

AN INVESTIGATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN
JOB SATISFACTION AND SOCIAL INTERACTION
FOR PROFESSORS OF EDUCATIONAL
ADMINISTRATION

By

THOMAS ALLEN NEWTON

Bachelor of Science in Education
Emporia State University
Emporia, Kansas
1963

Master of Arts
Emporia State University
Emporia, Kansas
1973

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of the Oklahoma State University
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Thesis Approved:

Philip B. Zorn

Thesis Adviser
Thomas Callahan

Joseph Pearl

John St. Brown

Norman D. Durbin

Dean of the Graduate College

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The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between overall job satisfaction and informal rewards (in the form of social interaction) received by university professors. It is hoped that the results of this study have contributed both to the understanding of job satisfaction for university professors and to the systematic measurement of an important informal reward--social interaction.

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CHAPTER I

THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

Introduction

That there have been well over 3,000 studies of job satisfaction dating from Taylor's early work in scientific management to the present indicates that social scientists have continued to view this as an important area of investigation.¹ The reasons for this high level of interest are as varied as the theories which have been posited to explain the nature and causes of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction has been studied because (1) there are those that view the activity of work as fulfilling some of man's basic needs, therefore, satisfaction in work contributes to the dignity of the individual; (2) others hold that satisfaction in work can be linked to the worker's physical and mental well being outside of the work environment; and (3) many have associated job satisfaction with increased worker productivity.²

Locke describes the study of job satisfaction as having been characterized by three theoretical perspectives, each dominant in a different historical period.³ Taylor's school of Scientific Management with its view of man as an extension of the machine, stressed time/motion and fatigue reduction studies. Those involved in Scientific Management assumed that workers would be more satisfied when their increased productivity yielded greater surpluses to be shared for employer and employee.⁴ The causes and effects of fatigue, monotony and boredom in

industrial workers in relation to worker productivity continued to be studied from the first decade of this century through World War I to the 1930's. Although initially established to study the effects of rest pauses and incentive on worker productivity, the Hawthorne studies of the late 1920's and early 1930's became the foundation for the Human Relations movement due to the interpretations offered by Mayo⁵ and Roethlisberger and Dickson.⁶ These investigators concluded that workers' attitudes toward their work situation was shaped more by social relationship than by economic incentives.⁷ The Human Relations approach to explaining job satisfaction remained the most prevalent until the early 1960's when the monograph by Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman redirected job satisfaction study to work itself. Herzberg's two factor theory maintained that job satisfaction could be increased by job enlargement in a vertical sense rather than in a horizontal sense as was proposed by those of the Scientific Management school. Vertical job enlargement gives employees more autonomy in making decisions about how their job tasks can best be accomplished. Thus, by redesigning work itself to allow employees more responsibility and discretion, the employer was believed to be contributing to the employees' mental growth which was to improve morale and production.⁸

While the work itself (or growth) school of thought continues to be the trend in the study of job satisfaction, Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler, and Weick classify current job satisfaction theories according to content and process.⁹ They include Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory and Herzberg's two factor theory in the content group because they stress particular aspects of work that when present in a job fulfill basic human needs. On the other hand, expectancy theory, equity

theory, and discrepancy theory are labeled process theories because they attempt to identify causally relevant variables and to show how these variables interact to provide measures of job satisfaction.¹⁰

Although current job satisfaction literature shows that authorities vary widely in their theoretical approaches, there are a number of points on which they agree. For decades theorists assumed that a high level of job satisfaction was predictive of greater work productivity. Research has consistently supported Brayfield and Crockett who found no significant, direct relationship between job satisfaction and higher productivity.¹¹ However, that low job satisfaction does have an indirect effect on organizational productivity through higher turnover rates and absenteeism was indicated in the Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, and Capwell study.¹²

Another widely accepted premise is that overall job satisfaction results from the employee's attitudes toward a number of independently valued job facets.¹³ Systematic studies of overall job satisfaction for educators have shown that satisfaction has been higher than might have been implied by the sanctions and professional negotiations so prevalent in the 1960's and early 1970's.¹⁴

The Importance of this Study

With the continued interest in the theory and measurement of job satisfaction and the refinement of these measures, only a few such studies have been carried out in the academic profession. Part of the explanation for this results, no doubt, from the assumption that because faculty members all endure a long and demanding professionalization process, they as a group, have learned to identify, understand

and value the important content and conditions of their work. By the same rigorous educational process, it might be assumed that those who find they do not value the content and conditions of the profession will select themselves out or be screened out before the educational process is completed, therefore eliminating those for whom job dissatisfaction could be predicted.¹⁵

Two points should be made to challenge the foregoing assumptions. First, measures of job satisfaction rely on subjective appraisals, wherein the employee has no absolute scale with which to assess his satisfaction; therefore, faculty members probably view their satisfaction relative to others within the profession. The second challenge to the assumptions stated above is that the very nature of the profession is changing. These changes are brought about by advancements in the state of the art/science that is the content of the professor's activity. Other important changes in the profession result when social and economic factors impose constraints from outside the academic environment. Conditions of employment which are probably sources of dissatisfaction for many in the academic profession are loss of autonomy due to increased bureaucratization, job insecurity and austere working conditions brought on by retrenchment policies, increased unionization, and unwelcome faculty development programs aimed at retraining the faculty.¹⁶

While the above conditions are adequate justification for the investigation of job satisfaction in higher education faculty, the importance of the present study lies in the systematic investigation of relationship of job satisfaction with a specific form of informal reward for faculty members. That specific reward, which has heretofore

been investigated only indirectly and unsystematically is the social interaction that the faculty enjoy with other individuals from the university environment. Universities and colleges have been and will continue to be affected by leveling and decreasing enrollments in primary, secondary and post-secondary schools.¹⁷ Because the general economic support for higher education has not been adequate to finance existing programs and services in the last few years, university departmental units have had to implement retrenchment policies. For these reasons, this study's importance rests in part on its effort to determine the relationship of social rewards/sanctions to job satisfaction in a time when capital resources are not readily available.

Another important aspect of this study is that the Job Descriptive Index used here to measure job satisfaction has also been used widely in business and industry. Through the use of the JDI, a well validated and reliable measure, cross-occupational analyses will be possible.¹⁸

Finally, this study will provide information on how a number of demographic variables in combination with various levels of social rewards and social orientations relate to the variance in job satisfaction. These measures offer faculty members and administrators a rich source of data which can be used for rational planning in program development, faculty development, individual careers and personal life choices.

Statement of Problem

The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between informal rewards received by university professors and a measure of their overall job satisfaction. By noting the specific agents that

allocate and manipulate the informal rewards or sanctions, this study will also examine the nature and sources of social control which function to affect normative compliance and job satisfaction.

Research Questions

1. Is job satisfaction among university professors related to the level of informal (social) rewards received by them from the various agents in their professional environment?
2. Does job satisfaction when viewed as related to the level of informal (social) rewards received vary with the type of latent social orientation of the faculty?
3. Does faculty job satisfaction when viewed as related to levels of informal reward vary with regard to age, sex, income, size of institution, type of program, rank of faculty and years in present position?

Limitations

This study was limited to a sample of educational administration and higher education administration professors from the 47 institutions across the nation and Canada whose departments of educational administration were members of the University Council for Educational Administration. The results of this study should not be generalized beyond the educational administration and higher educational faculty in those 47 institutions.

FOOTNOTES

¹E. A. Locke, "The Nature and Causes of Job Satisfaction," in M. D. Dunnette (ed.), Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology (Chicago, 1976), p. 1297.

²Ibid.

³Arne L. Kalleberg, "Work Values and Job Rewards: A Theory of Job Satisfaction," American Sociology Review, LXII (1977), p. 124.

⁴F. W. Taylor, "What is Scientific Management?" in H. F. Merrill (ed.), Classics in Management (New York, 1970), pp. 67-71.

⁵E. Mayo, "The First Enquiry," in H. F. Merrill (ed.), Classics in Management (New York, 1970), pp. 379-388.

⁶F. J. Rothlisberger and W. J. Dickson, Management and the Worker (Cambridge, 1939), pp. 531-548.

⁷Ibid., p. 531.

⁸Locke, p. 1299.

⁹J. P. Campbell, M. D. Dunnette, E. E. Lawler, and K. E. Weick, Jr., Managerial Behavior, Performance and Effectiveness (New York, 1970), pp. 278-281.

¹⁰E. E. Lawler, Motivation in Work Organizations (Monterey, California, 1973), pp. 61-69.

¹¹A. H. Brayfield and W. H. Crockett, "Employee Attitudes and Employee Performance," Psychological Bulletin, LII (1955), pp. 396-424.

¹²F. Herzberg, B. Mausner, R. O. Peterson, and D. F. Capwell, Job Attitudes: Review of Research and Opinion (Pittsburg, 1957), pp. 103-108.

¹³Lawler, p. 77.

¹⁴Wayne K. Hoy and Cecil Miskel, Educational Administration: Theory, Research, and Practice (New York, 1978), p. 120.

¹⁵Sue Ann Levine, "The Professional-Bureaucratic Dilemma: Alienation from Work Among University Faculty" (unpub. Ed.D. dissertation, Oklahoma State University, 1978), pp. 12-35.

¹⁶William H. Bergquist and Steven R. Phillips, "Components of an Effective Faculty Development Program," Journal of Higher Education, XLVI (1975), p. 182.

¹⁷David D. Henry, Challenges Past, Challenges Present (San Francisco, 1975), pp. 144-145.

¹⁸James L. Price, Handbook of Organizational Measurement (Lexington, Massachusetts, 1972), p. 167.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

The review of literature for this study focuses on a brief history of major early efforts in research and theory of job satisfaction followed by more complete descriptions and criticisms of the important theories and empirical approaches found in the current literature. This section will emphasize the findings and interpretations of Mayo, Roethlisberger and Dickson; Hoppock, Shaffer, Brayfield, and Crockett; Herzberg et al.; Maslow, Vroom, Lawler, Adams, Porter, and Locke. A review of the important independent variables most recently examined in conjunction with job satisfaction concludes the first section.

The final sections of this chapter consist of reviews of theory and research relevant to informal rewards and latent social orientations. Etzioni's theory of power and compliance contained in his A Comparative Analysis of Complex Organizations provides the basic rationale for investigating informal rewards as the major independent variable in this study.¹ Basic propositions explaining the nature of social interaction from Homans' Social Behavior: Its Elementary Forms are offered to complete the conceptual framework for this investigation.² The theoretical concept of latent social orientations comes primarily from Gouldner's investigations into local and cosmopolitan orientation of college faculty.³

Job Satisfaction

Foundation Studies

Lawler describes current job satisfaction theory as having developed from four approaches: fulfillment theory, discrepancy theory, equity theory and two-factor theory.⁴

Fulfillment theory as presented by Vroom views job satisfaction as "the degree to which a job provides the person with positively valued outcomes."⁵ According to fulfillment theorists, the major considerations are: (1) How do measures of various job facets combine to indicate a degree of overall satisfaction?; (2) Job facets should be weighted by the employee to indicate their relative importance (valence) in determining overall job satisfaction.⁶

Discrepancy theorists explain job satisfaction measures as being determined by the difference between the job related outcomes a person perceives and some other outcome level, usually expressed as the outcome the person felt that he should have received or the outcome the person wanted. Katzell, Locke, and Porter have offered three variations of the discrepancy theory.⁷ Katzell's formula for determining satisfaction where X is the actual outcome and V is the desired outcome: $\text{satisfaction} = 1 - (|X - V|/V)$.⁸ Locke's theory is stated in terms of "perceived" discrepancy rather than "actual" discrepancy as it is seen by Katzell.⁹ According to Locke, the best measure of job satisfaction is a simple difference in what one wants from his job and what one perceives that he is receiving.¹⁰ Porter's approach differs from Locke's only in that he states that the discrepancy that determines job satisfaction levels should be the difference between what one receives

from a job and what one feels he should receive rather than what he wants.¹¹ Lawler supports Locke in dismissing a fourth discrepancy approach which measures the difference between what one receives and what one expects to receive as difficult to defend logically.¹²

Equity theory generally attributed to Adams states that a person's job rewards, therefore satisfaction level, is determined by that person's perceived balance between job input and job outcome. According to this theory a person's balance of input and reward creates a feeling of satisfaction; whereas, over-reward creates a feeling of dissatisfaction from guilt and under-reward creates dissatisfaction due to feelings of having been treated unfairly. Equity theorists also argue that employees arrive at their perceptions of how equitable their own input-outcome ratio is by comparing their balance to that of other employees.¹³

The two-factor theory of job satisfaction first developed by Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, and Capwell and later supported by research has been the most widely accepted theory of job satisfaction during the last two decades.¹⁴ However, recent studies have questioned several of the theory's basic assumptions and methodology.¹⁵ The theory states that the measure of a person's satisfaction or dissatisfaction with his job does not reflect the person's attitudes toward various job factors varying along one continuum. What Herzberg and his associates have argued is that levels of satisfaction and dissatisfaction are measured on two distinct continua, with satisfaction reflected by the person's positive attitudes toward a set of job facets labeled motivators or satisfiers and dissatisfaction reflected by the person's negative attitudes toward a set of job facets labeled hygienes or dissatisfiers.

Motivators are viewed primarily as conditions or events that, when sufficiently present in a job, fulfill the employee's psychological needs for achievement, recognition, meaningful work, responsibility and advancement. Hygienes, on the other hand, are seen as conditions or events that, when absent from the job, leave the employees' psychological needs unfulfilled. Conditions identified by Herzberg as hygienes are company policy and administration, supervision, salary, interpersonal relations and working conditions. This theory also asserts that the absence of motivators does not cause dissatisfaction, only the absence of satisfaction, while the presence of hygienes does not bring about satisfaction, only the absence of dissatisfaction.¹⁶

In his Motivations in Work Organizations, Lawler questions aspects of all four of the theories described above because of weaknesses in the theoretical basis of each.¹⁷ He proposes that an appropriate and theoretically sound understanding of job satisfaction can be achieved by combining the defensible aspects of equity and discrepancy theory.¹⁸ Lawler combines the difference between job input and job outcome (rather than the ratio of those measures called for in equity theory) and the explicit comparison of referent others from equity theory to provide some basis for the employee's judgment of what his job outcome should be.¹⁹ Thus, Lawler argues that the measurement of the difference in what one thinks he should receive (in part by comparing oneself to referent others) and what one perceives that he has received is a good indication of job satisfaction.²⁰

Current theories of job satisfaction have also been classified as either process or content theories.²¹ The process theories or models are represented by the fulfillment, discrepancy and equity theories

discussed above, while the content theories are "those which attempt to identify the specific needs or values most conducive to job satisfaction."²² Maslow's need hierarchy theory and the two-factor theory described above are two of the most important content theories.²³

Maslow's theory recognizes five categories of needs in man arranged in a hierarchy of dominance: physiological, safety, belongingness and love, esteem and self-actualization. According to this theory, the lower order needs must be fulfilled before any of the higher order needs will be desired or fulfilled. Although the prepotent (dominant, lower order) needs do not require total fulfillment before the higher order needs motivate behavior toward satisfaction, these lower needs must be relatively more fulfilled than the higher needs. Maslow notes exceptional individuals who are motivated so strongly by their ideals that they are capable of ignoring those needs that are generally seen as basic. The highest and least prepotent of the needs, labeled the need for self-actualization by Maslow, is described by him as the individual's "tendency . . . to become actualized in what he is potentially" or "the desire to become more and more what one is, to become everything that one is capable of becoming."²⁴

This theory, although it was not developed specifically to explain work motivation and job satisfaction, offers a framework for management to use in the design and implementation of work incentive programs. Using the concepts of the needs hierarchy, management could design job content and environment to fit the needs level of its employees.²⁵

Criticism of the current theories has generally addressed the problems that have confronted theorists in identifying the specific

needs or drives (content) that must be satisfied and how needs combine to affect (process) the individual's perception of his job.

Process models of job satisfaction have been criticized for not having established theoretical frameworks that define the number and nature of specific job related needs.²⁶ These models are also faulted for not having clear evidence of causal relationships between the fulfillment of needs that are assumed to be job related and levels of job satisfaction.²⁷ Another criticism leveled at the process models is that there is little agreement among theorists on the distinction between needs and values and on the manner in which these two concepts should be combined in a formula to determine levels of job satisfaction.²⁸ An important study by Mitchell addresses the points of criticism mentioned above through a theoretical, methodological and empirical appraisal of all the major process models.²⁹

There also exists a plethora of criticism for the two most widely recognized content theories: Maslow's need hierarchy theory and Herzberg's two-factor theory. Locke describes five serious faults with Maslow's theory.³⁰

1. He notes that while the physiological needs of man are self-evident, the other four need categories require proof which Maslow never offered.
2. The highest need level labeled self-actualization by Maslow is not accompanied with an intelligible definition.
3. Although Maslow appears to recognize the difference between needs and values, in his theory he implies a near perfect correspondence between the two concepts.

4. There is an inconsistency in Maslow's presenting his theory as one in which needs will bring about action toward fulfillment, and in another place needs are said to call up only the felt desires to act.
5. Locke sees a contradiction in the idea that needs are fulfilled in a hierarchical order when by Maslow's own admission, "behavior tends to be determined by several or all of the basic needs simultaneously rather than by only one of them."³¹

Two studies which have attempted to test the need hierarchy theory longitudinally have failed to show support for it.^{32, 33}

Critics of the two-factors (motivator-hygiene) theory cite the following areas of weakness in Herzberg's model:³⁴

1. Herzberg's mind-body dichotomy.
2. The unidirectional operation of needs.
3. Lack of parallel between man's needs and the motivator-hygiene factors.
4. Logical inconsistency in Herzberg's incident classification system.³⁵
5. Defensiveness could account for findings in that employees might take credit for events causing satisfaction and fault others for events that are dissatisfying.³⁶
6. The use of frequency data without a measure of intensity.³⁷
7. The denial of individual differences.^{38, 39, 40}

The major criticism which Locke leveled against the two-factor theory is the numerous logical inconsistencies in the theory's incident classification system. Locke notes that the inconsistencies result from a confusion between the condition which caused the employee to feel

satisfied or dissatisfied and the agent which caused the event or condition to occur. As a result of this confusion in causality, Herzberg's theory contains a mixture of both with all of the motivator factors being events or conditions and the more important hygiene factors being agents. According to Locke:

Frequency comparisons between event and agent categories are meaningless since they involve different levels of analysis. Every event logically implies at least one agent, and every agent implies at least one event or condition brought about by that agent.⁴¹

Locke's argument for a logically consistent designation of agents and events as causes of satisfaction and dissatisfaction in jobs is an important consideration in this study.

Job Outcomes

Job satisfaction has been determined traditionally in most models by summing the employee's affective responses to a number of different outcomes related to several job aspects. Locke describes the importance of identifying the specific aspects of a job:

A job is not an entity but a complex of interrelationship of tasks, roles, responsibilities, interactions, incentives and rewards. Thus, a thorough understanding of job attitudes requires that the job be analyzed in terms of its constituent elements.⁴²

These "constituent elements" are generally clustered into groups of items through factor analysis. By that method, employee attitude responses that are interrelated are labeled job facets, factors or dimensions. In recent years most theorists have agreed that the best measure of overall job satisfaction can be determined by summing the degree of satisfaction and dissatisfaction that an employee perceives in the outcomes related to several of the job's facets.⁴³ Lawler lists job

content, working conditions, supervision, financial rewards, promotion and co-workers as the most common job facets cited in current job satisfaction studies.⁴⁴ Locke's list of job dimensions (facets) that typically have been found in job satisfaction studies are the same as Lawler's with the addition of benefits, recognition and company and management.⁴⁵ The Job Descriptive Index measures the same dimensions (or facets) that are cited by Lawler above except that the JDI includes a dimension labeled "work" which replaces job content and working conditions.⁴⁶ It is significant to point out that the Job Descriptive Index was selected in this study because it does measure employee attitudes concerning a set of job dimensions which have been accepted generally by researchers as appropriate factors to be measured in determining overall job satisfaction. Landy and Trumbo provide additional support for the use of the JDI to measure employee attitudes to job dimensions:

The Job Descriptive Index . . . is being widely used in satisfaction research. It was very carefully developed and documented . . . and related logically and empirically to other measures of satisfaction. As more and more investigators adopt this instrument for the measurement of satisfaction, differences in results and interpretations due to the nature of the measurement process will disappear and the construct of satisfaction will be better understood.⁴⁷

Positive outcomes that are experienced within the various job dimensions are commonly referred to as rewards in the job satisfaction literature. Besides having grouped these rewards in interrelated clusters or job dimensions, many researchers present these job outcomes in two different classification systems: intrinsic and extrinsic rewards as well as formal and informal rewards. The classification of job rewards as extrinsic or intrinsic is parallel to the factors in Herzberg's two-factor theory. According to that theory, motivators are aspects of the job itself, therefore intrinsic: achievement, promotion,

responsibility and recognition. Extrinsic aspects of the job or conditions in the job context are labeled hygiene: supervision, working conditions, interpersonal relations, company policy and salary.⁴⁸

Other studies which have addressed the issue of the difference in intrinsic and extrinsic job rewards are Kalleberg,⁴⁹ Tuckman and Hagemann,⁵⁰ and Goldstein.⁵¹

More directly related to the purposes of this study is the classification of job outcomes as either formal or informal rewards. Most of the research on job satisfaction that investigates job related outcomes is primarily interested in formal rewards administered by the employer. Such rewards as pay, promotion, granting of tenure, research funding, recognition and travel expenses are sources of formal rewards often identified as available to the professorate in higher education.⁵² Obviously, these reward measures are more frequently observed in research because of the comparable data that can be gathered from them and because of their utility in the control of faculty employment and performance. Several recent studies which have emphasized the importance of formal rewards in higher education measure only the dimension of faculty salary as an indicator or the level of faculty rewards, while others do attempt a more comprehensive assessment of the faculty reward structure. Ferber investigated the relationships of performance, longevity and financial need to job rewards at one university where rewards were measured only in terms of salary.⁵³ Tuckman and Hagemann also looked only at salary to quantify rewards received by faculties in economics and education in a national survey.⁵⁴ In an effort to demonstrate a wide variation in reward structures in eight disciplines at a

large research university, Smart and McLaughlin chose to measure rewards by salary alone.⁵⁵

While a number of studies include some measures of informal rewards, often these are not treated as the principal variables in the investigation. Using the term reward to indicate positive job facet outcome measured against the value imputed to these job facets, Kalleberg lists convenience, co-workers and resource adequacy as aspects that can offer employees rewards in addition to financial rewards.⁵⁶ Several studies based on the work adjustment theory of Dawis, Weiss and Lofquist have included ability utilization, achievement, authority, autonomy, co-workers, creativity, independence, recognition, moral values, responsibility, security, social service, social status, supervision (human relations/technical), variety and working conditions as sources of employee rewards.^{57, 58, 59}

Autonomy and responsibility were two of the four job outcomes that could be viewed as informal rewards in Goldstein's study of mobility in Israel's secondary schools.⁶⁰

In all of the studies listed above, the informality of these rewards was not an important consideration. Although not studies of job satisfaction per se, four recent articles do address the need for a restructuring of the reward or incentive structures in higher education to recognize the importance of informal rewards. In the conclusion of his article, Fenker recommends that non-economic (informal) rewards be recognized for their potential value especially now as colleges and universities are experiencing budget constraints.⁶¹ Tuckman and Hagemann, who limited their investigation of faculty reward to merit pay patterns, acknowledge the significance of non-monetary rewards that

are "brought about by the exercise of a particular skill."⁶² There is evidence that these rewards, including praise by students and peers, national recognition and feelings of self-satisfaction and self-worth can cumulate over a period of time; but there has been only limited success in quantifying these measures.⁶³ Developing a similar point, Bess points out that measurement problems in assessing student progress deprives faculty of the personal rewards that would indicate the effectiveness of their teaching.⁶⁴ Finally, regarding informal rewards in higher education, Lincoln and Guba present an analysis of four colleges of education each with a different mission and a different faculty reward system. The implications of the analysis are that the administration in each college should be aware of its current system of rewards (formal and informal), be aware of how its current system affects the accomplishment of its unique mission, and be aware of strategies for modification of the current system where necessary.⁶⁵

Social Interaction

It would appear that in a labor intensive enterprise such as is conducted at major universities one of the major variables determining job satisfaction would be the informal rewards garnered from social interaction. This would appear even more likely when one considers that social acceptance and interaction are basic concepts that are shared by sociology, social and industrial psychology and organizational theory. However, informal social rewards (or social interaction) does not appear in the literature of job satisfaction research as a major concept subject to systematic investigation. One of the major purposes of this study is to draw together propositions concerning rewards

through social interaction from the various human sciences. A conceptual framework which establishes a logical relationship between social rewards and overall job satisfaction will then be tested in a systematic manner.

In his Social Behavior--Its Elementary Forms, Homans presents a number of propositions based on the behavior of individuals in small groups. It is Homans' assertion that sociology must build from a body of propositions (premises) derived from behavioral psychology. Thus, he states, ". . . we shall use propositions that hold good for the non-social behavior of single individuals to explain the social behavior of several individuals in contact with one another."⁶⁶ Homans argues that "By the success proposition [previously established], if two men reward one another by their actions they are apt to interact often."⁶⁷ As a corollary to this, he offers, "as relationships stabilize, the association between interaction and liking becomes closer; the conformers will then give the deviate both little liking and little interaction compared to what they give to other conformers."⁶⁸ Homans later summarizes the effects of social interaction:

Social behavior is an exchange of more or less valuable rewards. The expert agents provided for the others a service that these others found valuable and rare. In return, the experts received much interaction and were able to command from the rest a high degree of esteem . . .⁶⁹

It should be noted here that in addition to building systems of explanation through deductive logic, Homans also substantiates both propositions and theory with a number of empirical studies conducted by himself and others.⁷⁰ The system of measurements of social interactions used to corroborate Homans' propositions were generally sociometric. An attempt has been made in this study to measure social interaction in a similar manner.

Porter, Lawler and Hackman in more general terms explain that man's social nature is based on a need for most to test the reality of their own abilities, thoughts and points of view through relationships with other people. They suggest that the exchange of information socially serves to satisfy man's intrinsic needs to know the world around him. Besides this intrinsic satisfaction, they believe that social interaction serves an instrumental purpose for individuals seeking rewards from their environment.⁷¹ Festinger's "social communication" and "social comparison" theories support the concept that information from social interaction fulfills intrinsic human needs.⁷² Locke presents a similar classification of social interaction which he labels Entity and Functional relations which derive from Aristotle's Nichomachean Ethics.⁷³ While this study does not intend to make a fine philosophical distinction in the types of social interaction investigated, these distinctions are presented here to indicate both general and specific considerations given that concept in current theory.

Citing studies by Harlow and Schacter, Lawler argues that social interaction is a basic and important motivation for individuals.⁷⁴ He adds that whether or not this motivation stems from an innate or a learned need, it "has a significant impact on behavior in organizations."⁷⁵

Especially relevant to this study is Lawler's assertion that both leadership style and peer group relationships influence job satisfaction. To explain this point, he notes that, while peer group interaction appears to have the most significant effect on social need satisfaction, leadership style can influence the ways in which peers interact. Thus, peers can be dissatisfied socially if they have been set against one

another, or they may be influenced to experience a high level of social need satisfaction.⁷⁶

A final consideration in establishing a conceptual framework for this study comes from Etzioni's middle range theory of organization. In his A Comparative Analysis of Complex Organizations, Etzioni presents a paradigm of organizational power and compliance. Rather than present propositions at high levels of abstraction so as to be inclusive of all large organizations, he uses the concept of compliance relationships as a comparative base to define three distinctive organizational types: coercive, utilitarian and normative. While actual organizations seldom approach one of these pure types, their predominant patterns can be identified and analyzed by this model.⁷⁷

Because this study is specifically investigating levels of satisfaction and social interaction in university faculties, Etzioni's classification of organizations by patterns of compliance becomes a very relevant consideration. In his paradigm, he classifies universities as predominantly normative organizations, wherein compliance to organizational goals and behavior is achieved, to a large degree, by "the allocation and manipulation of symbolic rewards . . . allocation of esteem and prestige symbols, administration of rituals, and influence over the distribution of 'acceptance' and positive 'responses'."⁷⁸ As members of a normative organization which has become observably more hierarchical in structure in the past few decades, university faculty, as lower elites, control these symbolic and social rewards and are controlled by them. The faculty exact normative compliance from their students, lower participants in Etzioni's model, and the faculty, in turn,

is brought to compliance by those above them in the university hierarchy by means of symbolic and social rewards.⁷⁹

In the chapter dealing with cohesion and compliance, Etzioni suggests that a proposition relating high cohesion (social relations on the job) to job satisfaction can be better understood by stating it in the following manner: "If actors gain more satisfaction from cohesion, they will also gain more satisfaction (or less frustration) from other elements of the job situation."⁸⁰

In other literature, these social rewards which achieve normative compliance are referred to as sanctions. When subjectively perceived, these sanctions or social rewards are closely related to the concept of satisfaction.⁸¹ Viewed objectively, the effects of sanctions or rewards on organizational members have been explained primarily through the theory of distributive justice by Homans.⁸² Studies which have investigated the relationship of rewards, distributive justice and job performance are generally tied to equity theory⁸³ and balance theory.⁸⁴ These studies are primarily focused on work motivation and performance and usually include only salary and other formal (objective) reward measures.

Causal Agents in Social Interaction

The final major concept that went into establishing the theoretical framework for this study was provided by Locke's criticism of the Herzberg two-factor theory. In his criticism, Locke faults the two-factor theory for its illogical classification system of job dimensions. He points out that there is a confusion between the "events or conditions" that cause satisfaction or dissatisfaction and the "agent" that

brought about those "events or conditions." As Herzberg et al. presented their two factor model for determining the source of dissatisfaction and satisfaction in employees, agents and conditions and events are mixed as parallel causes.⁸⁵ Whereas, Locke defines agent in his criticism as meaning person, organization or thing, agent is defined in this study as separate groups of people in the university environment each with a distinctive organizational role (students, faculty, department heads and deans or associate deans). This classification system, therefore, accounts for all of the relevant agents who might interact socially with university faculty members.

Faculty Social Roles

Another consideration which seems relevant to a study of university faculty job satisfaction, especially this study which looks at the relationship between social interaction, is the concept of distinctive orientations of individual faculty members. Gouldner presents considerable evidence to support his theory that faculty members can be categorized generally as "local" or "cosmopolitan."⁸⁶ These categories refer to the faculty member's orientation to or identification with others in the local institution and its social and organizational realities or with the profession or discipline and their transcendent goals and objectives. Such differences in orientation might be shown to relate to levels of perceived job satisfaction and social interaction where such interactions are primarily satisfying to those of "local" orientation.

Rationale and Hypotheses

A review of current job satisfaction literature has shown that while theoretical models have been offered to explain both the content and process of job satisfaction measurement, the most widely accepted indication of overall job satisfaction can be determined by summing an employee's affective responses to a number of job facets.⁸⁷ The literature also indicates that the major theorists and researchers in job satisfaction, for the most part, agree on the specific job facets or dimensions that account for the variance in levels of satisfaction. The job dimensions cited by Lawler and Locke as those most commonly accepted in research are basically the same dimensions included in the Job Descriptive Index developed by Smith, Kendall and Hulin. The JDI measures dimensions labeled work, supervision, people, pay and promotion.⁸⁸

The literature also shows that while informal rewards for employees are often included as part of the constituent elements in one or more of the job facets used in determining job satisfaction, informal rewards are not treated as principle variables in any of the current studies. Although the relationship of informal rewards to job satisfaction has not been systematically investigated, four recent articles do address the need to consider the importance of informal rewards specifically in institutions of higher education. Fenker stresses that non-economic, informal rewards should be recognized for their potential value now in a time of budget constraints for higher education.⁸⁹ Although limiting their study of faculty rewards to merit pay patterns, Tuckman and Hagemann recognize the significance of non-monetary rewards.⁹⁰ A study by Cole and Cole identifies a number of informal rewards that are

available and perhaps cumulative for university faculty: praise by students and peers, national recognition and feelings of self-satisfaction.⁹¹ Bess points out that the assessment of student progress should provide faculty with the personal rewards that indicate the effectiveness of their teaching.⁹² It was suggested that the difficulty involved in quantifying informal reward data precludes more systematic studies.⁹³

A specific form of informal reward which fits the normative nature of universities according to Etzioni's typology is that of positive social interaction.⁹⁴ In Etzioni's paradigm, predominantly normative organizations, including universities and professional schools, compliance on the part of organizational participants is achieved by "the allocation and manipulation of symbolic rewards . . . allocation of esteem and prestige symbols, . . . and influence over the distribution of 'acceptance' and positive 'response'."⁹⁵ While symbolic rewards are "allocated" and "manipulated" to bring about compliance, the implication of this proposition is that compliance is dependent on a minimal level of satisfaction that must be experienced by the participant.

Other theorists provide support for the proposition that deriving informal rewards from positive social interaction is a part of man's social nature. Citing empirical studies as a foundation for their explanation, Porter, Lawler and Hackman contend that social interaction satisfies man's intrinsic needs to know the world around him.⁹⁶ They also note that social interactions serve an instrumental purpose for individuals seeking rewards from their environment.⁹⁷ Lawler cites studies by Harlow and Schacter to support his view that social interaction is a basic and important motivation for individuals. He further asserts that whether or not this motivation is based on an innate or

learned need, it "has a significant impact on behavior in organizations."⁹⁸ Basing his sociological concepts on fundamental propositions from behavioral psychology, Homans provides further support for viewing social interaction as positive informal reward.

Social behavior is an exchange of more or less valuable rewards. The expert agents provided for the others a service that these others found valuable, and rare. In return, the experts received much interaction and were able to command from the rest a high degree of esteem . . .⁹⁹

To this point, the conceptual framework for this study, built logically on a series of studies and propositions from major theorists, suggests that social interactions are, indeed, an important source of informal rewards, especially for participants in a predominantly normative organization (i.e., universities). Because rewards (formal or informal) that are available in a job context are considered sources of job satisfaction, a logical relationship is implied between a measure of overall job satisfaction and the level of social interaction experienced by university faculty members. In order to determine the level of social interaction of faculty members, a fundamental proposition provided by Homans was considered, "By the success proposition, if two men reward one another by their actions they are apt to interact often."¹⁰⁰ As a corollary to this, he adds:

As relationships stabilize, the association between interaction and liking becomes closer: the conformers will then give the deviate both little liking and little interaction compared to what they give to other conformers.¹⁰¹

Applying these propositions, the present study seeks to determine the level of social interaction by determining how frequently a faculty member interacts with others in his job context. Thus, the major hypothesis for this study:

Major Hypothesis: There is a significant relationship between the overall level of job satisfaction perceived by educational administration faculty members and the frequency of their social interaction with job related agents.

The current literature suggests that job conditions and events which result in satisfaction or dissatisfaction in employees come about through the actions of one or more agents in the job context.¹⁰² The present study looked at the frequency of social interactions between faculty members and four specific agents from the job context:

There is a significant relationship between the level of overall job satisfaction perceived by educational administration faculty members and the frequency of their social interaction with each of the agents: students, other faculty, department head, and dean or associate dean.

The review of literature also points out the possibility that the level of overall job satisfaction and the frequency of social interaction of faculty members may be affected by their individual social orientations.¹⁰³ The second minor hypothesis controls for that possibility:

Controlling for difference in faculty role orientation, there is a significant relationship between the level of overall job satisfaction perceived by educational administration faculty members and the frequency of their social interaction with job related agents.

Three further hypotheses are tested in this study to control for differences in the type of program within which the faculty member functions, the size of institution, and specific demographic variables:

Controlling for differences in program emphasis (certificate vs. degree), there is a significant relationship between the level of overall job satisfaction perceived by educational administration faculty members and the frequency of their social interaction with job related agents.

Controlling for the size of the employing university, there is a significant relationship between the level of overall job satisfaction perceived by educational administration faculty members and the frequency of their social interaction with job related agents.

Controlling separately for sex, age, professorial rank, income level, and years in the position, there is a significant relationship between the level of overall job satisfaction perceived by educational administration faculty members and the frequency of their social interaction with job related agents.

FOOTNOTES

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- ⁹³Cole and Cole, pp. 377-390.
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CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship of job satisfaction to the frequency of social interaction experienced by university faculty whose discipline is educational administration. Frequent social interaction, it has been argued, is a type of informal reward that might be expected to produce higher levels of job satisfaction than less frequent social interaction.

This chapter includes the fully developed research hypotheses, the conceptual and operational definitions of the variables, the definition and selection of population and sample, a description of the instrument, and the procedures used in data collection and analysis.

Research Hypotheses

The following research hypotheses were posited and tested in order to determine the relationship between the variables that are presented in the research questions:

Hypothesis I: There is no significant relationship between the overall level of job satisfaction perceived by educational administration faculty members and the frequency of their social interaction with all job related agents.

Hypothesis Ia: Controlling for differences in faculty role orientation, there is no significant relationship between the level of overall job satisfaction perceived by educational administration

faculty members and the frequency of their social interaction with all job related agents.

Hypothesis Ib: Controlling for differences in program emphasis (certification vs. degree), there is no significant relationship between the level of overall job satisfaction perceived by educational administration faculty members and the frequency of their social interaction with all job related agents.

Hypothesis Ic: Controlling for the size of the employing university, there is no significant relationship between the level of overall job satisfaction perceived by educational administration faculty members and the frequency of their social interaction with all job related agents.

Hypothesis Id: Controlling for the sex of the respondents, there is no significant relationship between the level of overall job satisfaction perceived by educational administration faculty members and the frequency of their social interaction with all job related agents.

Hypothesis Ie: Controlling for the age of the respondents, there is no significant relationship between the level of overall job satisfaction perceived by educational administration faculty members and the frequency of their social interaction with all job related agents.

Hypothesis If: Controlling for the professorial rank of the respondents, there is no significant relationship between the level of overall job satisfaction perceived by educational administration faculty members and the frequency of their social interaction with all job related agents.

Hypothesis Ig: Controlling for the income level of the respondents, there is no significant relationship between the level of overall job satisfaction perceived by educational administration faculty members and the frequency of their social interaction with all job related agents.

Hypothesis Ih: Controlling for the years each respondent has spent in the present position, there is no significant relationship between the level of overall job satisfaction perceived by educational administration faculty members and the frequency of their social interaction with all job related agents.

Hypothesis II: There is no significant relationship between the level of overall job satisfaction perceived by educational administration faculty members and the frequency of their social interaction with their deans or associate deans.

Hypothesis III: There is no significant relationship between the level of overall job satisfaction perceived by educational administration faculty members and the frequency of their social interaction with their department heads.

Hypothesis IV: There is no significant relationship between the level of overall job satisfaction perceived by educational administration faculty members and the frequency of their social interaction with other faculty members in their departments.

Hypothesis V: There is no significant relationship between the level of overall job satisfaction perceived by educational administration faculty members and the frequency of their social interaction with students enrolled in their departments.

Conceptual and Operational Definitions of Variables

The definitions provided below are presented to provide a clear understanding of the concepts and variables in the manner that they were used in the present study.

Job Satisfaction: Perhaps the definition that best fits the concept of job satisfaction intended in this study is offered by Vroom: Job satisfaction is "the affective orientation of individuals toward work roles that they are presently occupying."¹

Levels of overall job satisfaction were measured in this study by totaling the responses each participant made to the five dimensions of the Job Descriptive Index.

Faculty Role Orientation: This refers to the latent social orientation of college faculty members observed and described by Gouldner in terms of cosmopolitan and local orientations. A professor with a cosmopolitan orientation is one who is affiliated more closely with a discipline or a profession than with the local institution's social and organizational practices.²

For this study, faculty role orientation is measured by summing the responses of each participant to eight items which were adapted

from Gouldner's study. The responses were marked on seven point Likert-type scales. (See Appendix A, p. 81.)

Social Interaction: This multidimensional variable refers to the number of times a faculty member enjoys positive, affective interaction with other agents from the context of his job. The concept also includes a measure of the number of different agents with whom he/she interacts in a positive manner.

Operationally, social interaction is measured by the participants' responses to the Faculty Interaction Survey. The Faculty Interaction Survey is composed of 20 questions divided into five sections: Dean or Associate Dean, Department Head, Other Faculty, and Students. (See Appendix A, p. 81.) A respondent's summed responses to all four sections of the FIS is a measure of the frequency of his/her social interaction with all job related agents. The responses to each section also constitute the variable measure identified by each job agent with whom the respondent interacts socially.

Program Emphasis: This variable distinguishes between educational administration programs which emphasize either courses of study leading to certification or courses of study leading to degrees.

The operational measure of this variable asks the respondent what percent of the students enrolled in his/her department are seeking certification rather than a degree. (See Appendix A, p. 81.)

Size of the Employing University: In order to determine the size of the university where each participant is employed, the questionnaire directed the respondent to mark one of six categories of student population ranging from 500 to 20,000. (See Appendix A, p. 81.)

Professorial Rank: To record the professorial rank of each respondent, the questionnaire asked each to mark one of the following: Instructor, Visiting Professor, Assistant Professor, Associate Professor, and Professor. (See Appendix A, p. 81.)

Income: In order to determine the gross income earned by the participants in this study, the questionnaire provided seven categories of income ranging from \$10,000 to above \$40,000.

The remaining variables are self-explanatory: sex, age, years in present position, whether or not respondent chairs his/her department, number of full-time faculty in respondent's department, length of time the Dean has been in that position, how many doctoral degrees completed in respondent's department each year, and the highest degree held by each respondent. (See Appendix A, p. 81.)

Identification of Population

The population of this study is limited to full-time faculty members from Departments of Educational Administration and Higher Education affiliated with the University Council for Educational Administration. At the time the population for this study was selected, the UCEA was represented by 47 institutions across the United States and Canada. There were 850 faculty members employed by the 47 UCEA member departments. Because the sample selected to participate in this study was drawn from the population described above, no attempt should be made to generalize the findings of this study to a broader population of university faculty members.

Sample Selection

One hundred and seventy-four faculty members were drawn by random selection without replacement from the entire population of faculty from UCEA member Departments of Educational Administration and Higher Education. The names of the individuals comprising this population were taken from the 1977-1978 UCEA Member Mailing List, the most current listing available.

Demographic Data

A review of the demographic data obtained from the 117 respondents who completed the questionnaire for this study is provided here as a description of the pertinent characteristics of the sample and population.

Of the 117 respondents, 108 (over 92 percent) were male. The age range for all respondents was from 28 to 71 with 20 percent being 40 or younger, 60 percent between 40 and 60, and 15 percent over 60. Only two faculty members reported that their highest degree was below the doctoral level. Of those with doctorate degrees, 65 percent reported holding Ph.D.'s, 26.5 percent Ed.D.'s, and 6.8 percent merely reported holding a doctorate degree. Faculty participants in this study fit into three categories according to professional rank: 62 percent were professors, 24 percent were associate professors, 14 percent were assistant professors. Nearly 67 percent of the respondents had held their present faculty positions for five or more years. The gross annual income earned by educational administration faculty participating in this study can be broken into three categories to show that less than two percent earned under \$20,000, nearly 61 percent earned between

\$20,000 and \$35,000, and over 37 percent earned more than \$35,000.

Fifteen of the 117 respondents reported that they were currently serving as heads of their departments. (See Table I.)

The following data serve to describe the context within which the population functioned. Over 75 percent of the respondents reported that they were serving in a department with 15 or fewer members. The largest department reported 96 members, and the smallest had only two. Of the 100 responses to the question asking "what percentage of the students in your department are seeking administrative certificates rather than degrees?," 32 percent reported that they had no certificate program, and 53 percent reported that half of their students were seeking administrative certificates rather than degrees. While the number of doctorate degrees completed annually in the departments represented in this study ranged from 1 to 75, nearly 86 percent reported 20 or fewer completed each year. Only six percent of the respondents reported that the university with which they were affiliated had a population of fewer than 10,000 students. Thirteen percent reported between 10,000 and 20,000 students, and 80 percent reported more than 20,000 students enrolled in their universities. More than 60 percent of the respondents reported that the municipality nearest their university had a population greater than 100,000. (See Table II.)

Data Collection

The following data were collected from questionnaires which were mailed to a sample of the population: cosmopolitan-local social orientation; overall job satisfaction; frequency of the participants' social interaction with his/her Dean or Associate Dean, his/her department head,

TABLE I
DEMOGRAPHIC DATA DESCRIBING THE RESPONDENTS

Variable	Frequency	Frequency (Percent)	Cumulative Frequency (Percent)
<u>Rank</u>			
Assistant Professor	16	13.7	13.7 ✓
Associate Professor	28	23.9	37.6
Full Professor	73	62.4	100.0
<u>Highest Degree</u>			
Ph.D.	76	65.0	65.0
Ed.D.	31	26.5	91.5
Doctorate	8	6.8	98.3
Other	2	1.7	100.0
<u>Sex</u>			
Female	9	7.7	7.7 ✓
Male	108	92.3	100.0
<u>Income</u>			
\$15,000-\$19,999	2	1.7	1.7
\$20,000-\$24,999	19	16.2	17.9
\$25,000-\$29,999	26	22.2	40.2
\$30,000-\$34,999	26	22.2	62.4
\$35,000-\$39,999	18	15.4	77.8
\$40,000 or above	26	22.2	100.0
<u>Age</u>			
28-40	24	20.5	20.5 ✓
41-50	44	37.6	58.1
51-60	31	26.5	84.6
61-71	18	15.4	100.0
<u>Time in Present Position</u>			
1 Semester	2	1.7	1.7
1 Year	1	0.9	2.6
2 Years	12	10.3	12.8
3 Years	13	11.1	23.9
4 Years	11	9.4	33.3
5 Years	3	2.6	35.9
More than 5 Years	75	64.1	100.0

TABLE II
DATA DESCRIBING THE DEPARTMENTS AND
UNIVERSITIES OF THE RESPONDENTS*

Variable	Frequency	Frequency (Percent)	Cumulative Frequency (Percent)
<u>Faculty in Department</u>			
1-10	62	54.4	54.4
11-20	35	30.7	85.1
21-40	10	8.8	93.0
41-100	7	6.1	100.0
<u>Size of University</u>			
1,500-2,499	4	3.4	3.4
2,500-4,999	2	1.7	5.2
5,000-9,999	1	0.9	6.0
10,000-19,000	15	12.9	19.0
20,000 or More	94	81.0	100.0
<u>Degrees Completed in Department</u>			
1-5	14	13.3	13.3
6-10	33	31.5	44.8
11-15	19	18.1	62.9
16-20	24	22.8	85.7
25-30	10	9.5	95.2
40-75	5	4.8	100.0
<u>Percent of Students Seeking Certification Only</u>			
0 Percent	32	32.0	32.0
1-25 Percent	38	38.0	70.0
26-50 Percent	15	15.0	85.0
51-75 Percent	10	10.0	95.0
76-95 Percent	5	5.0	100.0
<u>Population of Nearest Municipality</u>			
5,000-20,000	3	2.6	2.6
20,000-50,000	20	17.2	19.8
50,000-100,000	22	19.0	38.8
Over 100,000	71	61.2	100.0

*These data do not necessarily represent departments but represent the reports from the 117 respondents, several of which may be reporting for any one department or university.

other faculty in the department, and students enrolled in the department. Respondents were also asked to provide the following demographic information concerning themselves, their departments, and their universities: age, sex, income, rank, highest degree held, whether or not respondent chairs department, length of time in current position, number of full-time faculty members in the department, number of doctoral degrees completed in the department annually, percentage of students in the department seeking certification only, length of time Dean has held that position, university enrollment, and size of nearest municipality.

On February 13, 1979, questionnaires were mailed to a sample of 174 faculty members in Departments of Educational Administration at 47 universities across the United States and Canada. Along with each questionnaire was an explanatory letter and a stamped, self-addressed envelope. (See Appendix B, p. 95.) All questionnaires were coded so that follow-up letters could be sent to non-respondents. The names of all respondents and non-respondents were kept confidential. By the end of three weeks, 43 percent of the questionnaires had been completed and returned. Another questionnaire and a stamped, return envelope were sent to the non-respondents on March 6, 1979. One week later telephone calls were made to faculty UCEA representatives at four of the universities where response rates had been the lowest. On March 29, 1979, a handwritten postal card was sent to the remaining non-respondents. By May 4, 1979, 117 usable questionnaires, or 67 percent, had been completed and returned.

Instrumentation

The Questionnaire

The questionnaire used in this study contained 111 items in seven pages. It was composed of four parts designed to obtain data in the following areas: perceived overall job satisfaction; perceived social interaction between the respondent and his/her Dean or Associate Dean, his/her department head, other faculty members in the department, and students in the department; demographic; and a measure of the respondent's social orientation (cosmopolitan or local).

Operational Measures

Job Satisfaction. The Job Descriptive Index, developed by Smith, Kendall, and Hulin, was used to measure overall job satisfaction.³ Smith, Kendall, and Hulin conducted four studies with a total of 988 subjects to devise this five-dimension measure. Results of a multitrait-multimethod matrix assessment of this measure conducted by its authors show that it reveals consistent convergent and discriminant validity. They also report a split-half correlation with Spearman-Brown corrections of .80 to .88 as indications of the internal consistency reliability of the measure's five dimensions.⁴ Price concurs with the overall assessment of the JDI presented by Vroom: the index "is without doubt the most carefully constructed measure of job satisfaction in existence today."⁵ The JDI is a measure consisting of five dimensions: Work, Pay, Supervision, Promotions, and Co-workers. Under each dimension heading is a list of terms describing that dimension. (See Appendix A, p. 81.)

Because this measure was originally developed to assess the job satisfaction of industrial workers, it required some modification before it could be used with university faculty. The names of the dimensions Pay, Supervision, and Co-workers were changed to Salary, Administration, and Colleagues. Two terms from a total of 72 were deleted as inappropriate in a professional job context. One phrase was altered to fit more closely to faculty experience. These slight modifications pose no real threat to the established validity and reliability of the JDI. Perry reports the split-half correlations from the original measure of .80 to .88 were lowered only slightly, to .78, after nine of the terms were deleted to adapt the JDI to the university setting.⁶ For the present study, the responses to all five dimensions on this measure were summed to determine each respondent's level of job satisfaction.

Social Interaction. In order to determine each faculty member's level of social interaction with the four job related agents, a measure was developed specifically for this study to assess the frequency of social interactions. That measure, the Faculty Interaction Survey, consists of four dimensions. The first two dimensions (Dean or Associate Dean-Faculty Interaction and Department Head-Faculty Interaction) contain six questions each. The last two dimensions (Department members-Faculty and Students-Faculty) each contain five questions. Each of the 22 questions in the FIS is followed by a seven-point response scale. Twelve of the items in this measure ask the respondents to report the frequency of their informal or social interaction with specific agents in the job context. Six of the items ask the respondents to report the number of agents (five as percentages of the total and one as the actual

number) in each dimension with whom they have interacted socially. The remaining four items are placed at the last of the list of questions under each dimension to measure how important the respondents consider the other items within the dimension. One of the major variables tested in this study, total social interaction within the job context, was measured by summing the reported interactions in all four dimensions of the FIS. (See Appendix A, p. 81.) Summed frequencies of interactions for each dimension also served as the measure for four distinct variables tested in separate hypotheses.

Prior to its inclusion in the study, the validity of the Faculty Interaction Survey was assessed by a panel consisting of six faculty members from the Department of Educational Administration and Higher Education, one faculty member from the Department of Applied Behavioral Studies in Education, and one faculty member from the Statistics Department. Modifications were then made in the FIS consistent with the panel's recommendations.

Cosmopolitan-Local Orientation. A measure of the respondents' social orientation as defined by Gouldner's Cosmopolitan-Local orientation was used as a major control variable in this study. A review of the literature revealed that no updated measurement of social orientation for university faculty has been published since Gouldner's study. In her unpublished dissertation, Ostergard included a shortened adaptation of Gouldner's instrument.⁷ Six of the eight items used to measure faculty social orientation in the present study were taken directly from Gouldner, and two were taken from the Ostergard adaptation of Gouldner's items. Of the eight items used in this study, five represented a cosmopolitan orientation and three (items 2, 6, and 8)

represented a local orientation. (See Appendix A, p. 81.) Only slight modifications were made in four of the items in order to adapt them to the purposes of this study and in order to present all eight statements in a format to elicit responses on a Likert-type response scale. For the present study, each of the eight statements were followed by seven response categories ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." In order to tabulate the response to this measure, the three responses to the statements which reflected a local orientation were changed to the opposite end of the response scale so that all eight responses could be simply totaled to indicate a relative level of cosmopolitanism. Thus, the higher the total of all eight items in this measure the more cosmopolitan was the respondent's orientation. A factor analysis of the 117 responses to this measure indicated that three of the items were more closely associated than the other five. A Cronbach's Alpha coefficient for those three items was .65 while the Alpha coefficient for the eight items was .47.

Data Analysis

After the returned questionnaires were tabulated, the data were keypunched and computer processed using programs available from the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences.⁸ In addition, SPSS programs were used to tabulate frequency counts for each variable, to produce scattergrams to display relationships, and to compute a multiple regression formula using the major variables.

The following statistical techniques were used to analyze the data. Pearson product moment correlation coefficients were used to determine if significant relationships existed between overall job satisfaction

and the frequency of faculty social interaction with all agents in the job context, with deans or associate deans, with department heads, with other faculty in the department, and with students in the department. A partial correlation technique was used to determine if a significant relationship existed between the levels of overall job satisfaction and social interaction with all agents in the job context when controlling for the effects of the following variables: social orientation; differences in program emphasis; size of the employing university; the age, sex, rank, income, and years in the present position of the respondents.

Instrument Limitation

It must be pointed out that a typographical error was made in the instructions for Part B of the Job Descriptive Index portion of the questionnaire. The instructions for the other four sections of the JDI contained a statement that directed the participants to mark items with a "Y" if they described dimensions of their jobs, with an "N" if they did not describe them, and with a "?" if they could not decide. On Part B, Administration, the directions for marking items that did not describe the job dimension and for marking items about which the participants were undecided were not included. That left only the instruction to mark a "Y" for items that described that particular dimension in their own work experience.

This omission was not discovered until all questionnaires had been mailed and some had been completed and returned. After consultation with a statistician, it was decided not to send out corrected instruments but to tabulate all responses to Part B as if the abbreviated

instructions were intended. In that way, Part B was tabulated differently than the other parts of the JDI, but it was tabulated consistently for all respondents so as to avoid creating a bias.

As a result of tabulating responses to Part B differently than the other parts, the assessment of faculty satisfaction with their administrators produced a smaller and slightly less refined measure than would have been produced. Although this error had little or no effect on the results of the present study, the reader should be cautioned against comparing the results of Part B of the JDI from this study with results from that dimension produced in other studies using the JDI.

FOOTNOTES

¹Victor Vroom, Work and Motivation (New York, 1964), p. 99.

²Alvin Gouldner, "Cosmopolitans and Locals: Toward an Analysis of Latent Social Roles--I," Administrative Science Quarterly, II (1957), pp. 281-306.

³P. C. Smith, L. M. Kendall, and C. L. Hulin, The Management of Satisfaction in Work and Retirement (Chicago, 1969), pp. 66-68.

⁴James L. Price, Handbook of Organizational Measurement (Lexington, Massachusetts, 1972), p. 166.

⁵Ibid., p. 167.

⁶Jean L. Perry, "The Interrelationship of Job Satisfaction and Similarity in Philosophic View Within Academic Departments," Research in Higher Education, VII (1977), p. 271.

⁷Susan A. Ostergard, "The Profile of Local-Cosmopolitan Orientation and Traditional-Emergent Values for Teacher Education Personnel at Eight California State Colleges (unpub. Ed.D. dissertation, University of California, Los Angeles, 1977), pp. 158-163.

⁸Norman H. Nie, C. Hadlai Hull, Jean G. Jenkins, Karin Steinbrenner, and Dale H. Bent, Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (2nd ed., New York, 1975).

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

Of the 174 faculty surveyed, 130 or 75 percent responded; however, five of the respondents reported that they did not complete the questionnaire because they were no longer employed as active faculty members in an educational administration department. Incomplete questionnaires which had to be discarded were returned by eight respondents. The data used in this study were taken from the 117 completed questionnaires which accounts for 67 percent of the faculty members surveyed.

Testing the Hypotheses

For this study, any hypothesis stated in the null form was rejected if the stated relationship was shown to be at the $p < .05$ level of significance. All correlation coefficients of .20 or above at the $p < .05$ level of significance were considered important.

Major Hypothesis

The major hypothesis for this study predicted a significant relationship between the level of overall job satisfaction and the frequency of social interaction with all job related agents. This hypothesis was tested by calculating a Pearson product moment correlation coefficient for these two major variables.

Hypothesis I: There is no significant relationship between the level of overall job satisfaction perceived by educational administration faculty members and the frequency of their social interaction with all job related agents.

The Pearson correlation coefficient for overall job satisfaction and frequency of social interaction with all job related agents was computed to be .34 at a $p < .001$ significance level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected and a significant relationship was shown to exist between these two variables. The considerable strength of the correlation of these two major variables is especially noteworthy in view of the limited attention that has been given social interaction in job satisfaction studies.

TABLE III

ANALYSIS OF THE COMPUTED PEARSON CORRELATION BETWEEN THE LEVEL OF PERCEIVED JOB SATISFACTION AND THE FREQUENCY OF SOCIAL INTERACTION WITH ALL JOB RELATED AGENTS

	df	Social Interaction	p
Job Satisfaction	117	.34	< .001

Sub-Set of Major Hypothesis

Hypotheses Ia through Ih each introduce a control variable in predicting a significant relationship between the level of overall job satisfaction and the frequency of social interactions with job related agents. A partial correlation technique was used to compute the

correlation coefficients for the major variables while controlling for the effects of the intervening variable stated in each hypothesis.

Hypothesis Ia: Controlling for differences in faculty role orientation, there is no significant relationship between the level of overall job satisfaction perceived by educational administration faculty and the frequency of their social interactions with all job related agents.

A partial correlation technique was used to test this hypothesis. When controlling for the effects of differences in faculty role orientation, the computation produced a correlation coefficient of .31 at a .002 level of significance for overall job satisfaction and frequency of social interaction. Although partialing out the social orientation variable revealed a weaker relationship between the major variables, the .002 significance level called for the rejection of the null hypothesis.

TABLE IV

CONTROLLING FOR THE EFFECTS OF SOCIAL ORIENTATION, A
PARTIAL CORRELATION OF PERCEIVED OVERALL JOB
SATISFACTION AND THE FREQUENCY OF SOCIAL
INTERACTION WITH ALL JOB RELATED
AGENTS

	df	Social Interaction	p
Job Satisfaction	114	.31	.002

Hypothesis Ib: Controlling for differences in program emphasis (certification vs. degree), there is no significant relationship between the level of overall job satisfaction perceived by educational administration faculty members and the frequency of their social interaction with all job related agents.

Using a partial correlation technique which controlled for the effects of differences in program emphasis (certification vs. degree), the test of this hypothesis called for the rejection of the null hypothesis. Computations produced a correlation coefficient of .35 at a $p < .001$ significance level. Because the significance level was above the established level of .05, the prediction of Hypothesis Ib could be confirmed.

TABLE V

CONTROLLING FOR THE EFFECTS OF DIFFERENCES IN PROGRAM EMPHASIS (CERTIFICATION VS. DEGREE), A PARTIAL CORRELATION OF PERCEIVED OVERALL JOB SATISFACTION AND THE FREQUENCY OF SOCIAL INTERACTION WITH ALL JOB RELATED AGENTS

	df	Social Interaction	p
Job Satisfaction	97	.35	< .001

Hypothesis Ic: Controlling for the size of the employing institution, there is no significant relationship between the level of overall job satisfaction perceived by educational administration faculty members and the frequency of their social interaction with all job related agents.

In the test of Hypothesis Ic, a partial correlation technique was used to produce a correlation coefficient of .33 at a $p > .001$ significance level while controlling for the effects of differences in program emphasis. Because the significance level was shown to be beyond $p < .05$, the null hypothesis was rejected.

TABLE VI

CONTROLLING FOR THE SIZE OF THE UNIVERSITY, A PARTIAL
CORRELATION OF PERCEIVED OVERALL JOB SATISFACTION
AND THE FREQUENCY OF SOCIAL INTERACTION
WITH ALL JOB RELATED AGENTS

	df	Social Interaction	p
Job Satisfaction	113	.33	< .001

Hypothesis Id: Controlling for the sex of the respondents, there is no significant relationship between the level of overall job satisfaction perceived by educational administration faculty members and the frequency of their social interactions with all job related agents.

This hypothesis was tested by computing a partial correlation of overall job satisfaction and the frequency of social interaction while controlling for effects of the sex of the respondents. The computed correlation coefficient of .32 at a significance level where $p < .001$ called for the rejection of the null hypothesis.

TABLE VII

CONTROLLING FOR THE SEX OF THE RESPONDENTS, A PARTIAL
CORRELATION OF PERCEIVED OVERALL JOB SATISFACTION
AND THE FREQUENCY OF SOCIAL INTERACTION
WITH ALL JOB RELATED AGENTS

	df	Social Interaction	p
Job Satisfaction	113	.32	< .001

Hypothesis 1e: Controlling for the age of the respondents, there is no significant relationship between the level of overall job satisfaction perceived by educational administration faculty members and the frequency of their social interaction with all job related agents.

A correlation coefficient of .25 at a $p = .006$ level of significance was computed by a partial correlation method that controlled for the effects of the age of the respondents. The null hypothesis was rejected because the level of significance was greater than $p < .05$. A predicted correlation between perceived job satisfaction and frequency of social interaction was thereby confirmed.

TABLE VIII

CONTROLLING FOR THE AGE OF THE RESPONDENTS, A PARTIAL
CORRELATION OF PERCEIVED OVERALL JOB SATISFACTION
AND THE FREQUENCY OF SOCIAL INTERACTION
WITH ALL JOB RELATED AGENTS

	df	Social Interaction	p
Job Satisfaction	114	.25	.006

Hypothesis 1f: Controlling for the professorial rank of the respondents, there is no significant relationship between the level of overall job satisfaction perceived by educational administration faculty members and the frequency of their social interaction with all job related agents.

A partial correlation technique which controlled for the effects of professorial rank in the relationship between overall job satisfaction and social interaction was used to test this hypothesis. The computation produced a correlation coefficient of .29 at a $p = .002$ significance

level. The null hypothesis was rejected, and the predicted relationship was confirmed.

TABLE IX

CONTROLLING FOR PROFESSORIAL RANK, A PARTIAL CORRELATION OF PERCEIVED OVERALL JOB SATISFACTION AND THE FREQUENCY OF SOCIAL INTERACTION WITH ALL JOB RELATED AGENTS

	df	Social Interaction	p
Job Satisfaction	114	.29	.002

Hypothesis Ig: Controlling for the income level of the respondents, there is no significant relationship between the level of overall job satisfaction perceived by educational administration faculty members and the frequency of their social interaction with all job related agents.

A partial correlation technique which controlled for the effects of respondents' income level was used in testing this hypothesis. The computation produced a correlation coefficient of .30 at a $p = .001$ significance level. (See Table X.) Because the level of significance was greater than $p < .05$, the null hypothesis was rejected, and the predicted relationship was supported.

Hypothesis Ih: Controlling for the years each respondent has spent in the present position, there is no significant relationship between the level of overall job satisfaction perceived by educational administration faculty members and the frequency of their social interaction with all job related agents.

To test this hypothesis, a partial correlation method was used which determined the relationship between overall job satisfaction and frequency of social interaction while controlling for the effects of

professorial rank. This method produced a correlation coefficient of .30 at a $p = .001$ level of significance. (See Table XI.) The null hypothesis was rejected because the level of significance was shown to be greater than $p < .05$, thus confirming the predicted relationship.

TABLE X

CONTROLLING FOR LEVEL OF INCOME, A PARTIAL CORRELATION OF PERCEIVED OVERALL JOB SATISFACTION AND THE FREQUENCY OF SOCIAL INTERACTION WITH ALL JOB RELATED AGENTS

	df	Social Interaction	p
Job Satisfaction	114	.30	.001

TABLE XI

CONTROLLING FOR THE YEARS EACH RESPONDENT HAS SPENT IN THE PRESENT POSITION, A PARTIAL CORRELATION OF PERCEIVED OVERALL JOB SATISFACTION AND THE FREQUENCY OF SOCIAL INTERACTION WITH ALL JOB RELATED AGENTS

	df	Social Interaction	p
Job Satisfaction	114	.30	.001

Dimensions of Social Interaction

The following hypotheses consider the four separate dimensions that

together comprise the overall measure of social interaction. These dimensions are the frequency of the respondents' social interaction with each of the four agents from the job context: the dean or associate dean, the department head, other faculty in the department, and students in the department.

Hypothesis II: There is no significant relationship between the level of overall job satisfaction perceived by educational administration faculty members and the frequency of their social interaction with their deans and associate deans.

The Pearson correlation coefficient for overall job satisfaction and frequency of social interaction with the dean or associate dean was computed to be .22 at a .02 level of significance. With the significance level above $p < .05$, the null hypothesis was rejected.

TABLE XII

ANALYSIS OF THE COMPUTED PEARSON CORRELATION BETWEEN
THE LEVEL OF PERCEIVED JOB SATISFACTION AND THE
FREQUENCY OF SOCIAL INTERACTION WITH
DEANS OR ASSOCIATE DEANS

	Number	Social Interaction	p
Job Satisfaction	117	.22	.02

Hypothesis III: There is no significant relationship between the level of overall job satisfaction perceived by educational administration faculty members and the frequency of their social interaction with their department heads.

To test this hypothesis, a Pearson correlation coefficient was computed. The computation produced a coefficient of .29 at a .002 level of

significance for the two variables. The null hypothesis was rejected, and the predicted relationship was supported.

TABLE XIII

ANALYSIS OF THE COMPUTED PEARSON CORRELATION BETWEEN THE
LEVEL OF PERCEIVED JOB SATISFACTION AND THE
FREQUENCY OF SOCIAL INTERACTION WITH
DEPARTMENT HEADS

	Number	Social Interaction	p
Job Satisfaction	117	.29	.002

Hypothesis IV: There is no significant relationship between the level of overall job satisfaction perceived by educational administration faculty members and the frequency of their social interaction with other faculty members in their departments.

This hypothesis was tested by computing a Pearson correlation coefficient for overall job satisfaction and frequency of social interaction with other faculty members. A correlation coefficient of .24 at a $p = .01$ significance level was produced. (See Table XIV.) The null hypothesis was rejected and the predicted relationship was confirmed.

Hypothesis IV: There is no significant relationship between the level of overall job satisfaction perceived by educational administration faculty members and the frequency of their social interaction with students enrolled in their departments.

The Pearson correlation coefficient used to test this hypothesis failed to reach a level of significance of $p < .05$. The computation produced a correlation coefficient of .14 at a $p = .14$ level of

significance. (See Table XV.) Therefore, the predicted relationship could not be confirmed.

TABLE XIV

ANALYSIS OF THE COMPUTED PEARSON CORRELATION BETWEEN THE
LEVEL OF PERCEIVED JOB SATISFACTION AND THE
FREQUENCY OF SOCIAL INTERACTION WITH
OTHER FACULTY

	Number	Social Interaction	p
Job Satisfaction	117	.24	.01

TABLE XV

ANALYSIS OF THE COMPUTED PEARSON CORRELATION BETWEEN THE
LEVEL OF PERCEIVED JOB SATISFACTION AND THE
FREQUENCY OF SOCIAL INTERACTION WITH
STUDENTS IN THE DEPARTMENT

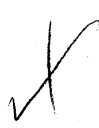
	Number	Social Interaction	p
Job Satisfaction	117	.14	.14

TABLE XVI
SUMMARY OF ANALYSES OF HYPOTHESIS

Hypothesis	Variables	Control Variable	Correlation Coefficient	n/df	p**
I	Job Satisfaction/ Social Interaction	None	.34	117*	<.001
Ia	Job Satisfaction/ Social Interaction	Social Orientation	.31	114	.002
Ib	Job Satisfaction/ Social Interaction	Program Difference	.35	97	<.001
Ic	Job Satisfaction/ Social Interaction	Size of University	.33	113	<.001
Id	Job Satisfaction/ Social Interaction	Sex	.32	113	.001
Ie	Job Satisfaction/ Social Interaction	Age	.25	114	.006
If	Job Satisfaction/ Social Interaction	Rank	.29	114	.002
Ig	Job Satisfaction/ Social Interaction	Income	.30	114	.001
Ih	Job Satisfaction/ Social Interaction	Years in Position	.30	114	.001
II	Job Satisfaction/ Interaction with Dean	None	.22	117*	.02
III	Job Satisfaction/ Interaction with Department Head	None	.29	117*	.002
IV	Job Satisfaction/ Interaction with Faculty	None	.24	117*	.01
V	Job Satisfaction/ Interaction with Students	None	.14	117*	.14

*Number of Cases

**Significance Level at $p < .05$.



CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate the association of certain informal rewards with overall job satisfaction as perceived by educational administration faculty members. A national sample of professors employed at UCEA affiliated universities was randomly selected to participate in this study. Data analyzed in Chapter IV were provided by 117 respondents (67 percent) of the sample. While the data generally confirmed the relationships that were implied in the conceptual framework built upon the propositions and theories of Homans, Etzioni, Locke, Porter, and Lawler, there were specific exceptions and qualifications among these relationships. This chapter will present a summary of the findings, a discussion of the implications of the findings, and a number of recommendations for further study.

Summary

Major Hypothesis

The predicted relationships between perceived overall job satisfaction and frequency of interaction reported by educational administration faculty was confirmed. Both of the variables in this hypothesis were multi-dimensional. Job satisfaction was measured by summing the

responses to the categories of work, administration, salary, promotions and colleagues which make up the Job Descriptive Index. Total social interaction was a measure of the frequency of each respondent's social interaction with the most important agents from his/her job context: dean or associate dean, department head, other faculty in the department, and students in the department. A significant correlation was shown between these gross measures: .34 at $p < .001$ level of significance.

Sub-Hypotheses

Because the variable social interaction included faculty interaction with four distinct agents, hypotheses which predicted a relationship between overall job satisfaction and social interaction with each of these agents were tested. Looking at the relationship of job satisfaction with the faculty members' interaction with each agent was a means of refining the general analysis of this study. Significant distinctive correlations were shown to exist between job satisfaction and interaction with three of the agents: with the dean or associate dean (.22), with the department head (.29), with other faculty (.24). Faculty interaction with students and job satisfaction were not shown to be significantly correlated. The weak measure of correlation (.14) was not significant. This finding will be dealt with at greater length in the discussion section of this chapter.

Control for Social Orientation

Another important consideration suggested by the theoretical framework developed in this study was to determine what effect the social

orientation of individual faculty members has on the relationship between job satisfaction and frequency of social interaction. The measure constructed to determine the social orientation of the respondents was composed of items adapted from Gouldner's study of cosmopolitan-local orientations in college faculty.¹ Gouldner's model suggested that faculty who have a local orientation will have more frequent social interaction with agents in the local organization than those who have a cosmopolitan orientation.² The measure of social orientation used in this study was scaled so that an increase in score indicated a higher degree of cosmopolitanism. By using a partial correlation method to control for the effects of social orientation, a significant relationship between overall job satisfaction and total social interaction was shown to exist. This method produced a correlation coefficient only slightly weaker than the one that did not control for social orientation: .31 compared to .34. Because the response patterns in the social orientation measure were somewhat inconsistent, the responses to all eight items were factor analyzed to inspect the factor structure of the items. That analysis showed that only items two, five, and eight (see Appendix A) loaded heavily on the first factor. The Cronbach Alpha coefficient for these three items was .65 while the Alpha coefficient for all eight items was .47. A second partial correlation was computed using items two, five, and eight as the social orientation control variable. The correlation coefficient for overall job satisfaction and total social interaction, using the modified measure for social orientation, was somewhat weaker than the one controlled by the original measure: .21 vs. .31 indicating some intervention.

It should be noted that the aggregate response to items two, five, and eight revealed a definite local orientation in the respondents. The other five items produced mean responses that tended toward the midpoint on the local-cosmopolitan continuum.

Control for Demographic Variables

All of the hypotheses tested which used demographic data as control variables demonstrated relationships between overall job satisfaction and total social interaction which were positive, significant and moderate in strength. Controlling for program differences produced the highest correlation between the major variables at .35. The weakest correlation produced with a control variable was a correlation of .25 which resulted when the effects of age were partialled out. When controlling for the size of the university, the coefficient for the major variables was .33; for sex, .32; for professorial rank, .29; for income level, .30; for years spent in the present position, .30.

Confirmation by Multiple Regression

In order to better understand the relationship of overall job satisfaction with total social interaction and eight other variables, a multiple regression computation was performed. The results showed that the social orientation variable and age were the best predictors of job satisfaction. Total social interaction entered the equation in the third step showing that after social interaction and age, it accounted for more of the variance in the equation than the other variables. Finding that total social interaction ranks high among the variables in predicting overall job satisfaction lends greater strength to the conceptual

base of this study. It should also be noted that a cosmopolitan social orientation, the strongest predictor of job satisfaction, was shown to have a strong but negative correlation with job satisfaction. That relationship was assumed in the conceptual framework of this study as can be seen in its inclusion as a control variable. Although age accounts for the second largest contribution to the variance in the regression equation, it cannot be considered as important as social interaction in the theoretical framework of this study because it is a demographic variable that is immutable except as a function of time, therefore, not subject to organizational nor individual control.

Discussion

The summary of findings clearly shows that a significant and relatively strong relationship exists between perceived, overall job satisfaction and the frequency of social interaction reported by educational administration faculty members. These findings might well challenge several current assumptions concerning job satisfaction and university reward structures. One of the assumptions in job satisfaction theory that must now be questioned is that relations with co-workers "has small net effects on job satisfaction."³ Another important implication that results from this study is that an important informal reward can be measured in a systematic manner. The difficulty of quantifying the effects of informal rewards has been acknowledged in previous studies.⁴

It is interesting to note that the only hypothesis which was not confirmed in this study was the one which predicted a significant correlation between overall job satisfaction and the frequency of social

interaction with students. Three possible explanations for this lack of correlations will be offered. First, a scattergram plotting of responses (Appendix C, p. 98) indicates that most of the respondents reported frequent social interaction with students irrespective of their perceived level of job satisfaction. That fact may be taken at face value as merely a reality of the job experience for this sample, or it might suggest that measurement range was truncated, thus failing to account for even greater frequencies of interaction with students. Second, the failure to associate faculty job satisfaction with frequent social interaction with students might be explained by what Nevitt Sanford has described as a kind of academic "culture."⁵ From his research on faculty attitudes and values, Sanford has concluded that rather than a profession, academicians share a "culture" which too often narrowly defines the appropriate values and behaviors of professors. The example he cites appears relevant to the findings under discussion.

For example, professors often identify with their discipline or specialty rather than with their role of teacher. They respect norms concerning how much time one may properly spend with students or how much interest in students one may display. In most institutions the norms are pretty low: if one becomes a popular teacher, he courts the danger of being ostracized by colleagues. Similarly he must beware of 'popularity' lest he give away too much of the mystery upon which supports his discipline depends.⁶

The third explanation for the lack of predicted correlation between these variables is that it might have appeared socially desirable for the respondents to report frequent, positive interaction with their students regardless of their perceived levels of job satisfaction.

Several observations can be made at this point concerning specific variables and their relationships which were not actually hypothesized in this study. Although the sex of the respondents was used as a control

variable in computing a partial correlation of the major variables, only nine of the 117 respondents were women. The computation of a Pearson correlation coefficient of sex with job satisfaction produced a significant negative coefficient of $-.20$ indicating that the women surveyed tended to be less satisfied than men. Women also reported lower income than men, but that was at least partially explained by the fact that women had held their present positions a shorter time than the men. The variable entitled "program emphasis" which measured the percentage of students preparing only for certification correlated positively with the cosmopolitan measure and negatively with the size of the university. As would be expected there was a high positive correlation between age and income and between age and years in the same position.

Recommendations ✓

It is in consideration of the findings, the implications of those findings, and the previously described limitations of this study that the following recommendations for further research are offered:

1. Because the concept of latent social orientations (cosmopolitan-local) as developed by Gouldner is still important, it is hoped that an updated measure of that concept will be developed to assess the orientation of university faculty members.⁷
- ✓ 2. Results from this study which indicate that no relationship exists between faculty/student social interaction calls for further study. The development of an improved instrument to measure faculty/student interaction is suggested. Further investigation into the nature and effects of these interactions is also recommended.

3. In order to gain further insight into the differences and similarities in various university faculties, this study should be extended to include samples from selected disciplines and departments.
4. Because the Job Descriptive Index has been so widely used and noted as one of the best measures of job satisfaction, the results of the JDI portion of this study should be compared with the results of JDI measures of job satisfaction from studies of other occupations.⁸
5. Finally, whereas the present study has sought only to confirm whether or not a significant relationship exists between job satisfaction and social interaction, further research will be required to explain the nature of that relationship.

Concluding Comments

It is hoped that the findings of this study have added substantially to the refinement of job satisfaction theory by confirming the association between job satisfaction and social interaction. With a theoretical framework that was constructed from Homans' basic propositions of social exchange, Etzioni's model of normative organizations, and Locke's argument that attributes events and conditions in the work environment to specific agents, this study has logically drawn together important assumptions from sociology, organizational theory, and psychology.

It is also hoped that practitioners in departments of Educational Administration and Higher Education will be able to use the results of this study to better understand their profession. More specifically, administrators and faculty together should be able to take more rational

approaches in program planning, in faculty development, and in making individual career choices by acknowledging the importance of informal rewards in the forms of positive, social interaction.

FOOTNOTES

¹Alvin Gouldner, "Cosmopolitan and Locals: Toward an Analysis of Latent Social Roles--I," Administrative Science Quarterly, II (1957), pp. 281-306.

²Ibid.

³Arne L. Kalleberg, "Work Values and Job Rewards: A Theory of Job Satisfaction," American Sociological Review, XLII (1977), p. 136.

⁴Howard P. Tuckman and Robert P. Hagemann, "An Analysis of the Reward Structure in Two Disciplines," Journal of Higher Education, XLVII (1976), p. 449.

⁵Nevitt Sanford, "Academic Culture and the Teacher's Development," Soundings, LIV (1971), pp. 357-371.

⁶Ibid., p. 359.

⁷Gouldner, pp. 281-306.

⁸Frank J. Landy and Don A. Trumbo, A Psychology of Work Behavior (Homewood, Illinois, 1976), p. 358.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

ORIGINAL JOB DESCRIPTIVE INDEX AND
RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

JOB DESCRIPTION INDEX¹

Items in Final Version of JDI

Each of the five scales was presented on a separate page.

The instructions for each scale asked the subject to put "Y" beside an item if the item described the particular aspect of his job (e.g., work, pay, etc.) and "N" if the item did not describe that aspect, or "?" if he could not decide.

The response shown beside each item is the one scored in the "satisfied" direction for each scale.

<u>Work</u>	<u>Supervision</u>	<u>People</u>																				
<u>Y</u> Fascinating	<u>Y</u> Asks my advice	<u>Y</u> Stimulating																				
<u>N</u> Routine	<u>N</u> Hard to please	<u>N</u> Boring																				
<u>Y</u> Satisfying	<u>N</u> Impolite	<u>N</u> Slow																				
<u>N</u> Boring	<u>Y</u> Praises good work	<u>Y</u> Ambitious																				
<u>Y</u> Good	<u>Y</u> Tactful	<u>N</u> Stupid																				
<u>Y</u> Creative	<u>Y</u> Influential	<u>Y</u> Responsible																				
<u>Y</u> Respected	<u>Y</u> Up-to-date	<u>Y</u> Fast																				
<u>Y</u> Pleasant	<u>N</u> Doesn't supervise enough	<u>Y</u> Intelligent																				
<u>Y</u> Useful	<u>N</u> Quick-tempered	<u>N</u> Easy to make enemies																				
<u>N</u> Tiresome	<u>Y</u> Tells me where I stand	<u>N</u> Talks too much																				
<u>Y</u> Healthful	<u>N</u> Annoying	<u>Y</u> Smart																				
<u>Y</u> Challenging	<u>N</u> Stubborn	<u>N</u> Lazy																				
<u>N</u> On your feet	<u>Y</u> Knows job well	<u>N</u> Unpleasant																				
<u>N</u> Frustrating	<u>N</u> Bad	<u>N</u> No privacy																				
<u>N</u> Simple	<u>Y</u> Intelligent	<u>Y</u> Active																				
<u>N</u> Endless	<u>Y</u> Leaves me on my own	<u>N</u> Narrow interests																				
<u>Y</u> Gives sense of accomplishment	<u>Y</u> Around when needed	<u>Y</u> Loyal																				
	<u>N</u> Lazy	<u>N</u> Hard to meet																				
<table style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <thead> <tr> <th style="text-align: center; width: 50%;"><u>Pay</u></th> <th style="text-align: center; width: 50%;"><u>Promotions</u></th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td><u>Y</u> Income adequate for normal expenses</td> <td><u>Y</u> Good opportunity for advancement</td> </tr> <tr> <td><u>N</u> Barely live on income</td> <td><u>N</u> Opportunity somewhat limited</td> </tr> <tr> <td><u>N</u> Bad</td> <td><u>Y</u> Promotion on ability</td> </tr> <tr> <td><u>Y</u> Income provides luxuries</td> <td><u>N</u> Dead-end job</td> </tr> <tr> <td><u>N</u> Insecure</td> <td><u>Y</u> Good chance for promotion</td> </tr> <tr> <td><u>N</u> Less than I deserve</td> <td><u>N</u> Unfair promotion policy</td> </tr> <tr> <td><u>Y</u> Highly paid</td> <td><u>N</u> Infrequent promotions</td> </tr> <tr> <td><u>N</u> Underpaid</td> <td><u>Y</u> Regular promotions</td> </tr> <tr> <td></td> <td><u>Y</u> Fairly good chance for promotion</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>			<u>Pay</u>	<u>Promotions</u>	<u>Y</u> Income adequate for normal expenses	<u>Y</u> Good opportunity for advancement	<u>N</u> Barely live on income	<u>N</u> Opportunity somewhat limited	<u>N</u> Bad	<u>Y</u> Promotion on ability	<u>Y</u> Income provides luxuries	<u>N</u> Dead-end job	<u>N</u> Insecure	<u>Y</u> Good chance for promotion	<u>N</u> Less than I deserve	<u>N</u> Unfair promotion policy	<u>Y</u> Highly paid	<u>N</u> Infrequent promotions	<u>N</u> Underpaid	<u>Y</u> Regular promotions		<u>Y</u> Fairly good chance for promotion
<u>Pay</u>	<u>Promotions</u>																					
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	<u>Y</u> Fairly good chance for promotion																					

¹P. C. Smith, L. M. Kendall, and C. L. Hulin, The Measurement of Satisfaction in Work and Retirement (Chicago, Illinois, 1969).

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION AND HIGHER

EDUCATION FACULTY QUESTIONNAIRE

I. Faculty Orientation Survey

Please read each statement carefully and respond to each by checking the blank below each statement that most accurately describes your agreement or disagreement with the statement.

1. A nationally recognized faculty association such as AAUP should play a more active role on this campus.

_____ strongly agree _____ undecided _____ strongly disagree

2. My colleagues at this university are an important source of intellectual stimulation for me.

_____ strongly agree _____ undecided _____ strongly disagree

3. Faculty members should have their loads lightened to make more time available for individual research, writing, or other work in their fields.

_____ strongly agree _____ undecided _____ strongly disagree

4. If I saw no opportunity to do individual research here, I would find my job less satisfying.

_____ strongly agree _____ undecided _____ strongly disagree

5. It is unfortunate that there are very few people around here with whom one can share his/her professional interests.

_____ strongly agree _____ undecided _____ strongly disagree

6. Colleges should expel students who use the college as a base of operations for protest in the community.

_____ strongly agree _____ undecided _____ strongly disagree

7. Periodicals, books, and other publications are my most important source of intellectual stimulation.

_____ strongly agree _____ undecided _____ strongly disagree

8. Most of the members of my department are quite willing to exchange ideas regarding their teaching.

_____ strongly agree _____ undecided _____ strongly disagree

II. Job Descriptive Index

A. Work

Think of your present work. What is it like most of the time? In the blank beside each work 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 department or college who in any way direct, coordinate or supervise your activity. What is the usual relationship? In the blank beside each word given below, write:

Y for "YES" if it describes the administration

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. _____ Knows 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 given 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 department. In the blank beside each word given below, write:

Y for "YES" if it describes promotion practices in your department

N for "NO" 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 chance for promotion

48. _____ Unfair promotion policy

49. _____ Infrequent promotions

50. _____ Regular promotions

51. _____ Fairly good chance for promotions

E. Colleagues

Think of your departmental 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

III. Organization and Biographical Data

1. What is your current rank?
 - A. Instructor _____
 - B. Visiting Professor _____
 - C. Assistant Professor _____
 - D. Associate Professor _____
 - E. Professor _____

2. How long have you held your current faculty position?
 - A. One semester _____
 - B. One year _____
 - C. Two years _____
 - D. Three years _____
 - E. Four years _____
 - F. Five years _____
 - G. More than five years _____

3. How many full-time faculty members are in your department? _____

4. What is the student population in the university where you teach?
 - A. 500-1499 _____
 - B. 1500-2499 _____
 - C. 2500-4999 _____
 - D. 5000-9999 _____
 - E. 10000-19999 _____
 - F. 20000 or more _____

5. How long has your Dean held that position? _____

6. Approximately how many doctoral degrees are completed by students in your department each year? _____

7. Approximately what percent of the students in your department are seeking administrative certificates rather than degrees? _____%

8. What is your age? _____

9. What is the highest degree that you hold? _____

10. Do you chair your department? Yes _____ No _____

11. What is the approximate population of the municipality nearest your university?
 - A. Less than 5,000 _____
 - B. 5,000-20,000 _____
 - C. 20,000-50,000 _____
 - D. 50,000-100,000 _____
 - E. More than 100,000 _____

12. What is your sex? Male _____ Female _____

13. Check the category which most accurately describes 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. Above \$40,000 _____

IV. Faculty Interaction Survey

Please check the blank below each question that most accurately describes your personal assessment of the activity or opinion being measured. Many of the questions require only an approximation.

Dean or Associate Dean-Faculty Interaction

1. How many times during the last full academic year has your Dean or Associate Dean met with you personally?

Never 1 2 3 4 5 More than 5

2. How many times during the last full academic year have you been selected by your Dean or Associate Dean to represent your college at a conference, workshop or retreat?

Never 1 2 3 4 5 More than 5

3. How many times has your Dean or Associate Dean recommended that you be assigned to a committee that is important to you in the last full academic year?

Never 1 2 3 4 5 More than 5

4. How many times during the last full academic year has your Dean or Associate Dean expressed his/her approval of your professional activities?

Never 1 2 3 4 5 More than 5

5. How many times during the last full academic year have you been invited to attend a social function by your Dean or Associate Dean?

Never 1 2 3 4 5 More than 5

6. How important do you consider such interactions between you and your Dean or Associate Dean as are described in items 1 through 5?

Very important Indifferent Very unimportant

Department Head-Faculty Interaction

7. How many times during the last full academic year has your department head expressed his/her approval of your professional activities?

Never 1 2 3 4 5 More than 5

8. To how many committees that you feel are important have you been assigned by your department head in the last full academic year?

None 1 2 3 4 5 More than 5

9. How many times during the last full academic year have you had an informal luncheon or coffee with your department head?

Never 1 2 3 4 5 More than 5

10. How many times during the last full academic year have you been invited to your department head's home socially?

Never 1 2 3 4 5 More than 5

11. How many times during the last full academic year have you been selected by your department head to represent your department at conferences, workshops or retreats?

Never 1 2 3 4 5 More than 5

12. How important do you consider such interactions between you and your department head as are described in items 7 through 11?

Very important Indifferent Very unimportant

Department Members-Faculty Interaction

13. How often during the last full academic year did you get together informally with one or more of your departmental colleagues to discuss or plan professional activities?

Never 1 2 3 4 5 More than 5

22. How important do you consider such interactions between you and your students as are described in items 18 through 21?

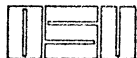
Very important

Indifferent

Very unimportant

APPENDIX B

LETTERS



Oklahoma State University

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION
AND HIGHER EDUCATION
STILLWATER, OKLAHOMA 74074

STILLWATER, OKLAHOMA 74074
GUNDIRSEN HALL
(405) 624-7244

February 13, 1979

Dear Professor,

In today's situation of decreased professional mobility, faculty are more often staying at an institution for longer periods. For such individuals, attitudes toward their job and their interactions with others in the organization are increasingly important.

You have been selected as a professor of Educational Administration in a university associated with the University Council of Educational Administration, and we hope you will take fifteen minutes from your busy day to complete this questionnaire. You can be absolutely assured that your responses will remain anonymous. While each questionnaire is coded in order to identify non-respondents, no individual or institution will be identified in the records. The code numbers will be removed from the questionnaires as soon as they are received.

Because partial responses will have to be discarded, please answer all questions if you consent to participate in this study. If you would like a summary of the report, please let me know.

I thank you very much for your cooperation.

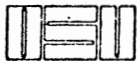
Respectfully,

Thomas A. Newton
Graduate Research Associate
College of Education
Oklahoma State University

Thomas A. Karman, Head
Department of Educational
Administration and
Higher Education

dla

Enclosure



Oklahoma State University

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION
AND HIGHER EDUCATION
STILLWATER, OKLAHOMA 74074

STILLWATER, OKLAHOMA 74074
GUNDERSEN HALL
(405) 624-7244

March 6, 1979

Dear Professor,

Although we greatly appreciate the response to our questionnaire sent to faculty members affiliated with UCEA, we are still short of our needed response percentage. We ask your assistance in making this study a success. Enclosed you will find a questionnaire and a self-addressed, stamped envelope. If you are concerned about the nature of the information requested of you on the questionnaire, you can be assured that your responses will remain anonymous.

Thank you for taking a few minutes from your busy schedule for this worthwhile study.

Sincerely,

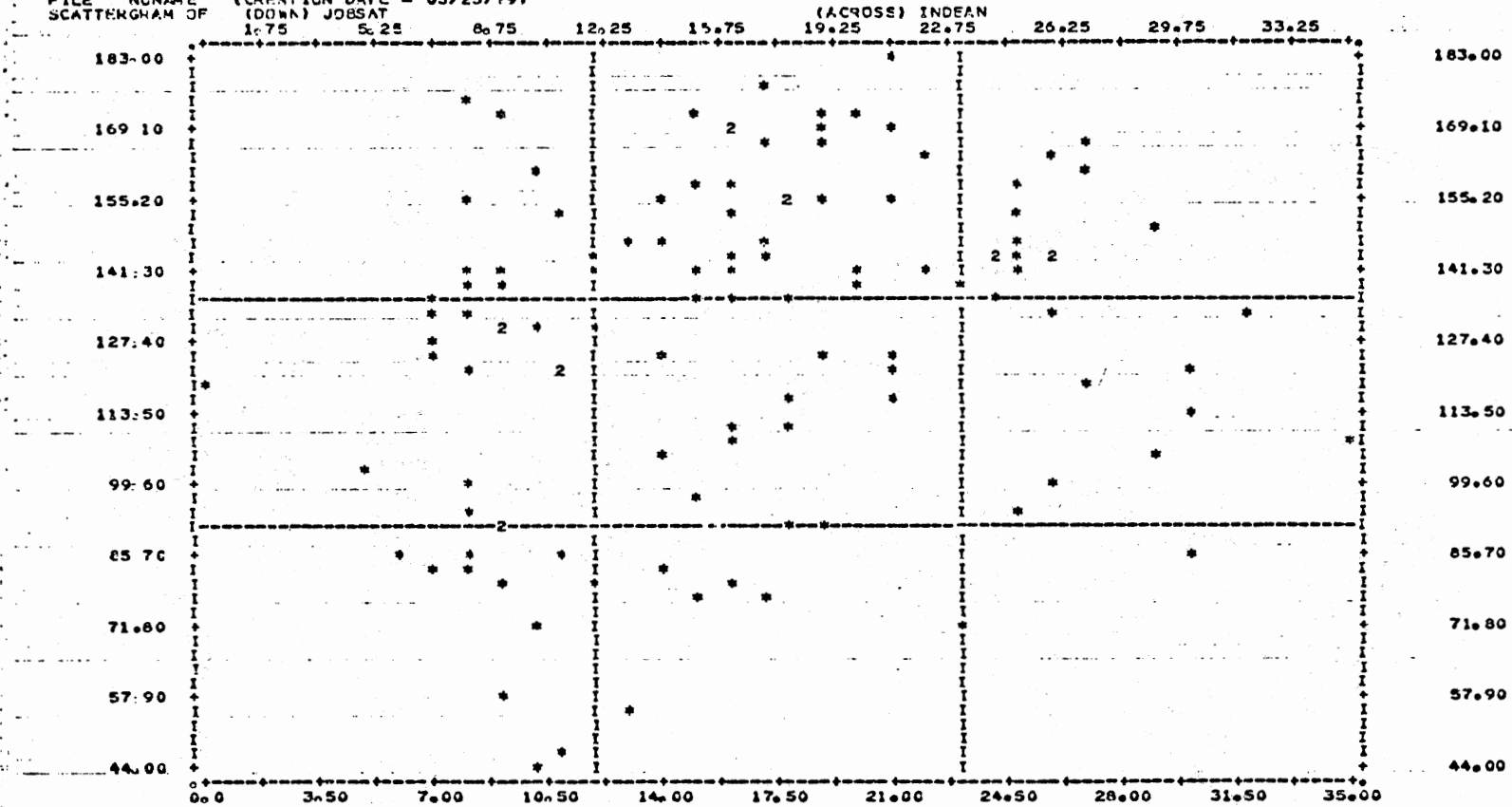
A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Thomas A. Newton".

Thomas A. Newton
Graduate Research Associate

APPENDIX C

ADDITIONAL DATA

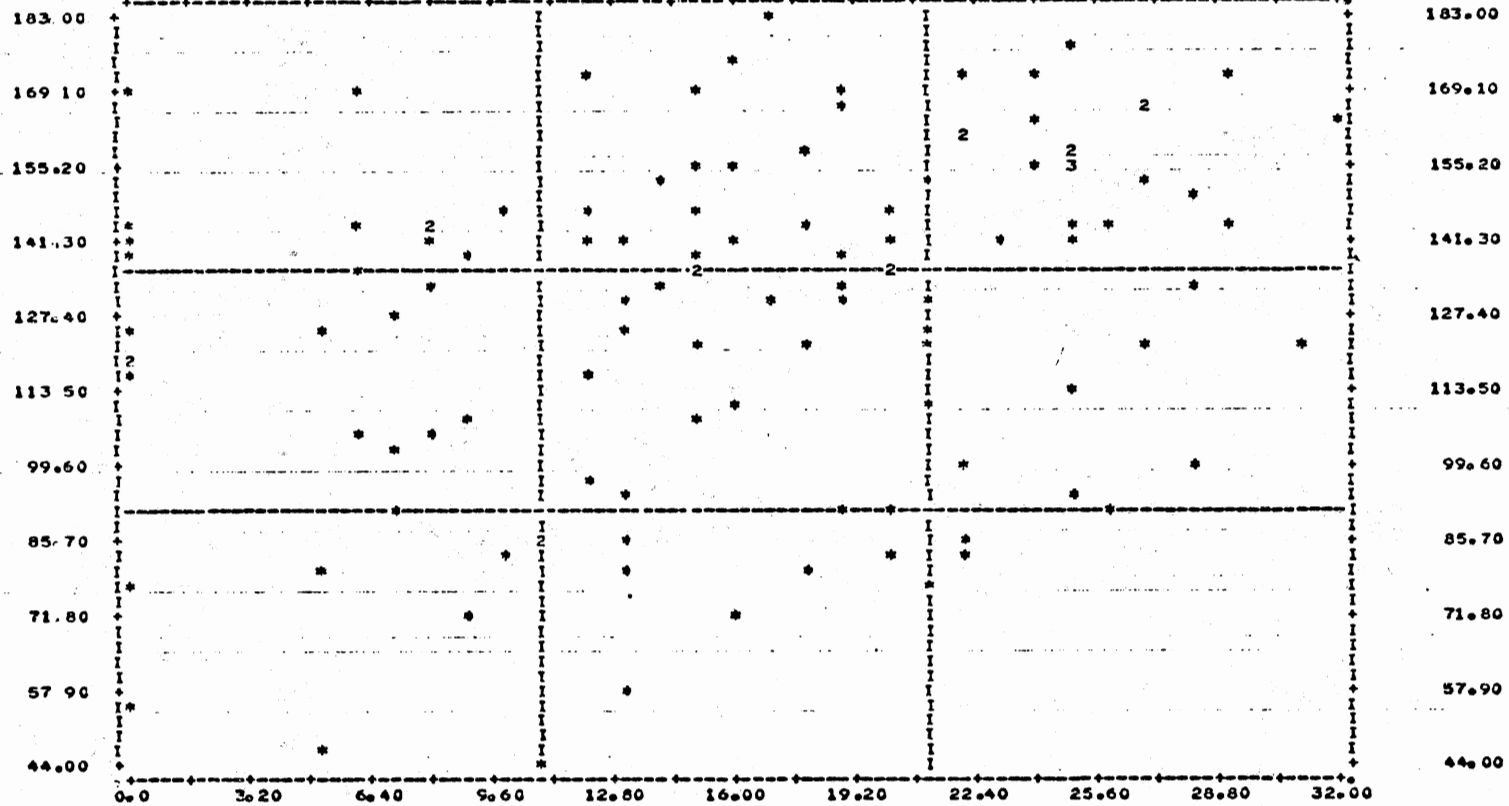
FILE NCNAME (CREATION DATE = 05/23/79)
SCATTERGRAM OF (DOWN) JOBSAT



JOBSAT(down) = Job Satisfaction
INDEAN(across) = Interaction with the Dean

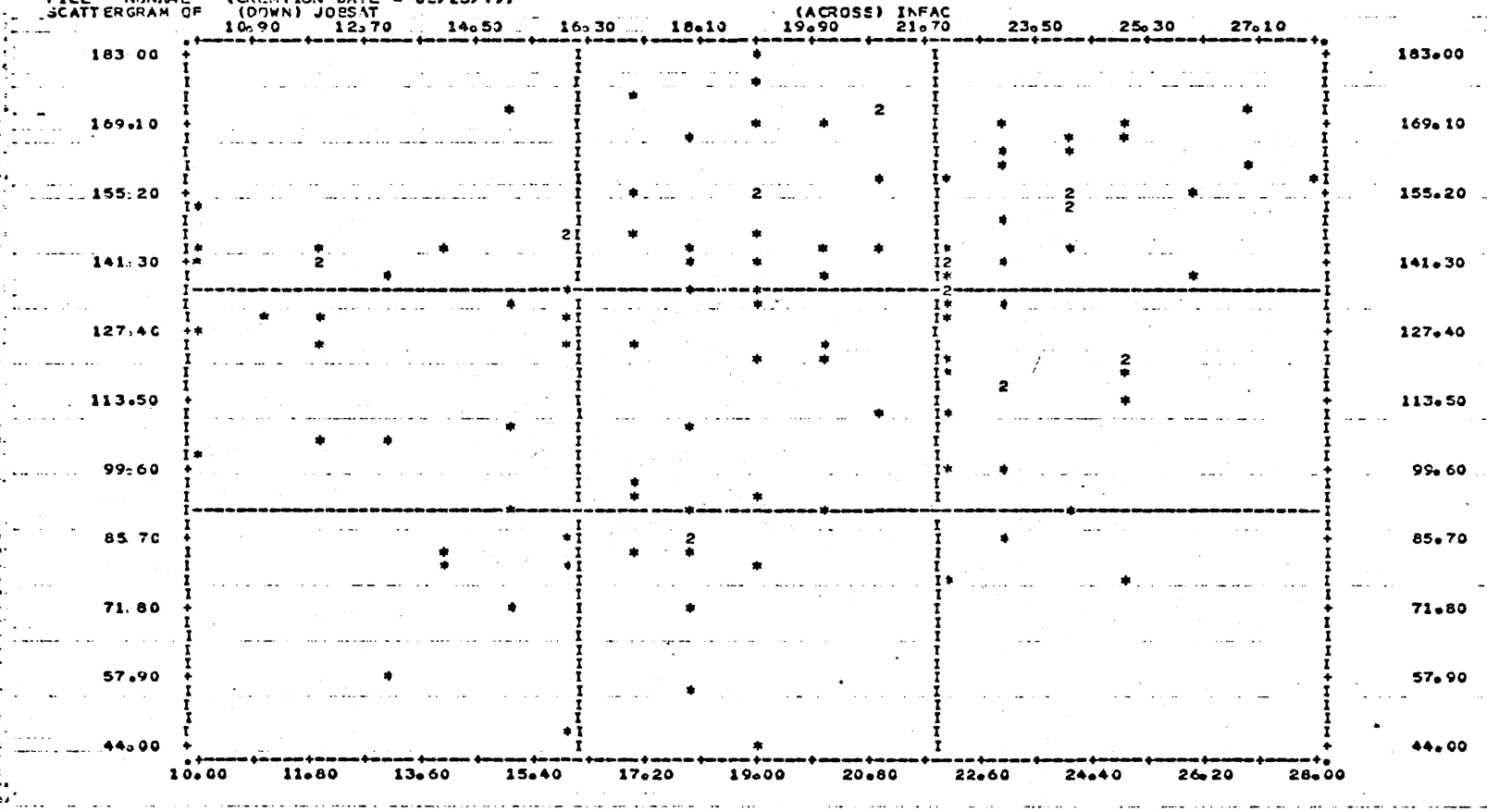
FILE NCAAME (CREATION DATE = 05/23/79)
 SCATTERGRAM OF (DOWN) JOBSAT
 1.50 4.80 8.00 11.20 14.40 17.60 20.80

(ACROSS) INHEAD
 24.00 27.20 30.40



JOBSAT(down) = Job Satisfaction
 INHEAD(across) = Interaction with the Department Head

FILE NINAME (CREATION DATE = 05/23/79)
 SCATTERGRAM OF (DOWN) JOBSAT



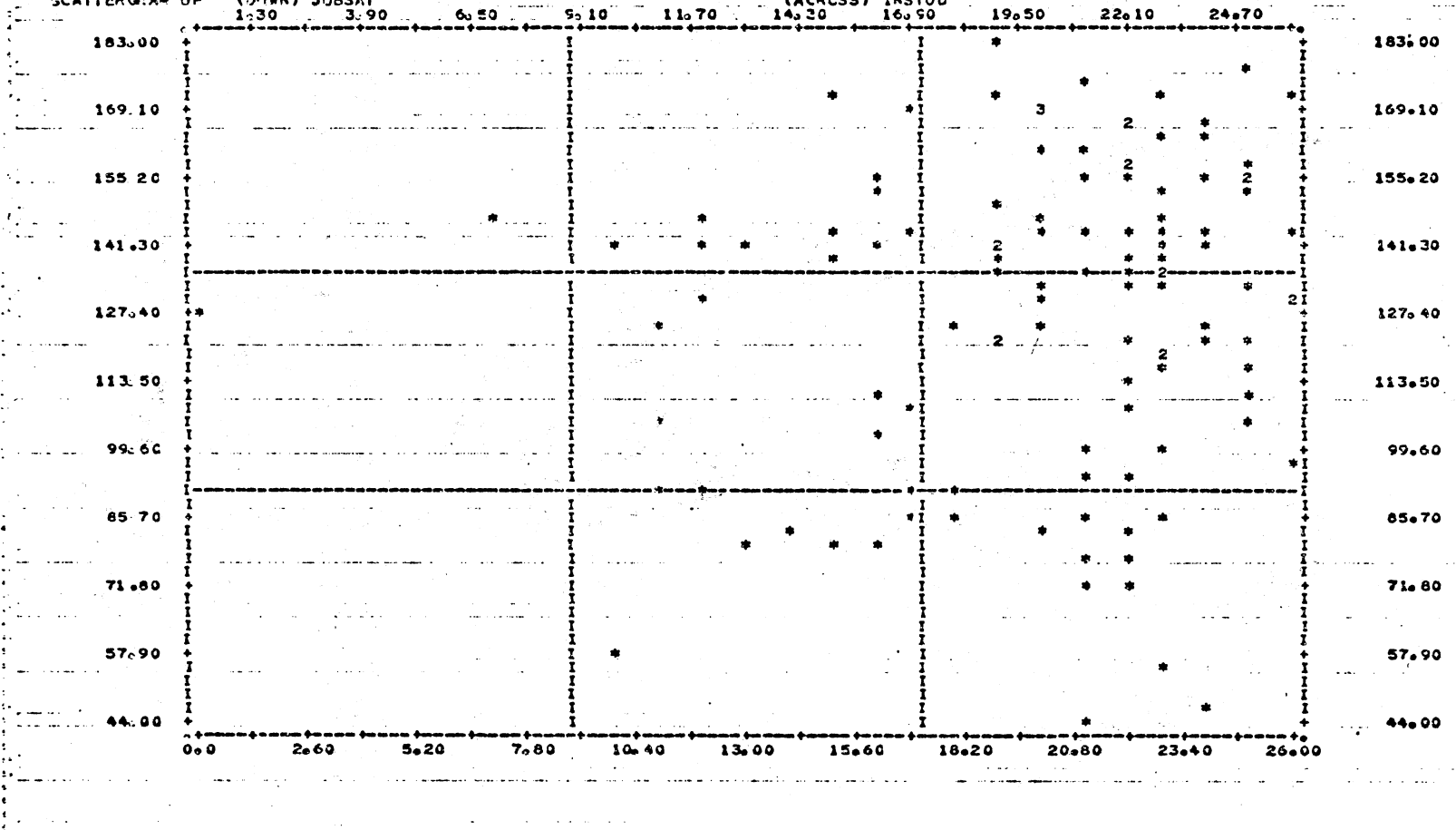
JOBSAT(down) = Job Satisfaction
 INFAC(across) = Interaction with Faculty Members in the Department

FILE NONAME (CREATION DATE = 05/23/79)

SCATTERGRAM OF

(DOWN) JOBSAT

(ACROSS) INSTUD

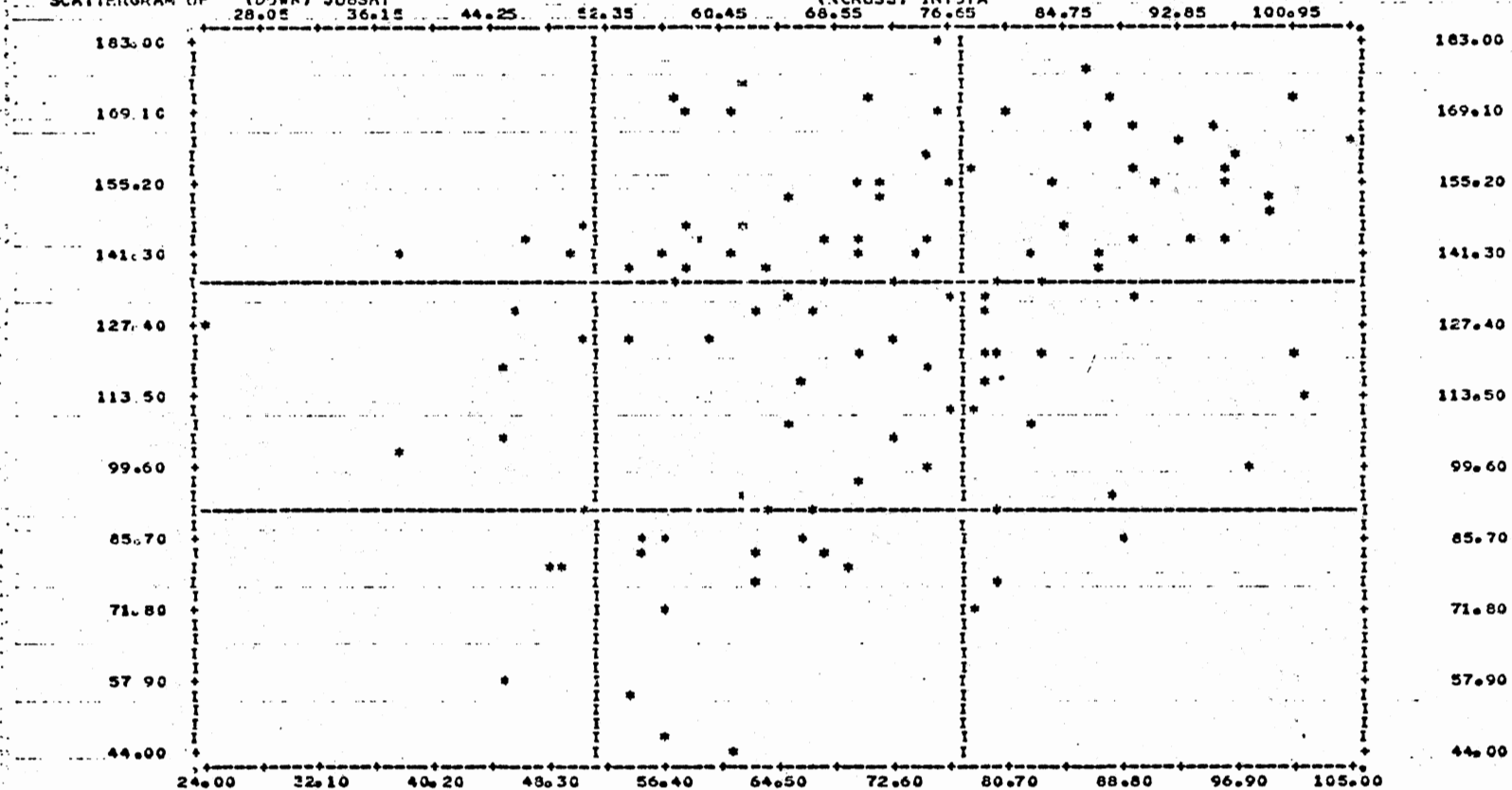


JOBSAT(down) = Job Satisfaction

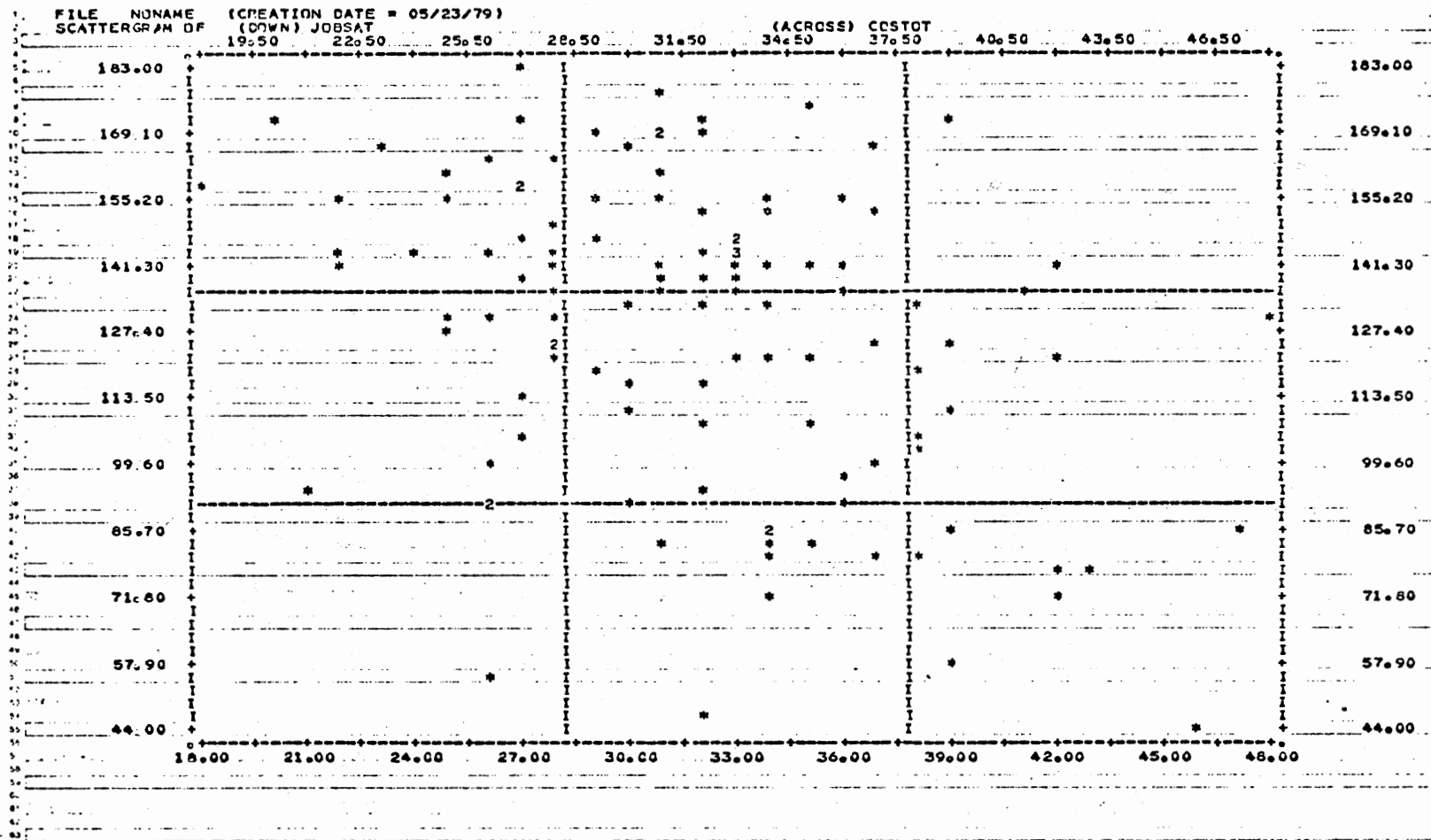
INSTUD(across) = Interaction with Students in the Department

FILE NCNAME (CREATION DATE = 05/23/79)
 SCATTERGRAM OF (DOWN) JOBSAT

(ACROSS) INTOTA



JOBSAT(down) = Job Satisfaction
 INTOTA(across) = Interaction with All Agents



JOBSAT(down) = Job Satisfaction
 COSTOT(across) = Cosmopolitan Orientation

VITA²

Thomas Allen Newton

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Thesis: AN INVESTIGATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND SOCIAL INTERACTION FOR PROFESSORS OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

Major Field: Higher Education

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Hays, Kansas, August 27, 1940, the son of Mr. and Mrs. L. L. Newton.

Education: Attended elementary school at Prairie Center near Wellington, Kansas, and at Natoma, Kansas; graduated from Stafford High School, Stafford, Kansas, in 1958; attended Wichita University in 1958-59; attended Pratt Junior College in 1960-61; received a Bachelor of Science in Education degree with a major in foreign languages from Emporia State University, Emporia, Kansas, in August, 1963; received a Master of Arts degree in English at Emporia State University, Emporia, Kansas, in August, 1973; completed requirements for the Doctor of Education degree at Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma, in December, 1979.

Professional Experience: Teacher of Spanish, Russian, and English at Southwestern Heights High School, Kismet, Kansas, 1963-67; teacher of freshman English, English literature, American literature, journalism, and creative writing at Cowley County Community College, Arkansas City, Kansas, 1968-76; graduate research assistant in the Department of Educational Administration and Higher Education at Oklahoma State University, 1977-78; graduate research associate in the Office of the Dean of the College of Education at Oklahoma State University, 1978-79.