic administrators in community colleges and universities and the perceived organizational climate of these two types of institutions?

Question 5. What are the effects of different demographic variables (age of the respondents, their sex, level of income, level of education, current academic rank, length of experience in present position, size of institution, types of institution) on the relationship between satisfaction and organizational climate?

Limitations of the Study

This study was limited to a sample of academic administrators in public community colleges and universities in three states; therefore one can not safely generalize the results to administrators in other higher education institutions. This is especially true for the universities, because the universities selected for this study were all large research institutions offering doctoral degrees in a variety of fields.

As in any study dealing with the attitudes of the respondents, there is always a risk of inconsistency between reported attitudes and the actual ones. The reader should keep this in mind when considering the results of this study since many of the questions deal with the matter of attitudes and personal opinion of the respondents.

The longitudinal study is generally thought of as a preferred method to determine attitudinal and situational changes that may occur over time. Because of the limitations of time and money, however, it was necessary to apply a cross-sectional (one-shot) design. For the same reason, the results of this study do not deal with causality but only with the correlation and the differences among the variables. For example, if there is a significant correlation between "pay" and job satisfaction, it can not be inferred that modifications in the amount of salary will necessarily "cause" changes in the satisfaction level.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

Studies of job satisfaction have been carried out over the years in a variety of organizational settings. Such interest has been due to the role played by job satisfaction as a potential predictor of other organizational facets such as turnover and absenteeism, mental health of the employees, and the overall life satisfaction (Korman, 1977).

The fact that the social environment surrounding the job, or what has come to be known as organizational climate, influenced workers' satisfaction was recognized following the Hawthorne studies (Roethlisberger and Dickson, 1939). However, systematic investigation of this relationship was relatively rare until late 1960's. Studies by Downey, Hellriegel, and Slocum (1975), Friedlander and Margulies (1969), Payne, Pineman, and Wall (1976), and Schneider and Snyder (1975) in recent years have pointed to the importance of organizational climate in understanding job satisfaction as well as other organizational variables such as motivation and performance.

In this chapter some of the more popular theories of job satisfaction and organizational climate are presented. In addition, some of the controversies involved with both concepts are discussed. The chapter also contains a review of related research in the institutions

on higher education.

Job Satisfaction

There have been literally several thousand studies of job satisfaction to date. Locke (1976) estimated that there have been over three thousand articles and dissertations produced on the topic, and the number is increasing annually.

Job satisfaction has been defined in a variety of ways. Vroom (1964) defined job satisfaction as "the affective orientation of individuals toward work roles they are presently occupying" (p. 99). Locke (1976) defined it as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state, resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (p. 1300). Although there is wide disagreement on conceptual and operational definition of job satisfaction, there is a common agreement that it is the "affective feeling" toward job, experienced by an individual during the course of his employment.

Theories of job satisfaction can be divided into two categories (Campbell et al., 1970), content theories and process theories. Content theories concentrate on the specific environmental and personal factors which lead to one's job satisfaction. Process theories, on the other hand, attempt to explain the process of how different variables such as recognition on the job interact with other variables to shape an individual's affective feelings toward his job.

What follows is a presentation of two content and three process theories of job satisfaction and some of the criticisms directed toward these theories. The latter part of this section is a discussion of

findings on the consequences of job satisfaction, accompanied by some related research supporting or questioning the validity of such findings.

Content Theories of Job Satisfaction

One of the earliest theories of job satisfaction is Maslow's need hierarchy theory (Maslow, 1943). According to this theory, human beings possess a series of complex sets of needs that must be met for an individual to be satisfied with his job. These can be grouped into five basic and fundamental needs. These needs are:

1. **Physiological needs:** These are the lowest level of human needs and include the need for food and water, shelter, sex, and other bodily needs.
2. **Safety:** Includes protection against bodily harm and danger as well as other physical and emotional harm.
3. **Love:** Includes a sense of belongings, affection, and acceptance.
4. **Esteem:** Includes self-respect, autonomy, sense of achievement, recognition, and prestige.
5. **Self-actualization:** Includes the need to reach the full potential. It also includes continued self-development, and self-fulfillment.

These needs are arranged in a hierarchy of importance, with the physiological needs at the lowest and self-actualization at the highest. The higher order needs can not act as satisfiers until the lower ones are met. The need for love, for example, can not produce satisfaction

until psychological and safety needs are met. The theory also proposes that as one level of needs is satisfied fairly well it ceases to motivate and the higher level needs come to picture. This does not, however, mean "that a need must be satisfied 100 per cent before the next need emerges. In actual fact, most members of our society who are normal, are partially satisfied in all their basic needs and partially unsatisfied in all their basic needs at the same time" (Maslow, 1943, p. 388).

Despite its wide recognition, particularly among practicing managers, Maslow's need hierarchy theory, has received little empirical support. Wahba and Bridwell (1976) in their review of literature on this theory, concluded that available research does not provide unconditional support for the implications of need hierarchy theory. They also found little support for the proposition that fulfillment of one level of need activates the next higher level needs. Studies also indicate that size of the company, cultural background of the employee, person's age or race, and the job a person performs in the organization can make a difference in the relative importance of each level of needs and how they are fulfilled (Hellriegel, Slocum, and Woodman, 1983).

Another content theory of job satisfaction formulated by Herzberg and his associates (1959) is called the two-factor theory. They first conducted a series of interviews with 200 engineers and accountants employed in the Pittsburgh area. The subjects were asked to first try to describe an event or time when they felt especially satisfied with the job. Then they were asked again to describe an event or time when they felt particularly bad or dissatisfied with the job. Analysis of the results revealed two groups of factors which the researchers labeled as

"motivators" and "hygiene" factors.

Motivators, according to Herzberg et al. (1959), are factors or aspects of job that contribute to employees' job satisfaction. However, the opposite is not dissatisfaction. Absence of hygiene factors, on the other hand, cause dissatisfaction and their presence does not lead to satisfaction. In other words, motivators and hygiene factors are on two separate continua. As opposed to the more traditional views where satisfaction and dissatisfaction were perceived to be on the opposite ends of the same continuum, two-factor theory proposes a dual continua. As such, the opposite of "satisfaction" is "no satisfaction" and the opposite of "dissatisfaction" is "no dissatisfaction."

Factors associated with job attitudes reported as a result of twelve investigations conducted by Herzberg (1968, p. 57) are:

Hygiene Factors

- company policy and administration
- supervision
- relationship with supervisor
- work conditions
- salary
- relationship with peers
- personal life
- relationship with subordinates
- status
- security

Motivators

- achievement
- recognition
- work itself
- responsibility
- advancement
- growth

As it can be seen from the above list, hygiene factors describe employees' relationship to their work environment. For the same reason

they are also called "extrinsic," "maintenance," or "content" factors. Motivators, on the other hand, are associated with the job itself, and are also labeled as "intrinsic," "satisfiers," and "content" factors.

Of the two content theories presented here, Maslow's need hierarchy have been studied very little. Herzberg's two-factor theory, on the other hand, has engendered a great deal of thought, controversy, and research. Much research has been designed to test this theory. The results, however, are inconclusive. The most negative summary of the evidence is the account presented by Dunnette, Campbell, and Hakel (1967). According to them:

It seems that the evidence is now sufficient to lay the two-factor theory to rest, and we hope that it may be buried peaceably. We believe that it is important that this be done so that researchers will address themselves to studying the full complexities of human motivation, rather than continuing to allow the direction of motivational research on actual administrative decisions dictated by the seductive simplicity of two-factor theory (p. 173).

This negative and rather harsh criticism of the theory is rejected by the majority of researchers. Sergiovanni (1967), for example, in a study of 71 teachers in New York, found strong support for the theory. In general, there are those who reject the validity of this theory (Young & Davis, 1983; Graen, 1968; Medwed, 1971), and there are those who accept it in its totality (Burr, 1980; Holdaway, 1978; Wozniak 1973). Another group of researchers has found mixed results in their testing of the two-factor theory (Cohen, 1974; Schmidt, 1976).

In order to understand these conflicting results, one has to look at the reviews as well as the criticisms directed at the formulation and application of the theory. Soliman (1970) reviewed 41 related

articles and found out that 17 out of 20 researchers who had used the same methodology used by Herzber to gather data, strongly supported the two-factor theory. Only three in this category rejected the theory. Of the other 21 studies that used other methods than Herzberg's, only three supported his original findings. Eighteen studies in this category did not substantiate the findings of the two-factor theory. It was concluded that the theory "was a function of its own particular methodology" (Soliman, 1970, p. 459).

Another problem with the theory is its vagueness in explaining the relationship between motivators and hygiene factors. King (1973) found five different versions of the theory in the work of Herzberg alone. A comparison between Version I and Version V, for example, can lead one to accept or reject the theory. These versions are as follows:

Version I states that each motivator contributes more to job satisfaction than to job dissatisfaction, and each hygiene contributes more to job dissatisfaction than to job satisfaction.

Version V states that only motivators determine job satisfaction, and only hygienes determine job dissatisfaction (King, 1973, p. 143).

As it can be seen, Version I allows for some overlap of factors in both directions. For example, achievement, recognition, and work itself contribute more to satisfaction, but they also are, to some extent, responsible for dissatisfaction. In Version V, however, the two groups of factors are completely separate from each other. One group leads to satisfaction; and the absence of the other, to dissatisfaction. As Hoy and Miskel (1982) point out, these confusions and diverse formulations of the theory can even be found in Herzberg's work itself.

In spite of these and other criticisms of the theory (Gruenberg, 1979; Locke, 1976; Schmidt, 1976), the two-factor theory is still the most popular theory of job satisfaction, particularly among educators. Ironically, one of the major reasons for the popularity of the two-factor theory is its simplicity, which has come under attack by many researchers (Schmidt, 1976). Another reason is its usefulness in attempting to identify factors contributing to both satisfaction and motivation. As Hellriegel et al. (1983) put it, the theory "explain(s) the determinants of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, and it has pointed out important concepts for individuals concerned with job enrichment programs in industry" (p. 371).

Process Theories of Job Satisfaction

The equity theory of job satisfaction has appeared in the literature under different labels and with some variations. One variation is termed "cognitive dissonance" by Festinger (1957), another "exchange" or "distributive justice" by Homans (1961) and Patchen (1961); and, Adams (1963) has labeled it as "equity" or "inequity" theory. All these theories, however, argue that the perceived fairness of rewards an employee receives from his or her work determines his or her satisfaction. The degree of fairness depends on the relations between the input or what an individual contributes, and the outcome or what he receives in exchange. According to the equity theory, a person always makes a comparison between the equity of his input/output balance and that of the others. Satisfaction is a direct result of this comparison. The following list of possible inputs and outcomes by Belcher and

Atchinson (1970), however, indicates that formation of the input/output relationship in one's mind is not as simple as it sounds.

<u>Input</u>	<u>Output</u>
Attendance	Pay
Age	Promotion
Level of Education	Challenging Job Assignments
Past Experience	Fringe Benefits
Ability	Job Prerequisites
Social Status	(office location, etc.)
Job Efforts	Working Conditions
Personal Appearance	Status Symbols
Personality Traits	Seniority Benefits
Training	Monotony
Seniority	Recognition
Sex	Job Security
Health Performance	Responsibility (p. 28)

Equity theory argues that under-reward as well as over-reward can lead to dissatisfaction. A review of literature by Pritchard, Dunnette, and Jorgensen (1972), however, indicates that although the dissatisfaction as a result of underpayment is well established in different studies, only one study suggests dissatisfaction as a result of overpayment.

Discrepancy theory proposes that satisfaction/dissatisfaction is a result of the difference between the perceived outcome and the desired outcome. In other words, if the outcome falls below what is conceived as desired outcome, dissatisfaction would result. On the other hand, if there is no discrepancy between these two, or if the actual outcome is more than what was expected, satisfaction would result. There are actually two versions of discrepancy theory. One formulated by Katzell (1964) proposes that satisfaction is a result of actual outcome and what one feels he should get. The other, proposed by Locke (1969), sees satisfaction as a result of discrepancy between perceived (and not the actual) outcome and what he wants. The two approaches, however, are

reconcilable. Lawler (1973) argues that:

for example, a person can feel that his present pay is appropriate for his present job, and in this sense he can be satisfied; however, he can feel that his present pay is much below what he wants, and in this sense he can be dissatisfied. In most cases, however, these two discrepancies may not be as large or as important as some theorists have argued (Lawler, 1973, p. 66).

Finally, need fulfillment theory first presented by Schaffer (1953) argues that the degree of job satisfaction depends on the extent to which an individual's needs are fulfilled through his job. Vroom (1964) found two variations of need fulfillment theory. One version simply argues that satisfaction is negatively related to the discrepancy between the individual needs and the degree these needs are fulfilled. The second variation, which is favored by him, takes the importance individual attaches to those needs into account. He, in fact, was able to find support for the latter formulation of the theory.

Like content theories, process theories of satisfaction have also been criticized for a number of reasons. Locke (1976) criticizes these theories for their limitations in recognizing the nature of man's needs. As such, it can be argued that content theories like Maslow's need hierarchy and Herzberg's two-factor theory can play a supplementary role. Another problem, as stated by Locke (1976), is that in these theories there is no distinction between needs and values. In fact Gruenberg (1979) points out that these two concepts are often used synonymously.

One major criticism of all theories of job satisfaction is that although job satisfaction is clearly a consequence of complex and dynamic interaction between an individual and his surrounding social environment, this concept has most often been treated as something

static (Davis and Chern, 1975). As Gruenberg (1979) pointed out "job satisfaction involves the matching of individual's needs, values, and expectations to what the job offers. In such a complex field as job behaviour, it is likely that no simple theory accounts for all the phenomena all the times" (p. 32).

Relationship Between Satisfaction and Performance

The relationship between job satisfaction and individual performance came to the forefront as a result of the Hawthorne studies in the late 1930's. The proposition that job satisfaction is the direct cause of one's performance is commonly associated with the human relations movement. This is despite the fact that some of the forerunners of this school of thought cautioned the investigators against unwarranted conclusions about the results of their studies. Roethlisberger (1941), for example, in discussing the results of the Hawthorne studies warns managers that "the factors which make for efficiency in a business organization are not necessarily the same as those factors that make for happiness, collaboration, teamwork, or any other word which may be used to refer to cooperative situations" (Roethlisberger, 1941, p. 156).

As Lawler and Porter (1967) point out, it is not difficult to see how the assumption that satisfaction leads to performance came to be so popular. First, this assumption fits into the value system of the human relations movement. Second, some research evidence from the Hawthorne studies seemed to support this notion. The Relay Assembly Test Room revealed a strong tendency for increased productivity to be associated with an increase in job satisfaction. In addition, in the Bank

Wiring Room restrictions on performance appeared to be associated with low morale.

An extensive review of literature by Brayfield and Crockett in 1955 casted strong doubts about the direction of this relationship. They reviewed 50 research articles and concluded that

it appears that there is little evidence in the available literature that employee attitudes of the type usually measured in morale surveys bear any simple -- or, for that matter, appreciable -- relationship to performance on the job (Brayfield and Crockett, 1955, p. 408).

They go on to suggest that under certain conditions satisfaction and productivity might be unrelated, or even negatively related. This, as well as other reviews by Herzberg, Mausner, and Peterson (1957), and Vroom (1964) led to what Schwab and Cummings (1970) have called "the development of uncertainty" or "satisfaction -?- performance."

Greene and Craft (1977) identified three different positions regarding the relationship between job satisfaction and individual performance: (a) satisfaction causes performance; (b) performance causes satisfaction; (c) "reward" as a causal factor.

Herzberg's two-factor theory (Herzberg et al., 1959) is probably a best indicator of the fact that the assumption regarding the causal relationship between satisfaction and performance is still very much alive. As it was indicated in the previous section, these authors identified two groups of job variables they called motivators and hygiene factors. The factors contributing to job satisfaction, or what is called "motivators" are presumably the key factors associated with performance.

The second proposition regarding the relationship between job

satisfaction and performance has been presented by Lawler and Porter (1967). They argued that satisfaction is caused by performance and not the reverse. Their theoretical model proposes that differential performance leads to different rewards which in turn determines the level of satisfaction. They distinguish between extrinsic and intrinsic rewards. Extrinsic rewards refer to organizationally controlled rewards such as pay and promotion, and they are not related to a person's performance as strongly as the intrinsic ones. Intrinsic rewards are internally motivated and therefore more directly related to performance. An example of intrinsic reward would be the feeling of accomplishment of a worthwhile task.

Lawler and Porters' model (1967) has been supported by a number of empirical studies by Farris and Lim (1969), Slocum (1970, 1971), and Siegel and Bowen (1971). Other studies (Downey et al., 1976; Greenhaus and Badin, 1974; Locke, 1970; Carlson, 1969) are in general agreement that "satisfaction should be regarded primarily as a product of performance and only very indirectly as a determinant of performance" (Locke, 1970, p. 498). However, they suggest leader behavior, self-esteem, job values, and ability as variables moderating the relationship between performance and satisfaction.

The third proposition formulated by Cherrington, Reitz, and Scott (1971) suggest that there is no inherent relationship between satisfaction and performance. Proponents of this theory believe that both these variables are a function of rewards. In a laboratory experiment Cherrington et al. (1971) found that rewards could increase satisfaction and performance, separately. For example, they found that when

a low performer was not rewarded, dissatisfaction was expressed while the subsequent performance increased. On the other hand, when high or low performers were rewarded on the basis of performance, satisfaction increased while there was no change in the level of performance. Relationship between satisfaction and performance in all cases remained nonsignificant when the effects of reward were controlled. Additional support for this proposition can be found in the studies done by Greene (1973) and Wanus (1974).

In general, most studies seem to support the proposition that performance, at least indirectly, causes satisfaction. Review of literature reveals very little evidence indicating satisfaction as the cause of performance. The third proposition, rewards being the cause of both satisfaction and performance separately, has also received some support in the literature. At present, there is no conclusive evidence regarding the causal relationship between these two variables. The strongest support, however, seems to be in the direction of "performance causing satisfaction."

Consequences of Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction

As it was stated previously, the primary interest in job satisfaction was the result of an assumption that job satisfaction causes an individual to perform more effectively. Although this idea has been rejected over and over again, the literature provide us with strong evidence that job satisfaction is related to other on-and-off the job behavior which might have devastating results for both the individual and the organization.

Turnover

Relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover has been studied extensively. Studies by Brayfield and Crockett (1955), Herzberg et al. (1957), Vroom (1964), Schuh (1967), and Lawler (1973) are classical examples of the reviews done in this area. They all reported some consistency in reported relationship between job satisfaction and turnover. Schuh (1967), for example, found that job satisfaction data and biographical data were the variables most predictive of tenure.

A longitudinal method was used in most of these studies, that is, the satisfaction level of the workers was first measured and then, after a period of time, the satisfaction scores of those who had left the company could be compared with those who had decided to remain on the job. Two such studies are those of Waters and Roach (1971, 1973). In the first study they used the data gathered by Waters and Waters (1969) in an earlier study of job satisfaction of employees of a national insurance company. A comparison of satisfaction of those who had left the company with those remaining, supported the hypothesis that turnover was negatively related to satisfaction. The second study (Waters and Roach, 1973) lasted one year, and it was confirmed that overall satisfaction was in fact a predictor of both permanent and temporary forms of withdrawal from the work situation.

It must be remembered, however, that job satisfaction is not the only predictor of turnover. Tylor and Weiss (1972), for example, found that biographical data as well as satisfaction could predict withdrawal from the job. Martin (1979) also mentions pay, integration, formal

communication, instrumental communication, centralization, routinization, and opportunity as predictors of turnover. His study indicated that as job satisfaction, upward mobility, and age increases, withdrawal tendencies decreases.

Available data indicate that the strength of relationship between satisfaction and turnover depends on the availability of alternative job opportunities to the individuals. In other words, during the periods of economic prosperity turnover is higher and its relationship to job satisfaction stronger (Wool, 1973). The consistency of the relationship between satisfaction and turnover, however, has been emphasized over and over again regardless of economic conditions and employment opportunities. Porter and Steers (1973), for example, in their review of 15 such research articles found only one reporting no relationship between these two variables. The literature under review included industrial workers as well as student nurses, retail store employees, Air Force pilots, and insurance salesmen.

Absenteeism

Temporary absence from work is also found to be negatively related to job satisfaction. In 1964 Vroom proposed that

workers who are highly attracted to their jobs should be subject to stronger forces to remain in them than those who are less attracted to their jobs. These stronger forces to remain should be reflected in a lower probability of behaviors which take the person out of his job, both permanently and temporarily (p. 187).

Muchinsky's article (1977b), one of few existing reviews of literature of employee absenteeism, found some inconsistencies regarding the relationship between absenteeism and satisfaction. He attributed

many of the conflicting and contradictory findings to the ill-defined concept of absenteeism. Different studies were found to conceptualize absenteeism in a variety of ways, and very few measures reported having a significant reliability.

Another major problem in much of the work on absenteeism is disregard for the difference between voluntary and non-voluntary types of absenteeism. Ilgen and Hollenback (1977), Morgan and Herman (1976), and Smith (1977), for example, present a variety of situational constraints such as poor health, family responsibilities, and transportation problems which can affect one's decision to attend a job on a particular day. Steers and Rhodes (1978), in their review of 104 empirical studies, found job satisfaction as the major influence on attendance motivation. They also found five other major factors which would affect the attendance motivation and therefore weaken the relationship between satisfaction and absenteeism. These factors were: (a) economic and market conditions, (b) incentive/reward system, (c) work group norms, (d) personal work ethics, and (e) organizational commitment.

The importance of finding determinants of absenteeism lies in the fact that although negative consequences of absenteeism is less severe than that of turnover (Porter and Steers, 1973), it can be used as an indicator of future turnover within the organization. Herzberg et al. (1957) proposed that there is a continuum of withdrawal behavior, progressing from absenteeism to turnover. Beehr and Gupta (1978), Burk and Wilcox (1972), Revans (1964), and Waters and Roach (1979) have investigated this hypothesis and found substantial support in a

variety of industrial and service organizations.

Physical and Mental Health

Job satisfaction has also been found to be negatively related to a series of physical and mental health of the employees. One review (Jenkins, 1971) reported several studies relating job stress, conflict, and boredom with coronary disease. An experimental study by Sales (1969) revealed a relationship between work enjoyment and changes in the level of serum cholesterol. Other negative physical symptoms of shortness of breath, fatigue, headaches, sweating, general ill health, loss of appetite, and indigestion were reported by Herzberg et al. (1959) and Burke (1969/1970) to be related to dissatisfaction with the job. A longitudinal study of "longevity" (comparison between actual years lived to life expectancy) by Palmore (1969) also indicated work satisfaction to be the "most single best overall predictor of longevity."

Perhaps the best available study on the relationship between satisfaction and mental health is Kornhauser's (1965). In this study, the mental health of workers in a large automobile manufacturing company was measured through an Index of Mental Health consisting of anxiety and tension, self-esteem, hostility, sociability, life satisfaction, and personal morale. The results indicated a consistent relationship between overall mental health and job satisfaction of three different worker groups under study.

Other Correlates of Satisfaction

Other factors such as life satisfaction, number of grievances,

drug use, and counterproductive behavior have also been found to be related to workers' job satisfaction. Iris and Barrett (1972) in their study of the employee of a chemical plant found out that the degree of life satisfaction was related to the satisfaction with the job. The results of this study supported previous findings by Kornhauser (1965).

The relationship between job dissatisfaction and counterproductive behavior has been studied by Mangione and Quinn (1975). The data collected from a national sample of 1,327 wage and salaried workers revealed a significant association between job dissatisfaction and counterproductive behavior. Results of a study at the Lordstown Vega plant reported by Reitz (1981) indicated that sabotage can become a way of expressing job dissatisfaction. According to the report, the Lordstown Vega plant "experienced as many as 1,800 cars in the repair yard at one time, with unassembled engine blocks, slashed electrical cables, and cracked instrument panels." (Reitz, 1981, p. 221).

There are also some indications that job dissatisfaction is related to drug use (Mangione and Quinn, 1975), alienation and alcoholism (Exton, 1972), and increased levels of complains and grievances (Maher, 1971). Locke (1976) in his review of 175 books and articles on job satisfaction, proposed that:

there are other actions that could, under certain circumstances, result from job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Lateness, leaving early, and taking longer-than-authorized lunch, coffee, and/or rest breaks are ways of temporarily avoiding job situation (p. 1334).

In conclusion, the importance of work and its role in modern industrialized countries, discussed previously, would provide us with some explanation as to why dissatisfaction with the job could have

such a wide range of negative effects on both the individual and the organization in which he is working. A relatively new publication by the United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (1972) proposes that "work plays a pervasive and powerful role in the psychological, social, and economic aspects of our lives" (p. 2). However, one must realize that because of the extreme complexity of human behavior it is not easy to reach any definitive answer to the questions raised about human behavior and its consequences for the organization. A review of literature on the positive and negative consequences of job satisfaction/dissatisfaction and the complex and quite often confusing findings, clearly testifies to this.

Organizational Climate

In recent years a considerable amount of attention has been paid to organizational climate. Forehand and Glimer (1964) define organizational climate as "the set of characteristics that describe an organization and that (a) distinguish the organization from other organizations, (b) are relatively enduring over time, and (c) influence the behavior of people in the organization" (p. 362). Although there have been many conceptual definitions of organizational climate, operationalization of the concept has not been that simple. Johanneson (1973) sees two different approaches to the definition of organizational climate: objective and subjective.

The proponents of the first approach believe that organizational climate can be measured independent from the employees' subjective perceptions of the organization. As Forehand and Glimer (1964) proposed,

the effects of organizational climate on individual behavior can be determined in terms of defining the stimuli which confront the individual, placing constraints upon the freedom of choice of behavior and/or rewarding and punishing. They include such variables as size, structure, system complexity, leadership style, and goal direction as some of the dimensions of organizational variation including organizational climate. Other researchers (Evan, 1963; Lawrence and Lorsch, 1967) have tried to characterize the variations among the organizations in terms of objective and unambiguous indices such as ratio of administrative personnel to production personnel, the numbers of levels of authority, and quality of formal rules.

Majority of researchers, however, advocate perceptual definition and measurement of organizational climate (Muchinsky, 1976). Litwin and Stringer (1968), for example, define organizational climate as "a set of measurable properties of the work environment, perceived directly or indirectly by the people who live and work in this environment and assumed to influence motivation and behavior" (p. 1). Steers (1977) in his review of the literature argues that climate can be thought of as the "personality" of an organization as it is perceived by the members. Further, he proposes that what is important in studying climate is the way employees believe it to be, and not necessarily what it "really" is.

Schneider (1975) developed a strong argument supporting the definition of climate in perceptual terms. Based on Gestalt psychology and Functionalism, he proposed that for the human beings to behave effectively in their work environment they have to apprehend or create

order in their environment. It is only through these mental and enduring perceptions that people know how to act, react, and understand their environment and are enabled to gauge the appropriateness of their behavior. On the basis of this argument, the author then goes on to conclude that "climate refers to molar perceptions people have of their work settings" (Schneider, 1975, p. 473).

The question of whether objective and subjective measures of organizational climate are related and are in fact measuring the same thing was first brought to attention by Campbell et al. (1970). A review of literature on the relationship between perceptual and objective measures of climate by Payne and Pugh (1976) indicated that perceptual measures do in fact correlate with objective, non-perceptual climate indicators. In general, however, this line of questioning does not seem to interest many researchers. Instead, supporters of each method try to win their argument by pointing out the weaknesses of the other measurement technique.

Campbell et al. (1970) and Hellriegel and Slocum (1974) favor the perceptual method because to them objective measures assess elements which are too far removed from actual behavior. On the other hand, James and Jones (1974) caution us against over-reliance on perceptual measures, and Woodman and King (1978) do not see the argument against use of objective measures "persuasive enough to discourage the use of more objective measures of organizational climate" (p. 819).

Organizational climate studies can be classified into three broad categories by the use of climate as the dependent, intervening, or independent variable. Studies treating climate as the dependent variable

examine the factors determining climate of the organization. Steers (1977) presents four sets of factors which influence the climate of a particular organization or work group. The first set of factors can be found in the formal structure and include such elements as the degree of centralization, formalization, and rule-orientation. This also include size and the position of one's job in the hierarchy. The second set of factors is included in the type of technology employed by an organization. Peterson (1975), for example, in his study of fifteen Norwegian industrial firms classified as small batch, mass production, and continuous process firms, found a significant relationship between the type of technology and perceived climate. He found that employees of the firms with mass production technologies perceived the climate of their organization as the least favorable than the employees in other two types of organizations.

The third set of factors presented by Steers (1977) as a determinant of climate is the elements in the external environment. He presents severe economic conditions and market uncertainty as examples of environmental factors that can influence the perception of organizational climate. Finally, policies and practices of management can have a major bearing on climate. Degree of autonomy given to the employee and leniency toward the standardized procedures and rules, for example, are found to be related to the organizational climate.

Other researchers have found a variety of other factors to be important determinants of climate. Vroom (1964) includes interpersonal style of leaders, the nature of the interpersonal relationships among peers, the nature of the job, the structure of the organization, and

the reward systems as determinants of one's perception of climate. Litwin and Stringer (1968) consider climate to be affected by the leadership style. Pritchard and Karasick (1973) have found local office conditions, among other factors, to be related to the climate, while Garvin (1975) found job level and departmental affiliation to be the most important determinant of climate perception.

Another group of researchers look at climate as an intervening variable. According to this approach, climate is formed by independent variables; and, in turn, influences a variety of outcome variables such as satisfaction and performance. In other words, in studies conducted by this group of investigators, climate is treated as a link between independent and dependent variables. Organizational climate has primarily been used as an intervening variable when human relations training, leadership, or manager's personality needs were used as the independent variables (Hellriegel and Slocum, 1974). A study of directors and scientists by Lawler, Hall, and Oldham (1974) focused on the ways climate mediated the impact of organizational structure and management style, on the one hand, and performance and satisfaction, on the other. The results indicated that there was a strong relationship between management style and climate but very little relations between structure and climate. Climate in turn was strongly related to satisfaction, but less to employee performance.

Another interesting study is that of Litwin and Stringer (1968). Through a realistic stimulated game, the researchers were able to create an authoritarian-oriented business, a democratic-friendly business, and an achieving business. A significant aspect of this study

was the fact that leadership styles were manipulated to create these three types of climates. In other words, these climates were the result of instructions given to the presidents of these firms on how to act. Participants in the achieving climate revealed the highest level of performance, while the highest level of satisfaction was indicated by those in the democratic-friendly climate. Replication of the study has also produced the same results.

In their study of the effects of a manager's personality profile on climate and its consequences for the organization, Marrow, Bowers, and Seashore (1967) found that people-oriented managers created a climate where employees felt more importance and were more responsible in their job. As a result of such a climate, performance increased, while turnover, training time, and manufacturing costs declined. Pritchard and Karasick (1973) studied the effects of six personality needs (needs for order, achievement, affiliation, autonomy, dominance, and growth) on organizational climate, job satisfaction, and performance. Their conclusion was that individual needs of managers could interact with climate to influence the degree of job satisfaction and performance.

Some researchers, however, are interested in organizational climate as an independent variable. To be more specific, this group of researchers view climate of the organization as a potential determinant of such variables as work performance and job satisfaction. The relationship between climate and performance is rather complex. Litwin and Stringer (1968), for example, in their extensive investigation of the relationship between organizational climate and productivity, satisfaction, and creativity came to the conclusion that authoritarian

climates lead to low performance as well as low satisfaction and creativity. Achievement-oriented climate, on the other hand, lead to high productivity, high satisfaction, creativity, and strong attitudes toward the work group. In the affiliative climate, where good interpersonal relations were emphasized, satisfaction was high while performance still remained low. Two other studies by Steers (1975, 1976) support these findings.

Another study by Frederickson (1968) indicated that the degree of performance for individuals in rules oriented and structured or innovative and loosely supervised climates were more predictable than in inconsistent climates which were associated with lower job performance. It was also found "that in an innovative climate . . . greater productivity can be expected of people with skills and attitudes that are associated with independence of thought and action and the ability to be productive in free, unstructured situations" (p. 13). Other studies also report a variety of climate types to be associated with different levels of performance, while as Hellriegel and Slocum (1974) concluded in their review of literature "significant differences in subjects' perceptions of climate, however, do not always result in varying levels of performance" (p. 272). In other words, the findings on the relationship between organizational climate and performance are inconsistent, and sometimes even contradictory.

The relationship between job satisfaction and organizational climate, on the other hand, is well established. Studies by McMahon, Ivancevich, and Matteson (1977), Kumar and Bohra (1979), Schneider (1975), and Downey et al. (1975) indicate strong positive relations

between organizational climate and job satisfaction. LaFollette and Sims (1975) in their study of 1161 employees of a major midwestern medical complex and Pritchard and Karasick (1973) in their study of 76 managers found a relationship between organizational climate and job satisfaction, on the one hand, and climate and performance, on the other. Their studies indicated that climate had a much more profound effect on satisfaction than on performance. A review of literature by Hellriegel and Slocum (1974) clearly indicated that climate was related to job satisfaction in terms of interpersonal relations, group cohesiveness, task-involvement, and the like.

Most studies of job satisfaction and climate investigate the correlations between the two variables. Few, however, have tried to determine the direction of causality between these two. In other words, they ask whether it is the individual's perception of the climate that determines his satisfaction, or, whether it is the level of satisfaction/dissatisfaction that causes one to perceive the climate in a particular way (e.g., authoritarian, affiliative, or the like).

Experimental studies by Litwin and Stringer (1968) and Dieterly and Schneider (1974) show that the direction is more from climate to satisfaction rather than the reverse. Taylor and Bowers (1972) in their causal analysis of 284 work groups in 15 different organizations concluded that "organizational climate shows evidence of being more the cause of, than caused by, satisfaction" (p. 89). Hand, Richards, and Slocum (1973) in their longitudinal analysis of managers in an industrial organization reached the same conclusion.

The implications of these findings on causal relationship between

organizational climate and job satisfaction is rather obvious. As

Friend and Burns (1977) state:

Generally, these data show the relative importance of job characteristics in the determination of workers' satisfaction with their jobs. Therefore, at present, the search for positive alterations in the job environment still seems to be the best course of action when we want to affect job satisfaction (p. 605).

Understanding organizational climate enables the practitioners to better comprehend the behavior in the organization and thereby provide a stronger basis for action. Taking the negative consequences of job dissatisfaction into consideration, it becomes clear how important it is to study the climate as one of the essential determinants of job satisfaction. Through investigation of employees' perceptions of organizational climate it is possible to assess, and if necessary modify, the factors acting as deterrent to the effectiveness of organization and individual well being.

The Redundancy Issue

One of the major questions raised regarding the relationship between satisfaction and climate is the issue of redundancy of the two concepts (Guion, 1973; Johannesson, 1973). In other words, these authors argue that the two concepts might be the same, both at conceptual as well as operational levels. Johannesson (1973) states two major reasons for his assertion: first, researchers studying climate have simply used items from old satisfaction measures to construct their climate instruments:

Climate researchers, instead of attempting to write items that are unique to climate, have borrowed from established

measures. Thus, new climate measures have been constructed from old satisfaction measures (p. 119).

The second reason offered for the redundancy of satisfaction and climate focuses on the methodology employed by the researchers in these two areas.

Perceptual researchers have tended to use methods of measurement (i.e., describe your work situation) which are identical to those methods often employed by satisfaction researchers. Feelings influence descriptions . . . if feelings heavily influence descriptions of perceptions, or the perceptions themselves, how can derivatives of them be called satisfaction dimensions at one point in time and climate dimensions at other (pp. 119-122).

The redundancy argument, however, has been disputed by many researchers. Zultowsky, Arvey, and Dewhirst (1978), for example, after factor analyzing all items from the Minnesota Employee Satisfaction Questionnaire and the Organizational Climate Questionnaire developed by Campbell and Beaty (1971), found these two measures sufficiently independent for use in future research. *In-20*

LaFollette and Sims (1975) also tested the redundancy issue raised by Johannesson. Using "redundancy hypothesis" (if A and B are the same they should have the same relationship to C), they used four measures, Job Descriptive Index, Organizational Climate Questionnaire, Organizational Practice Questionnaire, and a measure of job performance in their study of a major midwestern complex. The results indicated that climate and organizational practice related differently to performance than job satisfaction. This and other studies by Downey, Hellriegel, and Phelps (1974), Hellriegel and Slocum (1974), Muchinsky (1977a), and Schneider and Snyder (1975) all seem to reject the redundancy of job satisfaction and climate concepts.

Payne and Pugh (1976) in an article which is probably the most comprehensive on dealing with the issue to date, discussed the reasons behind this confusion. According to the authors, some "overlap in the content" can make it difficult to distinguish one concept from the other. This, however, is inevitable and not necessarily incorrect. When asking respondents about any specific aspect of his job and the organization in which that job is embedded, there would be some commonality between the two. There are, however, two major differences between the two concepts:

Firstly, job satisfaction is focused upon a particular job, while organizational climate refers to organization as a whole; secondly, job satisfaction concerns a person's affective response to his job, while organizational climate is derived from a person's description of what the organization is like. In the case of climate, the respondent is in effect asked to ignore his personal feelings about the organization and merely describe what goes on (Payne and Pugh, 1976, p. 46).

In other words, job satisfaction is an evaluative appraisal of one's job, while organizational climate is a descriptive account of organization in general. A logical conclusion is that the possibility of variance in levels of satisfaction should be greater than perceptions of climate for any group of individuals in the same organization. In fact, this has already been established by a number of researchers (see, for example, Schneider and Snyder, 1975).

In summary, all available data indicate that climate and satisfaction are two separate concepts relating differently to other aspects of organization like performance and effectiveness. If there is any criticism to be made it should be directed toward operationalization of the concepts rather than the concepts themselves. In conclusion,

"while there is evidence of a relationship between measures of these two concepts, logically and empirically they remain distinct (Payne and Pugh, 1976, p. 47).

Related Research in Higher Education

Although job satisfaction has been widely investigated in many industrial and service organizations, few studies are carried out in academic setting and even much fewer involve academic administrators. This is generally due to the industrial and business orientation of the researchers and partly because of the assumption that job satisfaction instruments are not applicable to the academic settings (Smart and Morstain, 1975).

As far as the industrial and business orientation is concerned, the attitudes are changing particularly in regard to the faculty members. For a variety of reasons, including a desire on the part of administrators to improve work motivation (Miskel, Snapp, and Hatley, 1975) and to prevent unionization of faculty (Feuille and Blandin, 1974), the number of such studies is increasing. Most of these studies, however, are not theory based, and in most instances the instruments used are not well established. Therefore, it is rather difficult to reach any degree of generalizability regarding the factors contributing to the job satisfaction or dissatisfaction of faculty in both two-year colleges and universities.

The research review indicates that faculty job satisfaction has been on the decline since the 1950's. A number of studies by Eckert and Stecklein (1959), Eckert and Williams (1972), and Willie and

Stecklein (1982) is revealing. These studies as well as the study done by Robinson, Athanasiou, and Head (1969) report a score of 4 on a five-point scale measuring the satisfaction of faculty before 1970. The satisfaction score, however, indicated a gradual decline during the 1970's and especially after 1980. Studies by Willie and Stecklein (1982) and Gannon et al. (1980) showed that the degree of satisfaction of faculty after the year 1980 has declined to below 4 and even in some cases to below 3. Willie and Stecklein's study (1982) also showed that the percentage of faculty describing themselves as indifferent or satisfied, in proportion to those very satisfied, had increased in the past three decades.

According to Willie and Stecklein (1982), factors that could produce satisfaction in 1956 and 1958 were colleagues and associates, intellectual stimulation, and opportunity to participate in the development of students. In 1980, working conditions was mentioned as the second ranking factor contributing to the satisfaction. On the other hand poor salary was cited as the major source of dissatisfaction in 1956, and the poor attitudes on the part of the colleagues was the most frequently mentioned source of dissatisfaction in 1958. By 1980, working conditions, salary, and administration became the greatest source of dissatisfaction.

Neumann (1978) found the reward system and pay to be the strongest correlate of job satisfaction for the university faculty. In addition, he found strong relationships between teaching and administrative activities and job satisfaction. He concluded that the study "provides enough evidence to suggest that perceived organizational factors (based

on theories of organizational climate) are important determinants of faculty job satisfaction" Neumann, 1978, p. 273).

Another study by Paxton and Thomas (1977) found a high correlation between "personal-public image" and "faculty-student interaction with presidents," on the one hand, and job satisfaction of community colleges, on the other. For Universities, they found "personal-public image" to be related to satisfaction, while there was no relationship between "faculty-student interaction" and satisfaction. Cooper (1978) found a strong positive relationship between the junior college teacher's perception of satisfaction and students' perception of teaching effectiveness. He also found "teacher rapport with immediate supervisor; rapport among teachers; teacher salary; teaching load; curriculum issues; teacher status; school facilities and services; and community pressure" to be associated with the teacher job satisfaction (Cooper, 1978, p. 385).

The relations between demographic variables have also been studied by a number of researchers. The results, however, are mixed. Pearson and Seiler (1983) found tenure as the only independent variable which had a significant effect on job satisfaction. The effects of other demographic variables--such as sex, age, type of institution (public vs. private), academic rank, and publications--were relatively weak. Others (Gannon et al., 1980; McNeece, 1981; Perry, 1977) also report some degree of association between demographic variables and job satisfaction. One of the findings of these studies was that female faculty reported lower levels of satisfaction than males. No explanation, however is given for this difference. Locke, Fitzpatrick, and White (1983) in their study of college and university faculty reached the same

conclusion. They, however, explain the difference by the fact that female faculty were younger, had shorter tenure, were at lower ranks, and were paid less than males.

In a study designed to test the applicability of the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) as an instrument measuring the job satisfaction of administrators in higher education institutions, Smart and Morstain (1975) found out that administrators whose preferred and perceived job responsibilities were most congruent had a higher mean score on the "work" scale of JDI. They also found that the same group of administrators do not perceive their work as frustrating, routine, and boring like their "Moderate" and "Discongruent" peers; rather, they thought their job to be challenging, fascinating, and satisfying. They suggest, however, that since the sample was limited to the institutional research administrators, the results should not be generalized to other groups of administrators until further study is done.

Summary

An overview of different theories of job satisfaction and organizational climate was presented in this chapter. Job satisfaction theories were grouped into two categories: content theories and process theories. Content theories included Maslow's need hierarchy and Herzberg's two-factor theory and attempted to determine factors contributing to the satisfaction/dissatisfaction of an individual. Process theories including equity theory, discrepancy theory, and fulfillment theory tried to find the process by which different variables interact to produce job satisfaction. Studies supporting or rejecting these

theories were also reviewed.

The second part of this chapter was a review of consequences of job satisfaction and the controversies involved in the relationship between satisfaction and other variables such as performance, turnover and absenteeism. It was indicated that research tended to support the hypothesis that performance causes satisfaction rather than the reverse. It was also shown that dissatisfaction can result in absenteeism, turnover, mental and physical health of the employee, and other negative effects that can be devastating for the organization as well as the individual.

Review of organizational climate studies revealed that there is some disagreement on the operationalization of the concept of climate. Some researchers argued that climate should be measured objectively, independent from the individual interference. Majority, however, were in favor of perceptual measures and proposed that it is the perception, rather than the actual climate, that accounts for the outcome variables such as job satisfaction and motivation.

Still, at another level, climate was used as the dependent, intervening, or independent variable. Studies using climate as the dependent variable tried to determine factors contributing to the formation of organizational climate. As an intervening variable, moderating effects of climate on the relationship between input and outcome variables were studied. Those interested in climate as an independent variable studied the relationship between organizational climate and such dependent variables as job satisfaction and performance.

The latter part of this chapter dealt with the related research

in the institutions of higher learning. It was found that there has been a virtual omission of research related to the perceived organizational climate and job satisfaction of administrators in the higher education institutions. Research on job satisfaction of college and university faculty, however, were found to be increasing although because of the use of "tailor-made" instruments and lack of theoretical interest on the part of researchers, any generalization seemed rather unwarranted.

CHAPTER III

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Introduction

In order to investigate the research questions identified in Chapter I, information was gathered on the academic administrators' perception of organizational climate and their job satisfaction/dissatisfaction. The sample of the study consisted of two hundred fifty-six academic vice-presidents, deans, associate and assistant deans, and department heads from five large universities and forty-two community colleges in three midwestern states.

The two questionnaires used to gather the required information for the study were the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) and the Climate Questionnaire (Form B). In addition, a series of questions were developed to gather necessary organizational and biographical data about the respondents and their respective institutions.

This chapter presents the research hypotheses, a description of the population, the sampling procedures, a description of the research instrument, data collection, and data analysis methods.

Research Hypotheses

Based on the research questions presented in Chapter I, the following hypotheses were formulated to test the relationship between

the variables:

Hypothesis 1. There is no significant difference between overall job satisfaction of academic administrators in community colleges and those in universities.

Hypothesis 2. There is no significant difference between the organizational climate of community colleges and of universities as it is perceived by the academic administrators in these two types of institutions.

Hypothesis 3. There is no significant relationship between the overall satisfaction of academic administrators in community colleges and universities and the organizational climate of these institutions.

Hypothesis 3a. Controlling for the types of institutions, there is no significant relationship between job satisfaction of the academic administrators and the organizational climate of institutions of higher education.

Hypothesis 3b. Controlling for the size of the institutions, there is no significant relationship between overall job satisfaction of academic administrators and the organizational climate of higher education institutions.

Hypothesis 3c. Controlling for the sex of the respondents, there is no significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of academic administrators and the organizational climate of institutions of higher education.

Hypothesis 3d. Controlling for the age of respondents, there is no significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of

academic administrators and the organizational climate of institutions of higher education.

Hypothesis 3e. Controlling for the level of income, there is no significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of academic administrators and the organizational climate of higher education institutions.

Hypothesis 3f. Controlling for the professional rank of the respondents, there is no significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of academic administrators and the organizational climate of the institutions of higher education.

Hypothesis 3g. Controlling for the level of education of the respondents, there is no significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of academic administrators and the organizational climate of institutions of higher education.

Hypothesis 3h. Controlling for the length of experience of the respondents in their present administrative position, there is no significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of academic administrators and the organizational climate in higher education institutions.

Sample

Academic administrators of five large comprehensive universities and forty-two community colleges in three states were selected to participate in this study. The latest available college catalogues for these institutions, obtained from the Oklahoma State University Library, listed a total of 690 academic administrators from which the sample

was selected.

It was decided to include all 155 vice presidents, deans, associate and assistant deans in the study. This was done primarily to avoid under-representation of this group. Twenty percent of 348 university department heads and twenty percent of 196 community college department heads were randomly selected for the study. (See Table I for additional information regarding the selection of sample population.)

Procedures for Data Collection

On April 10, 1982, 256 questionnaires, along with a stamped, self-addressed returned envelope were mailed to the sample population, that is, academic administrators in selected colleges and universities. An explanatory cover letter, accompanied the questionnaires. All questionnaires were coded so that follow-up letters could be sent to non-respondents. The names of all respondents were kept confidential. Within two weeks 162, or 63 percent were returned. Among the returned questionnaires, eight were blank and two were incomplete. (See Appendix B for the cover letter and Appendix A for the questionnaires.)

After three weeks, a follow-up letter and a copy of the original questionnaire was mailed to each of the participants who had failed to respond the first time. This was done to encourage participation of the non-respondents and to reassure them again of the confidentiality of the responses. (See Appendix B for the follow-up letter.)

By May 15, 1982, a total of 185 questionnaires (72%) were received. Sixty-eight percent, or 175 questionnaires were complete. Subsequently, data processing began with 175 questionnaires. (See Table II for response rate by the rank of participants and the type of institutions.)

TABLE I
SELECTION OF SAMPLE POPULATION

Administrative Rank	Number in Population			Number in Sample Population			
		Universities	Colleges	Total	Universities	Colleges	Total
Vice Presidents	N	5	10	15	5	10	15
	%	1%	4%	2%	3%	13%	6%
Deans	N	45	21	66	45	21	66
	%	10%	9%	10%	25%	28%	26%
Associate Deans	N	32	2	34	32	2	34
	%	7%	1%	5%	17%	3%	13%
Assistant Deans	N	29	2	31	29	2	31
	%	6%	1%	4%	16%	3%	12%
Department Heads	N	348	196	544	70	40	110
	%	76%	85%	79%	39%	53%	43%
Totals	N	495	231	690	181	75	266
	%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

TABLE II

SAMPLE RESPONSE RATE BY THE RANK OF PARTICIPANT AND THE TYPE OF INSTITUTIONS

Administrative Rank	Universities			Community Colleges			
		Number Sent	Returned	Useable	Number Sent	Returned	Useable
Vice Presidents	N	5	3	3	10	10	10
	%	3%	2%	2%	13%	13%	13%
Deans	N	45	28	25	21	18	18
	%	25%	15%	14%	28%	24%	24%
Associate Deans	N	32	28	28	2	2	2
	%	17%	15%	15%	3%	3%	3%
Assistant Deans	N	29	17	17	2	1	1
	%	16%	9%	9%	3%	1%	1%
Department Heads	N	70	46	43	40	31	28
	%	39%	26%	24%	53%	42%	38%
Totals	N	181	121	116	75	62	59
	%	100%	67%	64%	100%	83%	79%

Demographic Data

All Respondents

Of the 175 administrators who participated in the study, on hundred forty-six (83.43%) were males, and the rest, twenty-nine (16.57%) were females. Administrators participating in this study fit into five categories according to their professional ranks: thirteen (7.43%) were vice presidents; forty-three (24.57%) were deans; thirty (17.14%) were associate deans; eighteen (10.29%) were assistant deans and; seventy-one (40.57%) were department heads. The age of respondents ranged from 32 to 66 with twenty-seven (16.70%) thirty-nine years of age or younger; one hundred twenty-nine (75%), 40 to 60 years of age; and, sixteen (9.30%) over 60 years of age.

All, except 2 of the respondents, were holding masters, specialist, or doctoral level degrees. Of those with doctorate degrees, thirty-one (17.71%) were holding Ed.D.s, and one hundred two (58.29%) Ph.D.s. Thirty-eight (21.71%) of the administrators reported holding a master's degree and two of the respondents (1.14%) had specialist degrees in education.

Total years of experience in the present administrative position ranged from 1 to 17. Seventy-eight (44.83%) had spent between one to four years in their present position, fifty-five (31.61%) from five to nine, thirty-four (19.54%) from ten to fourteen, and seven (4.02%) administrators had spent fifteen to nineteen years in their present position. The gross annual income of the administrators ranged from \$15,000 to more than \$50,000. Thirty-seven (21.14%) earned \$29,000

TABLE III
 FREQUENCY OF RESPONSES BY SEX, RANK, EDUCATION, AGE, INCOME,
 AND THE LENGTH OF TIME SPENT IN PRESENT POSITION

	Frequency	Cumulative Frequency	Frequency %	Cumulative Frequency %
<u>Sex</u>				
Female	29	29	16.57	16.57
Male	146	175	83.43	100.00
<u>Rank</u>				
Vice-President	13	13	7.43	7.43
Dean	43	56	24.57	32.00
Associate Dean	30	86	17.14	49.14
Assistant Dean	16	104	10.29	59.43
Department Head	71	175	40.57	100.00
<u>Income</u>				
\$10,000-\$14,999	0	0	.00	.00
\$15,000-\$19,999	5	5	2.86	2.86
\$20,000-\$24,999	14	19	8.00	10.86
\$25,000-\$29,999	18	37	10.29	21.15
\$30,000-\$34,999	30	67	17.14	38.29
\$35,000-\$39,999	29	96	16.57	54.86
\$40,000-\$44,999	25	121	14.29	69.15
\$45,000-\$49,999	23	144	13.14	82.29
\$50,000 and above	31	175	17.71	100.00

TABLE III (Continued)

	Frequency	Cumulative Frequency	Frequency %	Cumulative %
<u>Education</u>				
B.A./B.S.	1	1	.58	.58
M.A./M.S.	38	39	21.71	22.29
Ed.D.	31	70	17.71	40.00
Ph.D.	102	172	58.29	98.29
Other	3	175	1.71	100.00
<u>Age</u>				
30-34	3	3	1.74	1.74
35-39	24	27	13.95	15.69
40-44	41	68	23.84	39.53
45-49	32	100	18.61	58.14
50-54	28	128	16.28	74.42
55-59	28	156	16.28	90.70
60-64	13	169	7.56	98.26
65-69	3	172	1.74	100.00
<u>Time in Current Position</u>				
1- 4	78	78	44.83	44.83
5- 9	55	133	31.61	76.44
10-14	34	167	19.54	95.98
15-19	7	174	4.02	100.00

or less, eighty-four (48.00%) between \$30,000 and \$44,000, and fifty-four (30.86%) earned from \$45,000 to more than \$50,000 annually. (See Table III).

University Administrators

Of the 116 university administrators ninety-six (82.76%) were males, and twenty (17.24%) females. Included in the sample were three vice presidents (@.59%), twenty-five deans (21.55%), twenty-eight associate deans (24.14%), seventeen assistant deans (14.65%), and forty-three department heads (37.07%). Nineteen administrators (16.38%) were 39 years of age and younger, eighty-nine (76.72%) between the ages of 40 and 60, and eight (6.90%) over 60 years of age. Two of the respondents failed to report their age. One of the administrators was holding the bachelor's degree, nineteen (7.76%) the Master's degree, fifteen (12.93%) Ed.D's, ninety (77.59%) Ph.D's, and one individual reported holding a degree below the bachelor's. Fifty-three (46.09%) had held their present administrative position for less than five years, thirty-six (31.30%) from 5 to 9, twenty (17.39%) from 10 to 14, and six (5.22%) for 15 or more years. Twenty-two (18.97%) had a gross annual income of less than \$30,000. Forty-one (35.34%) between \$30,000 and \$44,000, and fifty-three (45.69%) \$45,000 or more. (See Table IV).

Community College Administrators

Fifty (84.75%) of the community college administrators who participated in the study were males, and nine (15.25%) were females.

TABLE IV

COMPARISON OF FREQUENCY, FREQUENCY PERCENTAGE, AND CUMULATIVE FREQUENCY PERCENTAGE
OF CERTAIN DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES FOR COMMUNITY COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

	Community Colleges			Universities		
	Frequency	Frequency %	Cumulative Frequency %	Frequency	Frequency %	Cumulative Frequency %
<u>Sex</u>						
Female	9	15.25	15.25	20	17.24	17.24
Male	50	85.75	100.00	96	82.76	100.00
<u>Age</u>						
30-34	2	3.45	3.45	1	0.88	0.88
35-39	8	13.79	17.24	16	14.03	14.91
40-44	17	29.31	46.55	24	21.05	35.96
45-49	10	17.24	63.79	22	19.30	55.26
50-54	6	10.34	74.13	22	19.30	74.56
55-59	10	17.24	91.37	18	15.79	90.35
60-64	3	5.17	96.54	10	8.77	99.12
65-69	2	3.46	100.00	1	.88	100.00

TABLE IV (Continued)

	Community Colleges			Universities		
	Frequency	Frequency %	Cumulative Frequency %	Frequency	Frequency %	Cumulative Frequency %
<u>Education</u>						
B.A./B.S.	0	.00	.00	1	.86	.86
M.A./M.S.	29	49.15	49.15	9	7.76	8.62
Ed.D.	16	27.12	76.27	15	12.93	21.55
Ph.D.	12	20.34	96.61	90	77.59	99.14
Other	2	3.39	100.00	1	.86	100.00
<u>Time in Current Position</u>						
1- 4	25	42.37	42.37	53	46.09	46.09
5- 9	19	32.20	74.57	36	31.30	77.39
10-14	14	23.73	98.30	20	17.39	94.78
15-19	1	1.70	100.00	6	5.22	100.00

TABLE IV (Continued)

	Community Colleges			Universities		
	Frequency	Frequency %	Cumulative Frequency %	Frequency	Frequency %	Cumulative Frequency %
<u>Rank</u>						
Vice President	10	16.95	16.95	3	2.59	2.59
Dean	18	30.51	47.46	25	21.55	24.14
Associate Dean	2	3.39	50.85	28	24.14	48.28
Assistant Dean	1	1.69	52.54	17	14.65	62.93
Department Head	28	47.46	100.00	43	37.07	100.00
<u>Income</u>						
\$10,000-\$14,999	0	.00	.00	0	.00	.00
\$15,000-\$19,999	2	3.39	3.39	3	2.59	2.59
\$20,000-\$24,999	12	20.34	23.73	2	1.72	4.31
\$25,000-\$29,999	14	23.73	47.46	4	3.45	7.76
\$30,000-\$34,999	17	28.81	76.27	13	11.21	18.97
\$35,000-\$39,999	12	20.35	96.62	17	14.65	33.62
\$40,000-\$44,999	1	1.69	98.31	24	20.69	54.31
\$45,000-\$49,999	1	1.69	100.00	22	18.97	73.28
\$50,000 and above	0	.00	.00	31	26.72	100.00

Ten (16.95%) of the respondents were vice presidents, eighteen (30.51%) were deans, two (3.39%) were associate deans, one assistant dean, and twenty-eight (47.46%) were department heads. Ten respondents (17.24%) were thirty-nine years of age or younger, forty-five (77.59%) between the ages of 40 and 60, and three (5.17%) more than sixty years of age. Twenty-nine (49.15%) of the administrators were holding the Baccalaureate degree, sixteen (27.12%) the Master's degree, twelve (20.34%) Ed.D.'s, and two (3.39%) Ph.D.'s. Twenty-five (42.37%) of the respondents had held the present administrative position for less than 5 years, nineteen (32.20%) between 5 to 9, fourteen (23.73%) between 10 to 14, and one (1.69%) for 16 years. Twenty-eight (47.46%) earned between \$15,000 to \$29,000, thirty (50.85%) between \$30,000 and \$44,000, and one respondent had a gross annual income of between \$45,000 to \$50,000. (See Table IV).

Instrumentation

Two questionnaires, Job Descriptive Index and Organizational Climate Questionnaire (Form B) were utilized to accomplish the objectives of this study. (See Appendix A).

Job Satisfaction

The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) was used to measure overall job satisfaction of administrators. This 70-item instrument developed by Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969) measures satisfaction over five areas of a job: work itself, supervision, pay, co-workers, and opportunities for promotion on the job. Each respondent is asked to indicate the

applicability of a short statement or an adjective describing a particular aspect of his or her job. The subjects are asked to mark "Y" if it applies to their job, "N" if it does not, and "?" if they can not decide as to the applicability of the item to their job.

Factor analysis of the data gathered from two studies of the electronic industry and a large bank in Minnesota led the authors to incorporate a modified scoring system rather than the traditional one. The revised scoring system presented in the following table was also used in the present study.

TABLE V
TRADITIONAL AND REVISED WEIGHTS FOR
DIRECT SCORING OF JDI ITEMS

Response	Traditional Weight	Revised Weight
<u>Yes</u> to a positive item	3	3
<u>No</u> to a negative item	3	3
? to any item	2	1
<u>Yes</u> to a negative item	1	0
<u>No</u> to a negative item	1	0

Source: Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969, p. 79)

The five job areas included in the JDI were obtained through the review of previous satisfaction research. According to the authors, these aspects are those that most consistently appear in studies designed to

identify the underlying dimensions of job satisfaction. The items for each scale were obtained from previous literature and face to face interviews. The final items were obtained through modification, re-phrasing, or deletion of the original items on the basis of an extensive series of item analysis.

Validity of the final version of JDI has been established by many different studies. Several studies by the authors led them to conclude that:

The JDI scales, as scored by direct method shows consistent discriminant and convergent validity. The validity of the JDI scales exceed that of the rating methods; the loading on relevant facts are generally higher, and loading on supposedly distinct factors lower (Smith et al., 1969, p. 67).

Reliability statistics are also presented by the authors, as well as in many other studies utilizing this instrument. The coefficient of reliability of the measure's five dimensions, as reported by the authors, range from .80 to .88 using split-half method and applying the Spearman-Brown formula.

Organizational Climate

The Organizational Climate Questionnaire (Form B), developed by Litwin and Stringer (1968) was used to measure the organizational climate of colleges and universities. Based on a theory of climate, an instrument (Form A) was developed and later revised (Form B) that "should collect members' perception of and subjective responses to the organizational environment. The climate of an organization could then be defined operationally as the sum of the perceptions of individuals working in that organization" (Litwin and Stringer, 1968, p. 66).

In its present form, the Organizational Climate Questionnaire (Form B), consists of 50 four-point Likert type items. Organizational climate is measured by nine separate scales defined by the authors as:

1. Structure--the feeling that employees have about the constraints in the group, how many rules, regulations, procedures there are; is there an emphasis on "red tape" and going through channels, or is there a loose and informal atmosphere.
2. Responsibility--the feeling of being your own boss; not having to double-check all your decisions; when have a job to do, knowing that it is your job.
3. Reward--the feeling of being rewarded for a job well done; emphasizing positive rewards rather than punishment; the perceived fairness of the pay and promotion policies.
4. Risk--the sense of riskiness and challenge in the job and in the organization; is there an emphasis on taking calculated risks, or is playing it safe the best way to operate.
5. Warmth--the feeling of general good fellowship that prevails in the work group atmosphere; the emphasis on being well-liked; the prevalence of friendly and informal social group.
6. Support--the perceived helpfulness of the managers and other employees in the group; emphasis on mutual support from above and below.
7. Standards--the perceived importance of implicit and explicit goals and performance standards; the emphasis on doing a good job; the challenge represented in personal and group goals.
8. Conflict--the feeling that managers and other workers want to hear different opinions; the emphasis placed on getting problems out in the open, rather than smoothing them over or ignoring them.
9. Identity--the feeling that you belong to a company and you are a valuable member of a working team; the importance placed on this kind of spirit (Litwin & Stringer, 1968, pp. 81-82).

Campbell et al. (1970) in an extensive review of existing literature found four factors common in all climate instruments: (1) individual autonomy--Litwin and Stringer's responsibility, standards, and identity scales relate to this factor; (2) the degree of structure imposed upon the position--Litwin and Stringer's structure scale

relates to this factors; (3) reward orientation--Litwin and Stringer's reward scale relates to this factor; (4) consideration, warmth, support--Litwin and Stringer's warmth and support scales relate to this factor. In short, it can be concluded that the Organizational Climate Questionnaire is a representative measure of organizational climate.

Because this measure was originally developed to assess the perceived organizational climate of industrial workers, it was subjected to review by a panel of ten experts in the fields of sociology and higher education administration. It was decided that aside from changing the words "organization" and "management" to "institution" and "administration," no other modification was necessary.

Statistical treatment of Data

Responses to the questionnaires were coded and keypunched on IBM cards. With the help from the programs provided in The SAS User's Guide (Helwig and Council, 1979), the following statistical procedures were used to analyze the data:

One of the primary objectives of this investigation was to measure the level of job satisfaction of academic administrators. In order to accomplish this task, mean scores of the community college and university administrators on each of the five sub-scales of the JDI were calculated. Since the number of items on each sub-scale varied, the total score of each respondent on each aspect of job satisfaction was divided by the number of items of the same sub-scale, and then the mean was calculated. The result was a series of weighted mean scores with a mean of 1.5 representing an average level of satisfaction with the job

or any of its components. The computation of weighted mean scores was necessary for the ranking procedures which will be presented in the next chapter.

The same procedure was used to calculate the mean scores of the respondents on climate and its nine different components. Here, however, because responses to each item were expressed with a range of 0 to 4, the midpoint or average score was 2.00.

Hypothesis I was tested using the t-test to see if there was a significant difference between overall satisfaction of academic administrators in community colleges and universities. The same procedure was used to test Hypothesis II, that is whether or not any significant difference existed between organizational climate of these two types of institutions. In addition, a series of t-tests was calculated to determine the possible significant differences between each component of job satisfaction and organizational climate in community colleges and universities.

Pearson product moment correlation coefficients were used to calculate the relationship between organizational climate and job satisfaction of all respondents--community college, university, male and female administrators. The same procedure was used to obtain separate correlation matrices for each of the above mentioned groups to determine the relationship between each component of job satisfaction with that of organizational climate.

Partial correlation procedures were used to determine the effects of each demographic variable on the relationship between the two major variables under study. The same statistical method was applied to the

same relationship for the colleges and universities, as well as males and females, separately. Finally, the SAS programs were used to tabulate frequency counts and other related statistics.

Summary

In this chapter fully developed research hypotheses were presented. Included were a description of sampling procedures, as well as the method employed for data collection. In addition, a description of demographic characteristics of the respondents, information regarding the instruments used in the study, and statistical procedures utilized for the data analysis, were explained.

The population studied in this investigation consisted of 256 academic administrators in public community colleges and universities across three midwestern states. The measuring instruments used were the Job Descriptive Index and the Organizational Climate Questionnaire (Form B). The data were subjected to a series of correlation tests to determine the relationship between organizational climate and job satisfaction of the respondents. The t-test was used to test for the significant differences in job satisfaction and perceived climate of college and university samples. A series of partial correlations were calculated to control for the effects of demographic characteristics of the sample on the relationship between the major variables under study.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between perceived organizational climate and job satisfaction of academic administrators in public community colleges and universities. Furthermore, it was intended to determine whether or not there was any significant difference between job satisfaction of the two groups of administrators, and whether or not there was any significant difference in organizational climate of colleges and universities.

This chapter presents the results of statistical treatment of data gathered from 175 respondents. The traditional .05 level of significance was used to accept or reject the hypotheses under study.

Job Satisfaction of Administrators

A summary of the overall job satisfaction mean scores of academic administrators and their mean scores on the five sub-scale of the JDI are presented in Table VI. As the table indicates, both groups of administrators are highly satisfied with their jobs, although the university administrators indicated a higher level of the overall satisfaction (2.33) than those in the community colleges (2.18). A ranking of the weighted mean scores for both groups indicated that satisfaction

with colleagues ranked the highest for both groups (2.57 for the colleges and 2.50 for the universities). The mean score of satisfaction with salary ranked the lowest for the universities (2.00), while for the community colleges, the least amount of satisfaction was expressed about promotion policies of those institutions (1.32). The tests of significance for the differences between the mean scores are presented in the following section.

TABLE VI
WEIGHTED MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF COMMUNITY
COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY ADMINISTRATORS ON JOB
SATISFACTION AND ITS FIVE SUB-SCALES

	<u>Colleges (N=59)</u>			<u>Universities (N=116)</u>		
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error
Work	2.18	0.41	0.05	2.17	0.50	0.05
Admin.	2.46	0.52	0.07	2.51	0.51	0.05
Salary	1.90	0.66	0.09	2.00	0.64	0.06
Promotion	1.32	0.94	0.12	2.15	0.96	0.09
Colleagues	2.50	0.42	0.05	2.57	0.44	0.04
Overall Satisfaction	2.18	0.39	0.05	2.33	0.37	0.03

The mean scores of respondents on climate scale, summarized in Table VII, indicated that university administrators scored an average

of 2.78 on their perception of organizational climate, while for college administrators the mean score was 2.81. The highest mean score for both groups was on warmth (3.02 for the universities and 3.04 for the colleges), followed closely by identity (2.96 for universities and 3.00 for the colleges). The lowest score for the universities was on structure (2.56), while for the colleges, the lowest score was on conflict (2.55).

TABLE VII
WEIGHTED MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF COMMUNITY
COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITY ADMINISTRATORS ON
CLIMATE AND ITS NINE SUB-SCALES

	<u>Colleges (N=59)</u>			<u>Universities (N=116)</u>		
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error
Structure	2.88	0.48	0.06	2.56	0.51	0.05
Respon.	2.61	0.31	0.04	2.70	0.37	0.03
Reward	2.71	0.54	0.07	2.90	0.53	0.05
Risk	2.94	0.63	0.08	2.91	0.61	0.61
Warmth	3.04	0.47	0.06	3.02	0.48	0.04
Support	2.90	0.53	0.07	2.79	0.53	0.05
Standard	2.77	0.40	0.05	2.75	0.40	0.04
Conflict	2.55	0.43	0.06	2.60	0.48	0.04
Identity	3.00	0.45	0.06	2.96	0.56	0.05
Org. Climate	2.81	0.36	0.05	2.78	0.38	0.03

Testing the Hypotheses

Hypothesis One

There is no significant difference between overall satisfaction of academic administrators in community colleges and those in universities.

A t-test was used to determine if there was any significant difference between community college and university administrators' job satisfaction. As Table VIII indicates, there was a significant difference between the unweighted mean score of 158.49 for university administrators and the mean score of 148.17 for the community colleges. In that the calculated t value of 2.51, with 115 and 58 degrees of freedom, was significant at the .01 level of confidence ($p < .0129$), the null hypothesis was rejected.

TABLE VIII

COMPARISON OF THE JOB SATISFACTION MEAN SCORES OF COMMUNITY COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY ADMINISTRATORS

Group	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	t Value	P > T
University	116	158.49	25.24		
College	59	148.17	26.57	2.51	.0129

The next step was to compute a series of t-tests comparing mean scores of the two groups on five dimensions of job satisfaction. Data summarized in Table IX reveal that, except for the promotion dimension, there were no significant differences between the mean scores of community colleges and university administrators, so far as the dimensions of job satisfaction are concerned. The t value of the promotion aspect of satisfaction with a probability of .001 was 5.46, indicating a significant difference between the way two groups of administrators perceived promotion policies in their institutions.

TABLE IX

COMPARISON OF MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, AND T SCORES
OF COMMUNITY COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITY ADMINISTRATORS
ON FIVE JOB SATISFACTION SCALES

	<u>Colleges</u>		<u>Universities</u>		T	P> T
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.		
Work	34.90	6.51	34.70	8.06	-.11	.91
Admin.	41.78	8.89	42.65	8.72	.64	.53
Salary	17.14	5.91	18.03	5.79	.94	.35
Promotion	11.85	8.50	19.36	8.67	5.46	.001
Colleagues	42.52	7.13	43.70	7.54	.99	.32

Hypothesis Two

There is no significant difference between the organizational climate of community colleges and of universities as they are perceived by the academic administrators in these two types of institutions.

This hypothesis was generally supported by the data. A t-test, performed to determine whether or not there was any statistically significant difference between the two groups of administrators on this variable, indicated that there was no significant difference between the mean scores of 130.79 for university administrators and 130.14 for community college administrators.

TABLE X
COMPARISON OF THE MEAN SCORE OF PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL
CLIMATE FOR COMMUNITY COLLEGE AND
UNIVERSITY ADMINISTRATORS

Group	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	t Value	P> T
University	116	130.79	18.03		
College	59	130.14	16.84	-.48	.6347

T-tests for each dimension of climate for colleges and universities revealed no significant differences among the seven dimension of risk, responsibility, warmth, support, standards, conflict, and identity. As Table XI shows, however, the two dimensions of structure, with mean

scores of 17.40 for the universities and 20.19 for the colleges, and reward, with mean scores of 17.40 for the universities and 16.29 for the colleges, were significantly different. The t value for the structure aspect of climate, with a probability of .001, was -4.09; and the t value for reward, with a probability of .05, was 2.16.

TABLE XI
COMPARISON OF MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, AND T SCORES
OF COMMUNITY COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY ADMINISTRATORS
ON NINE ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE SCALES

	<u>Colleges</u>		<u>Universities</u>		T	P> T
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.		
Structure	20.17	3.37	17.90	3.57	-4.09	.001
Respon.	18.25	2.19	18.91	2.57	1.68	.09
Reward	16.29	3.25	17.40	3.19	2.16	.03
Risk	8.83	1.88	8.71	1.85	-.30	.76
Warmth	15.20	2.35	15.11	2.39	-.24	.81
Support	14.52	2.63	13.95	2.63	-1.37	.17
Standard	16.63	2.41	16.52	2.41	-.28	.78
Conflict	10.20	1.71	10.40	1.91	.68	.50
Identity	12.02	1.80	11.86	2.24	-.46	.65

Hypothesis Three

There is no significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of academic administrators in community colleges and universities and the organizational climate of these institutions.

The Pearson correlation for overall job satisfaction and perceived organizational climate for all administrators was computed to be .71 at a $p < .001$ significant level. This was an indication of strong positive relationship between these two variables. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. (See Table XII.)

TABLE XII

COEFFICIENT OF CORRELATION BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION
AND PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE
OF ALL RESPONDENTS

	n	Organizational Climate	P
Job Satisfaction	175	.71	.001

The correlation matrix for the relationship between dimensions of job satisfaction and organizational climate revealed a significant positive relationship between all dimensions of satisfaction and organizational climate, except for salary on the satisfaction scale and responsibility on the climate scale (.14, $p < .07$). Two of the dimensions of the climate scale, reward and support, indicated the strongest

relationship with overall job satisfaction of the administrators (.71 and .70, respectively, at .001 significance level). Data relevant to these findings are presented in Appendix C.

Separate correlation coefficients for the relationship between perceived organizational climate and job satisfaction of administrators in both colleges and universities were also produced. As the Table XIII shows, computed coefficient of .75 at a $p < .001$ significance level, indicated a strong significant relationship between the two variables.

TABLE XIII
COEFFICIENT OF CORRELATION BETWEEN PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL
CLIMATE AND JOB SATISFACTION OF THE
UNIVERSITY ADMINISTRATORS

	n	Organizational Climate	P
Job Satisfaction	116	.75	.001

The correlation coefficient for the relationship between organizational climate and job satisfaction of the community college administrators, presented in Table XIV, was .70 with a $p < .001$. Again, this was an indication of strongly significant relationship between the college administrators' perception of organizational climate and their job satisfaction.

TABLE XIV
 COEFFICIENT OF CORRELATION BETWEEN PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL
 CLIMATE AND JOB SATISFACTION OF THE
 COLLEGE ADMINISTRATORS

	n	Organizational Climate	P
Job Satisfaction	59	.70	.001

Two aspects of organizational climate, reward and support, showed the strongest relationship to both college administrators' job satisfaction (.67 and .70, $p < .001$). Salary did not reveal any significant relationship to any of the aspects of job satisfaction of the administrators in community colleges. A summary of the data relevant to these findings is presented in Appendix C.

Sub-Set of the Hypothesis Three

The following hypotheses were designed to test the relationship between organizational climate and job satisfaction of administrators while controlling for the effects of different demographic variables. Procedure GLM (Helwig and Council, 1979) was used to compute the correlation coefficient for the two major variables, while controlling for the effects of the intervening variables stated in each hypothesis.

Hypothesis 3a. Controlling for the type of institutions, there is no significant relationship between job satisfaction of the academic administrators and the organizational climate of institutions of higher education.

Partial correlation used to control for the effect of the types of institutions on the relationship between satisfaction and climate produced a coefficient of .73 ($p < .001$). Therefore the null hypothesis was rejected.

TABLE XV
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE
AND JOB SATISFACTION, CONTROLLING FOR THE
EFFECTS OF THE TYPES OF INSTITUTIONS

	n	Organizational Climate	P
Job Satisfaction	175	.73	.001

Hypothesis 3b. Controlling for the sex of the respondents, there is no significant relationship between overall job satisfaction of academic administrators and the organizational climate of higher education institutions.

As the Table XVI shows, when the effects of the size of the institutions were partialled out, the relationship between perceived organizational climate and job satisfaction of the administrators remained strong. The computation produced a correlation coefficient of .73 at a $p < .001$ significance level. Because of the significance level, the null hypothesis was rejected.

TABLE XVI

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE
AND JOB SATISFACTION, CONTROLLING FOR THE
EFFECTS OF THE SIZE OF INSTITUTIONS

	n	Organizational Climate	P
Job Satisfaction	175	.73	.001

Hypothesis 3c. Controlling for the sex of the respondents, there is no significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of academic administrators and the organizational climate of institutions of higher education.

Hypothesis 3c was tested using a partial correlation technique to see whether or not there was a relationship between major variables under study while controlling for the effects of the sex of respondents. As shown in Table XVII, the calculated coefficient of .72 with a .001 significance level called for the rejection of the null hypothesis.

TABLE XVII

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE
AND JOB SATISFACTION, CONTROLLING FOR THE
EFFECTS OF THE SEX OF RESPONDENTS

	n	Organizational Climate	P
Job Satisfaction	175	.72	.001

Hypothesis 3d. Controlling for the age of respondents, there is no significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of academic administrators and the organizational climate of institutions of higher education.

Partialing out the effects of the age of the academic administrators participating in the study, the relationship between satisfaction and climate remained strong. The computed coefficient was .71 at a $p < .001$ level of significance. As a result, the null hypothesis was rejected.

TABLE XVIII

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE
AND JOB SATISFACTION, CONTROLLING FOR THE
EFFECTS OF THE AGE OF RESPONDENTS

	n	Organizational Climate	P
Job Satisfaction	175	.71	.001

Hypothesis 3e. Controlling for the level of income, there is no significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of academic administrators and the organizational climate of higher education institutions.

The effect of the level of income of the respondents on the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational climate was tested. A correlation coefficient of .70 at a $p < .001$ level of significance was computed using a partial correlation technique. The null hypothesis was rejected because the level of significance was beyond .05.

TABLE XIX

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE
AND JOB SATISFACTION, CONTROLLING FOR THE
EFFECTS OF THE LEVEL OF INCOME

	n	Organizational Climate	P
Job Satisfaction	175	.70	.001

Hypothesis 3f. Controlling for the professional rank of the respondents, there is no significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of academic administrators and the organizational climate of institutions of higher education.

As indicated in Table XX, a correlation coefficient of .71 at a $p < .001$ level of significance was computed by a partial correlation method, controlling for the effects of professional rank of the administrators. The null hypothesis was rejected because the level of significant was greater than $p < .001$.

TABLE XX

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE
AND JOB SATISFACTION, CONTROLLING FOR THE EFFECTS
OF THE PROFESSIONAL RANK OF THE RESPONDENTS

	n	Organizational Climate	P
Job Satisfaction	175	.71	.001

Hypothesis 3g. Controlling for the level of education of the respondents, there is no significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of academic administrators and the organizational climate of institutions of higher education.

This hypothesis was tested by computing a partial correlation of overall job satisfaction and the perceived organizational climate while controlling for the effects of the level of education of respondents. A computed coefficient of .75 at a .001 significance level, presented in Table XXI, resulted in the rejection of the null hypothesis.

TABLE XXI

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE
AND JOB SATISFACTION, CONTROLLING FOR THE
EFFECTS OF THE LEVEL OF EDUCATION

	n	Organizational Climate	P
Job Satisfaction	175	.75	.001

Hypothesis 3h. Controlling for the length of experience of the respondents in their present administrative position, there is no significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of academic administrators and the organizational climate in higher education institutions.

Hypothesis 3h was also rejected because when the effects of the length of experience of the respondents in their present administrative position was controlled for, the relationship between the two major variables remained strong. The computed correlation coefficient was .71 at a $p < .001$ significance level, as Table XXII shows.

TABLE XXII
 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE
 AND JOB SATISFACTION, CONTROLLING FOR THE EFFECTS
 OF THE LENGTH OF EXPERIENCE IN THE
 PRESENT POSITION

	n	Organizational Climate	P
Job Satisfaction	174	.71	.001

Additional Data

Comparison of the male and female administrators' mean scores on the job satisfaction scale revealed no significant difference. A computed t value of $-.04$ at a $.96$ significance level, presented in Table XXIII, pointed to the similarity of the degree of job satisfaction of male and female administrators in the institutions of higher education.

TABLE XXIII
 COMPARISON OF THE JOB SATISFACTION MEAN SCORES OF MALE
 AND FEMALE ACADEMIC ADMINISTRATORS

Group	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	t Value	P > T
Male	146	155.05	26.71		
Female	29	154.83	23.06	-0.04	$.9670$

Comparison of the mean scores of males and females on the perceived organizational climate, produced the same results. A computed t value of -1.29 at a $p < .20$ significance level, presented in Table XIV, indicated that male and female administrators did not differ significantly in their perceptions of organizational climate. The two groups, also, did not differ significantly in their satisfaction with any of the five aspects of their job. The same was true for the male and female administrators' perception of different aspects of the organizational climate.

TABLE XXIV
COMPARISON OF THE ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE MEAN SCORES OF
MALE AND FEMALE ACADEMIC ADMINISTRATORS

Group	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	t Value	$P > T $
Male	146	132.01	17.86		
Female	29	127.41	15.59	-1.29	$.2002$

As it is shown in Table XV, when the correlation coefficient between the climate and satisfaction were separately calculated for males and females, significant relationships were indicated, although the coefficient was stronger for males than females.

TABLE XXV
 COEFFICIENT OF CORRELATION BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION
 AND PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE
 OF MALES AND FEMALES

	n	Organizational Climate	P
<u>Job Satisfaction</u>			
Males	146	.74	.001
Females	29	.57	.001

A correlation matrix provided additional information on the relationship between different dimensions of organizational climate and job satisfaction of both males and females. Almost all dimensions of climate were related to the job satisfaction of males, while for females more than half of the relationships proved to be insignificant. Three of the organizational climate dimensions, risk ($r = .33$), warmth ($r = .11$), and conflict ($r = .15$), were not significantly related to the overall job satisfaction of the female administrators. A summary of the data relevant to these findings is presented in Appendix D.

Finally, the computation of correlation coefficients for overall job satisfaction of administrators and different demographic variables produced only two coefficients at a significance level greater than $p < .05$. For the university administrators, the level of income was positively related to satisfaction ($.35, p < .001$). For the community colleges, only the size of the institution was moderately related to job satisfaction of administrators ($.25, p < .05$). Administrative rank,

length of experience in present position, age sex, and the level of education were not significantly related to the job satisfaction of either group. A summary of the data relevant to these findings is presented in Appendix E.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary of the Study

The purpose of the present study was to investigate the relationship between job satisfaction of academic administrators and their perceived organizational climate in public community colleges and universities across three midwestern states. More specifically, this study was designed to answer the following questions: To what degree are academic administrators in colleges and universities satisfied with their jobs? Is there a relationship between job satisfaction of academic administrators and the organizational climate in higher education institutions? What differences are there between (1) organizational climate and (2) job satisfaction of administrators in community colleges and those in the universities? Do other factors such as the age and sex of the participants, their level of income, size of the institution, current rank, type of the institution, level of education, and the length of time in current administrative position, have any impact on the relationship between job satisfaction and the perceived organizational climate?

In order to answer the proposed questions, academic administrators in five large comprehensive universities and forty-two community colleges were selected. A total of 256 questionnaires were mailed to a randomly

selected sample of department heads and all of the academic vice presidents, deans, associate deans, and assistant deans in there two types of institutions. Within six weeks 185 questionnaires were returned, of which 175 or 68% were complete and used in the study.

Two separate measuring instruments were used; one measured administrators' satisfaction with five areas of their job; the other measured nine dimensions descriptive of organizational climate of the institutions. In addition, a series of questions was included to gather demographic data from the respondents. Job satisfaction was measured by the Job Descriptive Index developed by Smith et al. (1969) consisting of the five dimensions of work, pay, promotion, supervision, and co-workers. The Organizational Climate Questionnaire (Form B) developed by Litwin and Stringer (1968) was used to measure the perceived organizational climates of the two types of institutions. In its present form, the Organizational Climate Questionnaire (Form B) consists of nine sub-scales: structure, responsibility, reward, risk, warmth, support, standards, conflict, and identity.

The responses to the questionnaires were coded, tabulated, key-punched, and verified. The Oklahoma State University Computer Center analyzed the collected data by utilizing THE SAS User's Guide by Helwig and Council (1979). The significance level used to accept or reject the null hypotheses under study was set at .05. Analysis of the collected data was done by using five different statistical procedures. Frequency counts and percentages were provided to give an insight into the complexion and the make-up of the sample. Computation of the mean score of academic administrators on the overall job satisfaction and its related

aspects was prepared as an indication of the levels of satisfaction with the job and its five component parts.

The t-test was used to compare the job satisfaction of administrators in community colleges and universities, as well as the organizational climates of the two types of institutions. A correlation technique was used to assess the degree of relationship between the organizational climate and job satisfaction of academic administrators of both the community colleges and the universities. A partial correlation method was used to investigate the relationship between the organizational climate and job satisfaction of the respondents, while controlling for the effects of different demographic variables.

In addition, the t-test was used to see whether or not there was any difference between the job satisfaction of male and female respondents, as well as their perception of the organizational climate. The Pearson product moment correlation was also applied to the relationship between the job satisfaction of male and female administrators, and their perception of organizational climate.

Summary of the Findings

Computation of the job satisfaction mean scores for the college and university administrators revealed a high level of satisfaction for both groups. For the universities, the highest level of satisfaction was expressed in terms of interrelationship with the colleagues, and the lowest degree of satisfaction was with salary. Community college administrators were most satisfied with their relations with their colleagues and were least satisfied with the promotion policies of

their institutions.

Both the college and university administrators scored above the mean in their perception of the organizational climate. Both groups scored highest on the warmth scale; while the lowest score for the university administrators was on structure, and for the college administrators on conflict.

Hypothesis 1 proposed that there was no significant difference between the job satisfaction of administrators in community colleges and universities. The results of a t-test led to the rejection of this hypothesis since the calculated t value of 2.51 indicated that university administrators were more satisfied with their job.

Hypothesis 2 stated that there was no significant difference in the community college and university administrators' perception of the organizational climate. The empirical findings supported this hypothesis, although, administrators in community colleges and universities perceived the structure and the reward system of their institutions to be different.

Hypothesis 3 stated that there was no significant relationship between organizational climate and the job satisfaction of administrators in higher education institutions. A computation of the Pearson product moment correlation, however, produced a very strong (.71) coefficient which led to the rejection of the null hypothesis.

Hypothesis 3a to 3h were designed to test the relationship between the job satisfaction and the organizational climate, while controlling for the effects of different demographic variables. A computation of partial correlation for each of these variables indicated that in all

cases the relationship between the two major variables remained strong (from .70 to .75). Therefore the hypotheses 3a through 3h were all rejected.

When the mean scores of the male and female administrators on the job satisfaction were compared, no significant difference were found. The comparison of the mean scores of the same two groups on organizational climate produced no significant difference. Correlation coefficient for the relationship between climate and satisfaction for both males and females revealed a significant positive relationship between the two variables (.57 for females and .74 for males). Three aspects of the organizational climate, risk, warmth, and conflict were not, however, significantly related to the job satisfaction of the female administrators.

Discussion

As a group, academic administrators in the colleges and universities had a positive perception of the organizational climate of their institutions. They perceived their institutions to be far from being bureaucratic organizations plagued with red-tape and rigid rules and regulations. High mean scores on the warmth scale for both groups indicated the prevalence of good fellowship and a general feelings of friendly work group atmosphere. Organizational climate was perceived by the administrators as one marked by support from higher-ups, fair promotion policies, and high performance standards.

Baldrige (1971) has identified three dominant images of university governance: bureaucratic, collegial, and political models.

He defines the bureaucratic model in terms of Weberian "ideal type" where the principles of the "legal-rationality" is a dominant theme. Such a model is based on formal structure and a chain of command, impersonal orientation, and a system of formal rules and regulations. The collegial model, on the other hand, is characterized by Baldrige as the "community of scholars" where there is full participation of the members of academic community. After criticizing these two models, Baldrige (1971) proposes his own model which he calls the "political model." In this model, the academic community is seen as an aggregate of varied interest groups, each having its own particular point of view and trying to impose it on others. Compromises and adjustments are the mechanisms through which these groups are held together to form an academic community.

People often call the university administrators bureaucrats, . . . but the men in the critical roles are not bureaucrats, they are politicians struggling to make dreams come through and fighting to balance interest groups off against each other. This place is more like a political jungle, alive and screaming, than a rigid, quiet bureaucracy (Baldrige, 1971, p. 9).

The data gathered for the present study do not support such a model. Even if one considers the administrators as one of the many interest groups involved in the political struggle implied by the model, one should be able to detect some of the manifestations of this ongoing conflict in the participants' perceptions of the work environment. One explanation for Baldrige's contention that the academia resembles the political arena seem to be the time frame in which he was working. The academic community of the 1980s, as opposed to the one in the 1960s, and in spite of many crises it faces, is perceived by its administrators

to be marked with a "relaxed, easy-going working climate," loyal and enthusiastic workers, and a pleasant environment in which to work.

It should be emphasized that the above discussion seems to hold true for both the community colleges and the universities. The computations of the t-test revealed no significant difference between the perception of organizational climate for the two groups of administrators. The significant difference found between the structure of the two types of institutions ($t = -4.09, p < .001$) was an indication of higher levels of rules, regulations, procedures, and red-tape in the universities. This is congruent with the argument that as size increases, so does the level of formalization and specialization; and therefore the necessity of increasing formal rules and regulations to maintain coordination among diverse sub-units (Jackson and Morgan, 1978).

The only other significant difference was the perception of reward system ($t = 2.16, p < .05$). In other words, administrators in community colleges perceived the rewards to be less fairly distributed for a job well done than their counter-parts in the universities. Again it must be remembered that in all cases the calculated mean scores were above the average; that is, the description of organizational climate and all its different aspects were more positive than otherwise.

The two groups of administrators differed significantly in their levels of satisfaction ($t = 2.51, p < .01$). In both cases, however, the weighted mean scores for the community colleges (2.18) and those in the universities (2.33) were far above the average. The only factor that could explain the significant difference between job satisfaction of the two groups seemed to be the degree of satisfaction with

promotion ($t = 5.96, p < .001$). In the case of community colleges, the weighted mean score of satisfaction with promotion was reported to be below the mean (1.32). This can probably be explained in terms of the availability of promotion opportunities in this kind of institution. In other words, the community colleges, because of their nature, have very few administrative positions available to them. Because of the present job market, even fewer administrators leave to take a more favorable position in other institutions and, therefore, allowing the more junior members to fill the vacancy. The positive significant correlation between the size of community colleges and job satisfaction of the administrators seem to support this argument. That is, the larger the community college, the more possibility of availability of administrative positions and vacancies and, therefore, the stronger the possibility of promotion.

The strongest satisfaction, for both colleges and universities, was expressed in terms of relationship with colleagues. This was different from the findings by Neumann (1978) where the reward system and pay were found to have the strongest relationship to satisfaction of university faculty. It is also interesting to note that according to Willie and Stecklein (1982) the faculty members in 1958 mentioned the poor attitudes on the part of their colleagues to be the major source of dissatisfaction. According to the same authors, salary was one of the major factors in the dissatisfaction of faculty in the year 1980. In the present study, salary had the weakest relationship (although still a very strong significant relationship) to the satisfaction of the two groups of administrators.

As it was stated in chapter 2, the findings on the relationship between different demographic variables and job satisfaction has so far been inconclusive. The present study produced only two significant coefficients between these variables and job satisfaction. First, as it was indicated earlier, there was a significant relationship between the size of the community colleges and the degree of job satisfaction of administrators in this type of institution (.25, $p < .05$). The second significant relationship was between the level of income of university administrators and their job satisfaction (.34, $p < .001$). This finding, however, should be regarded with caution, since, in the instrument used to gather data on income, the respondents were not instructed to include only the income from their present job. Therefore, any other income from other sources might have also been added before the appropriate category of income was checked. Additional information regarding the relations between different demographic variables, job satisfaction, and organizational climate is provided in Appendix C.

The organizational climate and job satisfaction of the college and university administrators were found to be highly related. Therefore, this study supported the results of other studies (some of which were reported in chapter 2) which found a strong positive relationship between these two variables. A summary of the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational climate, presented in Appendix C, reveals a number of interesting findings.

The university administrators do not see any relationship between one's salary and the degree of responsibility he feels toward his job. There is also no relationship between salary and the degree of loyalty

one has toward his or her institution. In addition, the administrators do not see any relationship between one's promotion and his degree of friendliness toward co-workers.

The relationship between salary and organizational climate is even more interesting in the case of college administrators. No significant relationship was indicated between salary and any of the climate factors. In other words, the data indicated that although salary is an important factor in one's level of satisfaction, it has no relationship to one's level of responsibility, the amount of support one receives from his superiors, and the level of identity with the institution. They also did not see any relationship between the promotion policies of the colleges and the degree of responsibility of administrators.

The computations of partial correlation coefficients for the effects of different demographic variables indicated that the relationship between the two major variables of job satisfaction and organizational climate remained significantly strong, when the effects of these variables were controlled. The control variables were: age, sex, level of income, length of time in the current administrative position, educational degree, size of the institution, and the types of institutions.

Comparisons between the overall job satisfaction of male and female administrators produced no significant differences between the two. The lowest satisfaction for both groups was expressed in regard to salary, and both groups had their highest mean scores on inter-relationship with colleagues. These findings contradict the results

of another study by Hollom and Gammil (1976) where lower levels of satisfaction were reported for the female teachers.

The relations between the demographic variables and job satisfaction were different for the two groups. Job satisfaction had a positive relationship with administrative rank (.37), age (.39), education (.38), and level of income (.56) of the female respondents. The job satisfaction of males was significantly related to the type of institutions (.19), size (.24), and income (.33).

Males and females were not different in their perception of organizational climate of their institutions. Females, however, scored significantly lower on the risk aspect ($t = 2.03, p < .01$). This was an indication that females found their jobs to be less challenging and their institutions less willing to take calculated risks.

The most interesting finding regarding the female administrators was the relationships between overall satisfaction and the satisfaction with different aspects of their jobs, as well as the relationships between different aspects of climate and various aspects of job satisfaction. Two correlation matrices produced for the relations between different aspect of climate and job satisfaction indicated different patterns of relations for the male and female administrators.

For the male administrators, there were significant relationships among all aspects of climate and all aspects of job satisfaction. For the females, however, about two-third of the relations were insignificant. The strongest relationship, for the females, was between overall job satisfaction and work itself, which acted almost independently from the climate and its different components. Salary also was not

related to any aspect of climate, although its relationship to overall satisfaction was rather strong (.59, $p < .001$).

Three elements of climate--risk, warmth, and conflict--did not indicate any significant relationship with overall job satisfaction (.71, $p < .001$). The relationship between overall satisfaction and organizational climate was strong (.57, $p < .001$), although not as strong as the one for the males (.71, $p < .001$). A summary of these findings can be found in Appendix D.

These findings seem to be supportive of the statement by Strauss (1974, p. 22) that "the women newly entering the work force . . . look upon their jobs not just as a means of earning a living but also as a source of self-expression." In other words, the female respondents seem to be primarily concerned with their jobs, their professional inter-relationship with their colleagues, and the support they receive from their superiors, regardless of the informal relations and relatively little concern for other environmental factors. These findings, however, should be treated with caution since only 29 of 175 respondents were women.

Recommendations

This research was not designed to study the causal relationship between the variables under investigation. Some previous research, as well as the strong correlations between organizational climate and job satisfaction, however, point to the causality of the relationship between these two variables. Confirmation of such a relationship would

have important implication for the job satisfaction of academicians. Through manipulation of climate factors, it would be possible to increase the overall satisfaction of administrators, or their satisfaction with any aspect of their job.

The low mean score of college administrators on the promotion policies of their institutions suggests a strong need for improvement in this area. Since it was suggested that these shortcomings are likely to be related to the size and the nature of these institutions, other alternative methods must be devised to compensate for the lack of such opportunities. One alternative might be the improvement of other forms of recognition through granting award certificates in recognition of different academic and community accomplishments.

The instruments used in this and other studies to measure the perceived organizational climate and job satisfaction of academic administrators have originally been designed for use in other types of organizations. In order to have a better understanding of the academic community, it is necessary to develop measuring instruments specifically designed to deal with the workers in the institutions of higher education. Factors such as work load; relations with staff, faculty and students; and the effects of individual value system are just a few other variables that should come under investigation and, therefore, must be included in future measuring instruments.

Further study is needed to broaden the information base on the organizational climate and the job satisfaction of employee in higher education institutions and thereby provide one with comparable information with that which is available for industries and other service

organizations. To accomplish this task, future research should also include samples from other sectors of colleges and universities (e.g., student personnel administration, public administration, and business administration) to determine whether the perceptions and attitudes expressed by them are different from those who participated in this study.

The results of this study did not indicate any difference between the overall job satisfaction of male and female administrators and their perceptions of organizational climate. However, because of the composition and the proportion of male and female participants, further research is needed to more carefully investigate and further insight into the differences and similarities between these two groups. In particular, the reported differences in the patterns of interrelationships among various variables for male and females, need more careful investigation.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A
RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE QUESTIONNAIRE (Form B)

Note: The subject could respond Definitely Agree, Inclined to Agree, Inclined to Disagree, or Definitely Disagree.

1. Structure

The jobs in this organization are clearly defined and logically structured.

In this organization it is sometimes unclear who has the formal authority to make decision.

The policies and organization structure of the organization have been clearly explained.

Red tape is kept to a minimum in this organization.

Excessive rules, administrative details, and red tape make it difficult for new and original ideas to receive consideration.

Our productivity sometimes suffers from lack of organization and planning.

In some of the projects I've been on, I haven't been sure exactly who my boss was.

Our management isn't so concerned about formal organization and authority, but concentrates instead on getting the right people together to do the job.

2. Responsibility

We don't rely too heavily on individual judgment in this organization; almost everything is double-checked.

Around here management resents your checking everything with them; if you think you've got the right approach you just go ahead.

Supervision in this organization is mainly a matter of setting guidelines for your subordinates; you let them take responsibility for their job.

You won't get ahead in this organization unless you stick your neck out and try things on your own sometimes.

Our philosophy emphasizes that people should solve their problems by themselves.

There are an awful lot of excuses around here when somebody makes a mistake.

One of the problems in this organization is that individuals won't take responsibility.

3. Reward

We have promotion system here that helps the best man to rise to the top.

In this organization the rewards and encouragements you get usually outweigh the threats and the criticism

In this organization people are rewarded in proportion to the excellence of their job performance.

There is a great deal of criticism in this organization.

There is not enough reward and recognition given in this organization for doing good work.

If you make a mistake in this organization you will be punished.

4. Risk

The philosophy of our management is that in the long run we get ahead fastest by playing it slow, safe, and sure.

Our business has been built up by taking calculated risks at the right time.

Decision making in this organization is too cautious for maximum effectiveness.

Our management is willing to take a chance on a good idea.

We have to take some pretty big risks occasionally to keep ahead of the competition in the business we're in.

5. Warmth

A friendly atmosphere prevails among the people in this organization.

This organization is characterized by relaxed, easy-going working climate.

It's very hard to get to know people in this organization.

People in this organization tend to be cool and aloof toward each other.

There is a lot of warmth in the relationships between managements and workers in this organization.

6. Support

You don't get much sympathy from higher-ups in this organization if you make a mistake.

Management makes an effort to talk with you about your career aspirations within the organization.

People in this organization don't really trust each other enough.

The philosophy of our management emphasizes the human factor, how people feel, etc.

W

When I am on a difficult assignment I can usually count on getting assistance from my boss and co-workers.

7. Standards

In this organization we set very high standards for performance.

Our management believes that no job is so well done that it couldn't be done better.

Around here there is a feeling of pressure to continually improve our personal and group performance.

Management believes that if the people are happy, productivity will take care of itself.

To get ahead in this organization it's more important to get along than it is to be high producer.

In this organization people don't seem to take much pride in their performance.

8. Conflict

The best way to make a good impression around here is to stay clear of open arguments and disagreements.

The attitude of our management is that conflict between competing units and individuals can be very healthy.

We are encouraged to speak our minds, even if it means disagreeing with our superiors.

In management meetings the goal is to arrive at a decision as smoothly and quickly as possible.

9. Identity.

People are proud of belonging to this organization.

I feel that I am a member of a well functioning team.

As far as I can see, there isn't very much personal loyalty to the company.

In this organization people pretty much look out for their own interest.

PLEASE ANSWER ALL QUESTIONS

Please check the appropriate answer

1. What is your current rank?
 - A. Vice president _____
 - B. Academic Dean _____
 - C. Associate Dean _____
 - D. Assistant Dean _____
 - E. Department Head _____
 - F. Other (Please Specify) _____

2. How long have you held your current administrative position? _____

3. What is the student population in the institution you work?
 - A. 500-1,499 _____
 - B. 1,500-2,499 _____
 - C. 2,500-4,999 _____
 - D. 5,000-9,999 _____
 - E. 10,000-19,999 _____
 - F. 20,000 or above _____

4. What is your age? _____

5. What is the most recent degree you have earned?
 - A. B.A. or B.S. _____
 - B. M.A. or M.S. _____
 - C. Ed.D. _____
 - D. Ph.D. _____
 - E. Other (Please Specify) _____

6. What is your sex? Female _____ Male _____

7. Check the category which most accurately describe your gross income:
 - A. \$10,000-\$14,999 _____
 - B. \$15,000-\$19,999 _____
 - C. \$20,000-\$24,999 _____
 - D. \$25,000-\$29,999 _____
 - E. \$30,000-\$34,999 _____
 - F. \$35,000-\$39,999 _____
 - G. \$40,000-\$44,999 _____
 - H. \$45,000-\$49,999 _____
 - I. Above \$50,000 _____

A. Work

Think of your present work. What is it like most of the time? In the blank beside each word given below write:

Y for "YES" if it describes your work.

N for "NO" if it does not describe it.

? if you cannot decide.

1. _____ Fascinating
2. _____ Routine
3. _____ Satisfying
4. _____ Boring
5. _____ Good
6. _____ Creative
7. _____ Respected
8. _____ Pleasant
9. _____ Useful
10. _____ Tiresome
11. _____ Healthful
12. _____ Challenging
13. _____ Frustrating
14. _____ Simple
15. _____ Endless
16. _____ Gives a sense of accomplishment

B. Administration

Think of those in your institution who in any way direct, coordinate, or supervise your activity. What is the most usual relationship? In the blank beside each word given below, write:

Y for "YES" if it describes the administration.

N for "NO" if it does not describe it.

? if you cannot decide.

17. _____ Asks my advice
18. _____ Hard to please
19. _____ Impolite
20. _____ Praises good work
21. _____ Tactful
22. _____ Influential
23. _____ Up-to-date
24. _____ Doesn't supervise enough
25. _____ Quick tempered
26. _____ Tells me where I stand
27. _____ Annoying
28. _____ Stubborn
29. _____ Kows job well
30. _____ Intelligent
31. _____ Leaves me on my own
32. _____ Lazy
33. _____ Around when needed

C. Salary

Think of your present salary. Try to describe it as accurately as possible. In the blank beside each word below write:

Y for "YES" if it describes your salary.

N for "NO" if it does not describe it.

? if you cannot decide.

34. _____ Income adequate for normal expenses

35. _____ Satisfactory fringe benefits

36. _____ Barely live on income

37. _____ Bad

38. _____ Income provides luxuries

39. _____ Insecure

40. _____ Less than I deserve

41. _____ Highly paid

42. _____ Underpaid

D. Promotion

Think about the promotion practices in your institution. In the blank beside each word given below, write:

Y for "YES" if it describes promotion practices in your institution.

N for "N" if it does not describe them.

? if you cannot decide.

43. _____ Good opportunity for advancement

44. _____ Opportunity somewhat limited

45. _____ Promotion on ability

46. _____ Dead-end job

47. _____ Good chances for promotion

48. _____ Unfair promotion policy

49. _____ Infrequent promotion

50. _____ Regular promotion

51. _____ Fairly good chance for promotion

E. Colleagues

Think of your colleagues. What are they like most of the time? In the blank beside each word given below, write:

Y for "YES" if it describes your colleagues.

N for "NO" if it does not describe them

? if you cannot decide.

52. _____ Stimulating

53. _____ Boring

54. _____ Slow

55. _____ Ambitious

56. _____ Responsible

57. _____ Fast

58. _____ Intelligent

59. _____ Easy to make enemies

60. _____ Talk too much

61. _____ Smart

62. _____ Lazy

63. _____ Unpleasant

64. _____ No privacy

65. _____ Active

66. _____ Narrow interests

67. _____ Loyal

68. _____ Hard to meet

PLEASE ANSWER ALL QUESTIONS

Following is a list of 47 statements concerning various aspects of work environment in your institution.

Please circle the degree of agreement or disagreement you feel about these statements.

	Definitely Agree	Inclined to Agree	Inclined to Disagree	Definitely Disagree
1. The administrative positions in this institution are clearly defined and logically structured.	DA	IA	ID	DD
2. We don't rely heavily on individual judgement in this institution; almost everything is double checked.	DA	IA	ID	DD
3. We have promotion system here that helps the best individual rise to the top.	DA	IA	ID	DD
4. The philosophy of our administration is that in the long run we get ahead for doing good work.	DA	IA	ID	DD
5. A friendly atmosphere prevails among the people in this institution.	DA	IA	ID	DD
6. You don't get much sympathy from higher-ups in this institution if you make a mistake.	DA	IA	ID	DD
7. In this institution we set very high standards for performance.	DA	IA	ID	DD
8. The best way to make a good impression around here is to stay clear of open arguments and disagreements.	DA	IA	ID	DD
9. People are proud of belonging to this institution.	DA	IA	ID	DD
10. In this institution it is sometimes unclear who has the formal authority to make decisions.	DA	IA	ID	DD

	Definitely Agree	Inclined to Agree	Inclined to Disagree	Definitely Disagree
11. Around here the administration resents your checking everything with them; if you think you've got the right approach you just go ahead	DA	IA	ID	DD
12. In this institution the rewards and encouragements you get usually outweigh the threats and criticism.	DA	IA	ID	DD
13. Decision making in this institution is too cautious for maximum effectiveness.	DA	IA	ID	DD
14. This institution is characterized by a relaxed, easy-going working climate.	DA	IA	ID	DD
15. Our administration believes that no job is so well done that it couldn't be done better.	DA	IA	ID	DD
16. The attitude of our administration is that conflict between competing units and individuals can be very healthy.	DA	IA	ID	DD
17. I feel that I am a member of a well functioning team.	DA	IA	ID	DD
18. The policies and organization structure of this institution have been clearly explained.	DA	IA	ID	DD
19. Supervision in this institution is mainly a matter of setting guidelines for your staff; you let them take responsibility for their job.	DA	IA	ID	DD
20. In this institution people are rewarded in proportion to the excellence of their performance.	DA	IA	ID	DD
21. Our administration is willing to take a chance on a good idea.	DA	IA	ID	DD
22. It's very hard to get to know people in this institution.	DA	IA	ID	DD

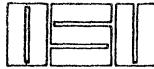
	Definitely Agree	Inclined to Agree	Inclined to Disagree	
23. Around here there is a feeling of pressure to continually improve our personal and group performance.	DA	IA	ID	DD
24. We are encouraged to speak our minds even if it means disagreeing with other administrators	DA	IA	ID	DD
25. As far as I can see, there isn't very much personal loyalty to the institution.	DA	IA	ID	DD
26. Red tape is kept to a minimum in this institution.	DA	IA	ID	DD
27. You won't get ahead in this institution unless you stick your neck out and try things on your own sometimes.	DA	IA	ID	DD
28. There is a great deal of criticism in this institution.	DA	IA	ID	DD
29. People in this institution tend to be cool and aloof toward each other.	DA	IA	ID	DD
30. Administration makes an effort to talk with you about your career aspiration within the institution.	DA	IA	ID	DD
31. Administration believes that if the people are happy, productivity will take care of itself.	DA	IA	ID	DD
32. In meetings, the goal is to arrive at a decision as smoothly and quickly as possible.	DA	IA	ID	DD
33. In this institution people pretty much look out for their own interest.	DA	IA	ID	DD
34. Excessive rules, administrative details, and red tape make it difficult for new and original ideas to receive consideration.	DA	IA	ID	DD

	Definitely Agree	Inclined to Agree	Inclined to Disagree	Definitely Disagree
35. Our philosophy emphasizes that people solve their problems by themselves.	DA	IA	ID	DD
36. There is not enough reward and recognition given in this institution for doing good work.	DA	IA	ID	DD
37. There is a lot of warmth in the relationship between administration and staff in this institution.	DA	IA	ID	DD
38. The philosophy of our administration emphasizes the human factor, how people feel, etc.	DA	IA	ID	DD
39. To get ahead in this institution it's more important to get along than it is to be a high performer.	DA	IA	ID	DD
40. Our productivity sometimes suffers from lack of organization and planning.	DA	IA	ID	DD
41. There are an awful lot of excuses around here when somebody makes a mistake.	DA	IA	ID	DD
42. People in this institution don't really trust each other enough.	DA	IA	ID	DD
43. In this institution people don't seem to take much pride in their performance.	DA	IA	ID	DD
44. Our administration isn't so concerned about formal organization and authority, but concentrates instead on getting the right people.	DA	IA	ID	DD
45. One of the problems in this institution is that individuals won't take responsibility.	DA	IA	ID	DD

	Definitely Agree	Inclined to Agree	Inclined to Disagree	Definitely Disagree
46. If you make a mistake in this institution you will be punished.	DA	IA	ID	DD
47. When I am on a difficult assignment I can really count on getting assistance from other administrators and co-workers.	DA	IA	ID	DD

APPENDIX B

COVER LETTERS



Oklahoma State University

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION
AND HIGHER EDUCATION

STILLWATER, OKLAHOMA 74078
309 GUNDERSEN HALL
(405) 624-7244

Dear Respondent,

Your responses to this questionnaire are anonymous and will be greatly appreciated.

Only questionnaires that have a single response to every question can be processed, so please be careful that you don't inadvertently skip a question or have two answers for a single question. Thank you for your cooperation in this project.

Behrooz Jahanshahi
Oklahoma State University



Oklahoma State University

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION
AND HIGHER EDUCATION

STILLWATER, OKLAHOMA 74078
309 GUNDERSEN HALL
(405) 624-7244

We are currently involved in a research project dealing with work attitudes and environment. The purpose of this letter is to ask your cooperation in the investigation by providing information as needed for the study. We hope you will take ten to fifteen minutes from your busy day to complete this questionnaire.

Your name has been randomly selected from a list of academic administrators in universities in three states. Although the questionnaires have been coded to identify non-respondents, you can be assured of the anonymity and confidentiality of your name and the name of your institution. After responses have been coded for computer processing, all identification coding for follow-up procedures will be destroyed. No name or other means of identification will appear in reporting the results of this study in any form.

Thank you so much for your time and assistance. Enclosed is a self-addressed envelope for your convenience.

Sincerely,

Behrooz Jahanshahi
Graduate Teaching Associate
Department of Sociology
Oklahoma State University

Patrick B. Forsyth
Associate Professor
Department of Educational
Administration and Higher
Education
Oklahoma State University



Oklahoma State University

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION
AND HIGHER EDUCATION

STILLWATER, OKLAHOMA 74078
309 GUNDERSEN HALL
(405) 624-7244

We are currently involved in a research project dealing with work attitudes and environment. The purpose of this letter is to ask your cooperation in the investigation by providing information as needed for the study. We hope you will take ten to fifteen minutes from your busy day to complete this questionnaire.

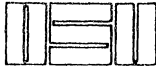
Your name has been randomly selected from a list of academic administrators in community colleges in three states. Although the questionnaires have been coded to identify non-respondents, you can be assured of the anonymity and confidentiality of your name and the name of your institution. After responses have been coded for computer processing, all identification coding for follow-up procedures will be destroyed. No name or other means of identification will appear in reporting the results of this study in any form.

Thank you so much for your time and assistance. Enclosed is a self-addressed envelope for your convenience.

Sincerely,

Behrooz Jahanshahi
Graduate Teaching Associate
Department of Sociology
Oklahoma State University

Patrick B. Forsyth
Associate Professor
Department of Educational
Administration and Higher
Education
Oklahoma State University



Oklahoma State University

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION
AND HIGHER EDUCATION

STILLWATER, OKLAHOMA 74078
309 GUNDERSEN HALL
(405) 624-7244

Recently we sent a copy of the enclosed questionnaire to you asking for your help in a research project concerning the work environment of higher education institutions. We have not heard from you and since the possibility exists that your response may have been lost in the mail or mislaid, we have enclosed another for your convenience.

Again, let us assure you that neither you nor your institution will be identified in the reported results. Your input is very important to the study.

Thank you for your help. We will look forward to hearing from you.

Most Sincerely,

Behrooz Jahanshahi
Graduate Teaching Associate
Department of Sociology
Oklahoma State University

Patrick B. Forsyth
Associate Professor
Department of Educational
Administration and Higher
Education
Oklahoma State University

APPENDIX C

CORRELATION MATRICES OF ORGANIZATIONAL
CLIMATE AND JOB SATISFACTION

TABLE XVI
CORRELATION MATRIX OF ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE DIMENSIONS
AND JOB SATISFACTION OF ALL ADMINISTRATORS

	Work	Admin.	Promotion	Salary	Coll.	Satis.
Struc.	.37***	.48***	.21**	.24***	.49***	.54***
Respon.	.21**	.34***	.27***	.14	.38***	.41***
Reward	.37***	.51***	.57***	.36	.51***	.71***
Risk	.33***	.40***	.35***	.24***	.46***	.54***
Warmth	.26***	.35***	.18**	.24***	.55***	.46***
Support	.45***	.58***	.38***	.29***	.62***	.70***
Standard	.27***	.34***	.33**	.20**	.41***	.48***
Conflict	.20**	.39***	.43***	.27***	.41***	.52***
Identity	.42***	.48***	.28***	.18**	.64***	.60***
Climate	.42***	.56***	.43***	.31***	.64***	.71***
Satis.	.67***	.73***	.64***	.58***	.70***	1.00

*p < .05

**p < .01

***p < .001

TABLE XXVII
CORRELATION MATRIX OF ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE DIMENSIONS
AND JOB SATISFACTION OF ADMINISTRATORS IN
COMMUNITY COLLEGES

	Work	Admin.	Promotion	Salary	Coll.	Satis.
Struc.	.46***	.50***	.58***	.23	.47***	.64***
Respon.	.16	.32**	.21	.07	.39**	.34**
Reward	.44***	.59***	.60***	.24	.60***	.67***
Risk	.27*	.44***	.47***	.13	.29*	.47***
Warmth	.44***	.37**	.32*	.22	.48***	.51***
Support	.39**	.64***	.62***	.19	.56***	.70***
Standard	.14	.36**	.30*	.17	.30*	.37**
Conflict	.18	.40***	.56***	.08	.48***	.50***
Identity	.29*	.41***	.52***	.24	.58***	.59***
Climate	.42***	.59***	.61***	.24	.57***	.70***
Satis.	.75***	.80***	.70***	.65***	.67***	1.00

*p < .05

**p < .01

***p < .001

TABLE XXVIII
 CORRELATION MATRIX OF ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE DIMENSIONS
 AND JOB SATISFACTION OF ADMINISTRATORS IN
 UNIVERSITIES

	Work	Admin.	Promotion	Salary	Coll.	Satis.
Struc.	.35***	.53***	.27**	.29***	.58***	.63***
Respon.	.23**	.35***	.25**	.15	.37***	.43***
Reward	.35***	.47***	.53***	.41***	.53***	.71***
Risk	.35***	.38***	.35***	.29***	.56***	.60***
Warmth	.19*	.34***	.14	.25**	.58***	.46***
Support	.49***	.56***	.36***	.35***	.67***	.75***
Standard	.32***	.34***	.41***	.23**	.47***	.55***
Conflict	.21*	.39***	.39***	.35***	.38***	.53***
Identity	.46***	.52***	.24**	.15	.66***	.64***
Climate	.42***	.55***	.42***	.35***	.68***	.75***
Satis.	.67***	.71***	.59***	.54***	.71***	1.00

*p < .05

**p < .01

***p < .001

APPENDIX D

CORRELATION MATRICES OF ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE
AND JOB SATISFACTION OF MALE AND
FEMALE ADMINISTRATORS

TABLE XXIX
CORRELATION MATRIX OF ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE
DIMENSIONS AND JOB SATISFACTION OF
FEMALE ADMINISTRATORS

	Work	Admin.	Promotion	Salary	Coll.	Satis.
Struc.	.13	.42*	.05	.05	.49**	.37*
Respon.	.26	.30	.29	.08	.14	.37*
Reward	.14	.41*	.56***	.15	.46**	.58***
Risk	.02	.41*	.20	.06	.31	.33
Warmth	-.19	-.12	.06	.20	.54**	.11
Support	.40*	.63***	.39*	.20	.53**	.71***
Standard	.00	.45**	.34	.00	.29	.37*
Conflict	-.24	.13	.21	-.05	.46**	.15
Identity	.25	.37**	.32	.17	.60***	.56***
Climate	.14	.49**	.37	.13	.59***	.57***
Satis.	.69***	.67***	.59***	.58***	.50***	1.00

*p < .05

**p < .01

***p < .001

TABLE XXX
CORRELATION MATRIX OF ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE
DIMENSIONS AND JOB SATISFACTION OF
MALE ADMINISTRATORS

	Work	Admin.	Promotion	Salary	Coll.	Satis.
Struc.	.43***	.50***	.23**	.28***	.51***	.57***
Respon.	.21**	.36***	.26***	.15	.42***	.42***
Reward	.43***	.53***	.56***	.41***	.53***	.73***
Risk	.40***	.41***	.36***	.27***	.51***	.58***
Warmth	.34***	.41***	.20**	.25**	.55***	.51***
Support	.47***	.57***	.37***	.30***	.64***	.70***
Standard	.33***	.33***	.33***	.25***	.44***	.50***
Conflict	.29***	.44***	.48***	.33***	.40***	.58***
Identity	.46***	.51***	.26***	.18*	.65***	.61***
Climate	.48***	.59***	.43***	.35***	.66***	.74***
Satis.	.68***	.75***	.65***	.58***	.73***	1.00

*p < .05

**p < .01

***p < .001

APPENDIX E

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DIFFERENT DEMOGRAPHIC
VARIABLES, JOB SATISFACTION, AND
ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE

TABLE XXXI

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DIFFERENT DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES
 JOB SATISFACTION, AND ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE OF
 ALL ADMINISTRATORS

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Rank									
2. Time	-.14								
3. Size	.07	-.06							
4. Age	-.17*	.42***	.01						
5. Degree	-.22*	-.07	.47***	-.01					
6. Sex	-.10	.15	-.03	.08	.13				
7. Income	-.37***	.05	.58***	.31***	.48***	.24***			
8. Climate	-.19***	.37***	.02	.07	.01	.10	.22***		
9. Satis.	-.15*	.09	.21***	.14	.07	.01	.35***	.71***	1.00

*p < .05

**p < .01

***p < .001

TABLE XXXII

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DIFFERENT DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLE
 JOB SATISFACTION, AND ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE
 COMMUNITY COLLEGE ADMINISTRATORS

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Rank									
2. Time	-.21								
3. Size	-.08	.14							
4. Age	-.07	.41***	-.03						
5. Degree	-.60***	-.02	-.07	-.22					
6. Sex	-.34**	.34	-.01	.13	.32**				
7. Income	-.74***	.29*	.27*	.18	.38**	.41***			
8. Climate	-.22	.10	.31**	.12	.00	-.02	.20		
Satis.	-.19	.21	.25*	.06	-.10	-.02	.21	.70***	1.00

*p < .05

*p < .01

**p < .001

TABLE XXXIII
 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DIFFERENT DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES,
 JOB SATISFACTION, AND ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE OF
 UNIVERSITY ADMINISTRATORS

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Rank									
2. Time	-.09								
3. Size	-.02	-.17							
4. Age	-.25**	.43***	-.18*						
5. Degree	-.04	-.07	.19*	.07					
6. Sex	-.06	.06	-.04	.07	.07				
7. Income	-.48***	.05	.07	.41***	.22**	.29***			
8. Climate	-.18*	.00	-.02	.06	.05	.15	.34***		
9. Satis.	-.15	.05	-.03	.16	.02	.02	.35***	.75***	1.00

*p < .05

**p < .01

***p < .001

VITA ²

Behrooz Jahanshahi

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Thesis: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE AND JOB SATISFACTION OF ACADEMIC ADMINISTRATORS IN SELECTED COMMUNITY COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

Major Field: Higher Education

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Shiraz, Iran, on October 10, 1948, the son of Rahmat and Mohtaram Jahanshahi

Education: Attended Saheb High School in Rezaieh, Iran, 1964-1966; Graduated from Pahlavi High School in Yazd, Iran, 1966-1967; received Bachelor of Arts degree with a major in Social Sciences from Tehran University, Iran, January 1972; received Master of Education with a major in Community/Junior College-Social Studies from Central State University, Edmond, Oklahoma, May 1976; completed requirements for the Doctor of Education in May 1985.

Professional Experience: Taught English as a second language in Tehran, Iran, 1967-1971; served as Education Officer in Iranian Health Corps, 1972-1974; Graduate Teaching Associate, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma, 1981-1982.

Honorary Organization: Member of Kappa Delta Pi.