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SCHOOL OF MUSIC

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to determine which of the following variables were significant predictors of work engagement among music education faculty: (a) supervisor support, (b) university support, (c) job-related stress, (d) salary satisfaction, (e) self-efficacy, (f) workplace relationships, and (g) workload satisfaction. Music education faculty ($N = 359$) representing a nationwide sample participated in the study. A simultaneous multiple regression analysis revealed the independent variables combined to account for 28.6% ($p < .001$) of the variance in work engagement. Furthermore, self-efficacy ($\beta = .25, p < .001$), supervisor support ($\beta = .18, p < .001$), university support ($\beta = .18, p < .005$), and workload satisfaction ($\beta = .13, p < .016$) were statistically significant predictors of work engagement.

Chapter 1: Introduction

Passion matters because it inspires us to be our best at what we do. Passionate faculty members who are engaged in their work can create a conducive learning environment, which maximizes the learning potential of their students. Additionally, faculty members who are engaged in their work are more active, approach-oriented, and determined despite the unpredictable and challenging conditions that may exist in their work environment. For instance, university music education faculty members can encounter an assortment of unpredictable and problematic circumstances in their work environment. These multifaceted difficulties can bring about anxiety, which may reduce the energy and passion they have for teaching. As such, how do music education faculty sustain the passion and drive that are prerequisites for engagement in teaching? The problem is complex, as a number of factors influence a faculty member's work engagement.

Work engagement portrays the magnitude to which employees are involved with, focused on, and are fervent about their work (Macey & Schneider, 2008). Furthermore, it involves, "the positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption" (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010; Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, & Bakker, 2002, p. 74). While the study of work engagement (Kahn, 1990) has a relatively brief history, numerous difficulties may impede the work engagement levels of music education faculty. As such, specific research in this area seems warranted. One way to investigate this phenomenon is to explore the possible variables that may enhance the work engagement of music

education faculty. Such an investigation may raise awareness among the academic community and help lead to a better understanding of this problem.

Workplace Burnout

Prior to the study of work engagement, researchers studied the issue of burnout. Burnout initially materialized as a societal problem, when Fredenberger (1974) used the expression to describe victims prone to illicit drug use (Schaufeli, Leiter, & Maslach, 2009). From that point, the concept of job-related burnout developed in the late 1970s, when Fredenberger used the term to describe the emotionally drained and unmotivated volunteer workers of the St. Mark's Free Clinic in New York. Job-related burnout has driven researchers to study the topic further in order to better comprehend what it is and why it happens.

By the early 1980s, it was acknowledged that workers representing many professions were experiencing burnout (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996). By this time, the term was characterized as “a psychological syndrome in response to chronic interpersonal stressors on the job. The three key dimensions of this response are an overwhelming exhaustion, feelings of cynicism and detachment from the job, and a sense of ineffectiveness and lack of accomplishment” (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001, p. 399). According to Maslach and Leiter (2008), the workforce they studied was suffering workplace burnout in rampant proportions. Occupational burnout went on to become a “people-oriented” job phenomenon and was considered exclusive to the realm of service occupations such as health care, education, and other jobs with high face-to-face contact (Maslach & Leiter, 1997).

Moving into the twenty-first century, the “medicalization” of burnout was interlaced with arguments concerning whether burnout should simply be considered a symptom of fatigue (Maslach et al., 1996). Maslach et al., (1996) expressed this “fatigue-only” view using a three-dimensional description of exhaustion, cynicism, and inefficacy. Subsequently, Maslach and Jackson (1981) created the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) to measure these symptoms. The MBI was originally designed as a tool for evaluating burnout in the social service profession. From that point forward, the measure was expanded to incorporate numerous occupations. The MBI went on to become most widely used measure in the field of burnout (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998).

In the mid-1990s, Maslach and Leiter (1997) reconsidered their general characterization of burnout and changed it to “the index of the dislocation between what people are and what they have to do” (p. 23). They believed that burnout represented an “erosion in one’s value, dignity, spirit, and will: an erosion of the human soul. It is a malady that spreads gradually and continuously over time, putting people into a downward spiral from which it’s hard to recover” (p. 23). The revised Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) measures burnout levels using the following criteria:

- Emotional Exhaustion: Feelings of being emotionally overextended and exhausted by one's work,
- Depersonalization: Unfeeling and impersonal response toward recipients of one's service, care treatment, or instruction,
- Personal Accomplishment: Feelings of competence and successful achievement in one's work.

The specific association between the positive mental state of work engagement and the negative mental state of burnout received expanded consideration from the research profession. Subsequently, Maslach and Leiter (1997) debunked a common myth, which promoted the belief if workers who suffer job burnout are merely accountable for their fatigue, anger, and apathetic attitude. Moreover, they indicated individual stress management isn't enough. Solutions to burnout often fall on the shoulders of the entire organization.

From Burnout to Work Engagement

Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000) stated, “We believe that a psychology of positive human functioning will arise that achieved a scientific understanding and effective interventions to build thriving individuals, families, and communities” (p. 12). The field of positive psychology focuses on cultivating positivism and enhancing individuals' strengths and virtues. According to Sulaiman and Zahoni (2016), there is a broader acceptance among researchers and psychologists, which rose with the onset of the “positive psychology” movement. Proponents of this new movement shed new light on the area of Occupational Health Psychology (OHP). Their influence was significant, as the field of OHP historically targeted the examination and understanding of risk factors within the workplace such as burnout, mental health, and disease. As a result of the positive psychology movement, the focus of the research transitioned from burnout to work engagement. Work engagement was initially described as a concept that refers to the physical, cognitive, and emotional investment on work performance (Kahn, 1990). In addition, previous research has indicated a link may exist between burnout and work engagement (Maslach and Leiter, 2008), although Schefeli et al., (2000)

indicated burnout and work engagement are contrasting models that should be measured independently.

Bakker and Demerouti (2007) created the Job Demands Resources (JD-R), which is an effective instrument used to measure work engagement. The authors argued on the assumption that each occupation may have its own particular danger components connected with job stress. These components can be classified into the general categories of job demands and job resources. Both components can influence work engagement and overall work performance. According to Bakker & Demerouti (2006), there is observed confirmation indicating the combination of high job demands and low job control can be a significant predictor of psychological strain and illness. Furthermore, Bakker et al., (2005) indicated that job resources might buffer the influence of job demands on stress-responses.

The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) was developed to measure the constructs of vigor, dedication, and absorption, which according to Schaufeli et al. (2002), are directly related to work engagement. Since its inception in 1999, numerous studies have been conducted using the UWES. According to Schaufeli & Bakker (2004), the UWES is used to reveal associations between burnout and workaholism. Furthermore, the UWES verifies that, “work engagement may be conceived as the positive antipode of burnout” (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006). To date, the UWES is the most accepted measure for addressing work engagement (Fong & Ng, 2011; Schaufeli et al., 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Sulaiman & Zahoni, 2016). For this cause, the current study utilized the UWES to measure the dependent variable of work engagement.

Variables Affecting Faculty Work Engagement

While previous research has indicated a variety of factors can affect work engagement, no research has been conducted to examine variables that may be significant predictors of work engagement among university music education faculty. As such, the remainder of this chapter will discuss the following variables as possible predictors of work engagement: (a) supervisor support, (b) university support, (c) job-related stress, (d) salary satisfaction, (e) self-efficacy, (f) workplace relationships, and (g) workload satisfaction.

Institutional Support

Institutional support plays an important role in influencing a faculty member's work engagement. Such support may be presented in many different facets, which includes support from administrators, colleagues, and other members of the higher education community. Several studies have demonstrated positive connections between supervisor support and job satisfaction (Hoyt, 2007; Johnsrud & Heck, 1998; Welsh & Metcalf, 2003). Previous research has also indicated a relationship between work engagement and support does exist. Choi (2006) found that charismatic leadership is comprised of the following components: (a) envisioning, (b) empathy, and (c) empowerment. These key components stimulate the requirements for achievement, affiliation, and control. For example, the motivational components of charismatic leadership can act to improve employees' (a) role perceptions, (b) task performance, (c) job satisfaction, (d) sense of collective identity, (e) group cohesiveness, (f) organizational citizenship behavior, and (g) self-leadership.

Boyer, Altbach, and Whitelaw, (1994) reported a striking connection between faculty and administrators when it came to dissatisfaction within their institutions. Their report examined the results of an international study, which utilized a sample of approximately 1,000 higher education faculty from the United States, Germany, the Netherlands, Russia, Sweden, United Kingdom, Hong Kong, Japan, Korea, Brazil, Chile, Mexico, Israel, and Australia. Faculty who were unsatisfied often viewed their administrators as incompetent leaders who lacked effective communication skills. In addition, (a) 45% agreed that communication among faculty and administration was poor, (b) 58% perceived their administration was often autocratic, and (c) 39% believed that top-level administrators were providing competent leadership.

The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), which was created by Spector (1985), is a measure used to evaluate the nine dimensions of job satisfaction. The JSS is a well-established instrument (Liu, C., Borg, I., & Spector, P, 2004; Spector, 1985 & 1997), and it is interesting to note that employees could be satisfied with their job without being engaged in their work (Spector, 1985). In other words, job satisfaction can meet minimum accepted criteria needed for some employees, but according to Markos & Sridevi (2010), an engaged worker can often exhibit high levels of retention, productivity, and satisfaction. Accordingly, an engaged worker is deeply involved and invested in his or her work. With that said, the JSS lacked statements that measure the factors of institutional support and workload satisfaction, which does not make it applicable for the measurement of these two variables. Rather, institutional support was measured using the Institutional Support for Faculty Teaching Scale (ISFTS). The ISFTS was designed by the researcher to measure supervisor support and university

support. The author created a number of possible statements and then shared the statements with numerous colleagues (e.g., college deans, liberal arts, school of music, and psychology faculty) to solicit their input for improvement.

Job-Related Stress

Stress is an omnipresent part of life. Padula, Chiavegato, Cabral, Almeida, Ortiz, and Carregaro, (2012) have defined stress as a reaction to a stimulus that interrupts our physical and/or mental stability. According to Millem, Berger, and Dey (2000), studies have shown the pressure of financial constraints has challenged many universities, particularly public institutions. In response, the American Association of University Professors (AAUP) stated, “the goal of every institution should be to create an academic community in which all members are treated equitably, families are supported, and family-care concerns are regarded as legitimate and important” (AAUP, 2001, p. 8). In response to the statement from the AAUP, Hendel, and Horn (2008) commented, “The institutionalization of such policies may permit a less stressful attainment of the ever-elusive ‘balance’ between work and family” (Hendel & Horn, p. 63).

Rothman (2008) found that work engagement shares significant relationships among the following variables: (a) degree of wellbeing (i.e., job satisfaction), (b) work related stress, and (c) burnout. As indicated by Hendel and Horn (2008), it has yet to be observationally proven that stressors in the workforce have been changed by nature or force amid the most recent decade of the twentieth century. According to Scheib (2003), the stress encountered by a music educator can be divided into role conflict, role ambiguity, role overload, underutilization of skill sets, and recourse inadequacy. While

role ambiguity and nonparticipation difficulties were not of great concern, problems associated to role conflicts, role overloads, underutilization of skills, and resource inadequacy were considerable. Because each program or school has its own limitations and possibilities, Scheib indicated further research is needed to explore these issues.

Several researchers have confirmed the connection between stress and health (Cohen, Tyrrell, and Smith, 1993; Dougall and Baum, 2001; Otto, Church, & Craft, 2004; Song, Kenis, Gastel, Bosmans, Lin, Jong, & Maes, 1999), thus providing an understanding that stress plays a significant role in a person's wellbeing. Several stress scales have been utilized to measure this connection, and they include the (a) Life Event Scale (Holmes & Rahe, 1967), (b) Occupational Stress Indicator (Cooper & Payne, 1988) and (c) Higher Education Research Institute (HERI) Faculty Survey. In addition, the Perceived Stress Scale (PSS) was developed by Cohen (1994). The PSS is the most widely used psychological instrument for measuring the perception of stress (Ezzati, Jiang, Katz, Sliwinski, Zimmerman, & Lipton 2014; Jovanovic, & Gavrilov-Jerkovic, 2015; Roberti, Harrington, & Storch, 2006), and was used for the purpose of this study to measure the variable of job-related stress.

Salary Satisfaction

A possible solution for (a) low levels of work engagement, (b) low retention, (c) lack of support, and (d) a heavy workload may include salary increases. O'Neill et al., (2011) conducted a longitudinal study that included a sample of MBA graduates. They found that employees who exhibited a high positive affect (PA) often had higher salary expectations than other employees. In addition, the relationship between low salary and

frequent turnover in the 4 years following graduation was stronger among employees who exhibited higher PA. Lee and Lin (2014) found that:

- Salary satisfaction had a significant effect on psychological contract (referring to the unwritten set of expectations of the employment relationship contract).
- Psychological contract had a significant effect on job enthusiasm.
- Salary satisfaction had a significant effect on job enthusiasm.
- Psychological contract exhibited mediating effects between salary satisfaction and job enthusiasm.

Lee's results indicated the relationships among employees' salary satisfaction, psychological contract, and job enthusiasm were significant.

Schulze (2007) investigated job satisfaction among a sample of higher education faculty in South Africa. Results indicated that only 11.7% of the faculty members were satisfied with their salaries. Furthermore, 62.8% of the faculty members were dissatisfied with salaries paid by their institutions in comparison with others outside the higher education system. Conversely, Schulze indicated that 75.5% of the sample was satisfied with benefits received by their institution in comparison with others outside the higher education system (62.8%). As previously mentioned, the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) is a widely-accepted measure used to evaluate nine dimensions of job satisfaction (Liu, C., Borg, I., & Spector, P., 2004; Spector, 1985 & 1997). One of those dimensions involves salary. For the purpose of this study, the variable of salary satisfaction was measured using this particular subscale from the JSS (Spector, 1985).

Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy involves the strength of a person's own ability to complete tasks or reach goals (Bandura, 1997). Bandura originally presented the idea of self-efficacy as an evaluation of one's abilities to achieve a coveted level of performance. Bandura also suggested that a strong belief in one's ability provided an effective drive, which could affect one's inspiration to act. The exertion to attempt a specific task, or the diligence of that exertion, can be a powerful drive that influences one's motivation.

Bandura (1997) attested these beliefs were more powerful than one's actual capacities for the current workload, which might impact an individual's level of motivation, affective states, and activities. When incorporated as a variable for measurement, Chen, Gully, and Eden (2001) reported that workers with high self-efficacy would exhibit elevated levels of work engagement. In a more recent study, Shoji, Cieslak, Smoktunowicz, Rogala, Benight, Luszczynska (2015), reported that self-efficacy may function as a resource that counteracts negative consequences of strain. In addition, (a) self-efficacy could encourage recuperation from job stress (Hahn, Binnewies, Sonnentag, & Mojza, 2011), (b) self-efficacy beliefs were found to ease employees' adjustment to negative deviations within an organization (Jimmieson, Terry, & Callan, 2004), and (c) self-efficacy enhancing intervention reduced employees' strain (Unsworth & Mason, 2012).

Holzberger, Philipp, and Kunter (2013) examined the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and student perceptions of faculty effectiveness. The results of their analysis revealed "significant positive correlations between teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and both the teacher and the student ratings of instructional quality at both

measurement points (i.e. teacher ratings and student rating)” (Holzberger, et al., p. 779). Yu, et al., (2014), examined the effect of work stress on job burnout, by confirming the arbiter role of self-efficacy. The researchers found that both work stress and self-efficacy were significantly correlated with job burnout. The New General Self-Efficacy (NGSE) scale is the most widely accepted measure for self-efficacy (Chen et al., 2001; Sholz et al., 2002; Yu et al., 2014). According to Chen et al., their research has indicated the NGSE scale can substantially contribute to organizational theory, research, and practice. The NGSE scale was used to measure the variable of self-efficacy.

Workplace Relationships

Since the late 1970s, diverse investigations have been carried out to explore workplace relationships, which ranged from supervisor-subordinate dyads to informal workplace relationships (Fritz, 2014). Informal workplace relationships can affect a wide degree of assumptions for employees, which can be integrated into their job performance and professional development. Seibert, Kraimer, and Liden (2001) sought to incorporate the present conceptualizations of “social capital” as it related to professional achievement in order to establish the effects on career outcomes. As indicated by Coleman (1990), social capital is characterized as any trait of the social structure that creates value and enables the actions of the person within that social structure. Seibert et al., (2001) observed that social capital and various control variables (e.g. career satisfaction, salary, promotions, general management) combined to explain 36 percent of the variance in career satisfaction.

Venkataramani, Labianca, and Grosser (2012) found the more an individual defies negative relationships at work, the more vital his or her positive relationships will

influence their social contentment and connection. As such, it is critical to study both the positive and negative relationships as they connect together in order to provide an accurate view of the social reality of the workplace (Venkataramani, et al., 2012). Specific to the area of education, Amjad, Sabri, Ilyas, and Hameed (2015) collected data from a sample of teachers ($N = 500$) who taught in a private sector in Punjab, Pakistan. Results of their study concluded that, “workplace friendships significantly and positively affect task performance, contextual performance, and turnover intentions of Pakistani private sector university employees” (p. 316). A study by Srivalli & Vijayalakshmi (2015) attempted to understand the influence of interpersonal relationships and faculty workload on job satisfaction among faculty members of engineering colleges. Results indicated that interpersonal relationships shared a positive correlation with job satisfaction.

The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) was created to rate employee satisfaction, as past scales were not focused on that particular category. The JSS scale provides a total satisfaction score for an individual while also containing subscales that reflect distinct components of job satisfaction. One such subscale is workplace relationships. For the purpose of this study, the variable of workplace relationships was measured using this particular subscale from the JSS (Spector, 1985).

Workload Satisfaction

Faculty workload often incorporates classroom obligations, service, and research. According to Johnsrud and Heck (1998), faculty members often spend long hours at work, the reported average being 52 to 57 hours per week at public institutions (National Center for Education Statistic, 1991). Some faculty members take on

additional employment outside academia to supplement their income, which can often cause an unmanageable workload and/or an unsatisfied work-life balance. Krantz-Kent (2008) found that 17% of U.S. teachers needed to supplement their income while working during the school year. Excessive workloads can take a toll on faculty, and as a result, colleges and universities have initiated studies to improve our understanding of faculty and their workloads (Dahaher, Rahman, and Mamun, 2015; Dennison, 2012; Johnsrud & Heck, 1998; Hoyt 2012). A study by Srivalli & Vijayalakshmi (2015) examined the influence of interpersonal relationships and faculty workload on job satisfaction. Results indicated that workload is a statistically significant predictor of job satisfaction.

According to Danaher, Rahman, and Mamun (2015), it is now believed that job satisfaction among college professors is highly correlated with students' learning outcomes. Their study has added new evidence to the existing body of literature by examining the relationship between the socio-demographic characteristics of academics and their perceptions towards (over-) workload at the University of Southern Queensland (USQ) in Australia. Results indicated that socio-demographic factors were important determinants of faculty perceptions of workloads. It was also discovered that ethnicity and academic qualifications have a considerable influence on the academics' perceptions of (over-) workloads.

The variable of workload satisfaction was measured using a survey designed by the researcher, which is titled the Workload Satisfaction Scale (WSS). To establish content validity for the WSS, the author researched possible statements and shared these

statements with colleagues (e.g. college deans, liberal arts, school of music, and psychology faculty).

Need for the Study

Maughan (2013) found that support and self-efficacy were significant predictors of work engagement among a sample of elementary general music teachers. Given these results, a need exists to study work engagement on the collegiate level. Previous research indicates that the following variables may influence work engagement: (a) institutional support, (b) job-related stress, (c) salary satisfaction, (d) self-efficacy, (e) workplace relationships, and (f) workload satisfaction. Numerous forms of support as well as institutional support have appeared to influence work engagement (Choi, 2006; Hoyt 2012; Johnsrud & Heck, 1998; Tickle, et al., 2011; Welsh & Metcalf, 2003). Another variable that has appeared to influence work engagement is job-related stress ((Cohen, Tyrrell, & Smith, 1993; Cohen, Kamarck, & Mermelstein, 1983; Cooper & Payne, 1992; Dougall & Baum, 2001; Hendel & Horn, 2008; Holmes & Rahe, 1967; Millem, Berger, & Dey, 2000; Mostert & Rothmann, 2006; Otto et al., 2004; Padula et al., 2012; Pienaar & Rothman, 2003; Rothmann, 2008; Rothmann, Steyn & Mostert, 2005; Scheib, 2003; Smith, K. J., Emerson, D. J., 2014; Song et al., 1999).

Salary satisfaction is one possible variable that may have an impact on the work engagement of university music education faculty. Previous research has indicated that salary satisfaction may influence a workers' decision to stay or leave a profession (Lee & Lin 2014; O'Neill, Stanley, & O'Reilly, 2011; Schulze, 2007; Watson, Thompson, Meade 2007). Self-efficacy is an additional variable that can influence work engagement (Bandura, 1977; Bandura & Walters, 1963; Bosscher & Smith, 1998; Chen,

Gully & Eden, 2001; Hahn et. al., 2011; Holzberger, D., Philipp, A. & Kunter, M., 2013; Jimmieson, Terry & Callan, 2004; Lee & Bobko, 1994; Scherbaum Cohen-Charash, & Kern, 2006; Scholz, Gutiérrez Doña, Sud, & Schwarzer, 2002; Scholz, Gutiérrez Doña, Sud, & Schwarzer, 2002; Unsworth & Mason, 2012; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, and Schaufeli. 2009ab; Yu, Xiaobo, Pengyuan Wang, Xuesong Zhai, Hong Dai, and Qun Yang, 2014). Previous research has shown that workplace relationships can influence work engagement (Amjad, et al., 2015; Fritz, 2014; Seibert, Kraimmer, & Liden, 2001; Srivalli & Vijayalakshmi, 2015; Venkataramani, et al., 2013). Another variable that can influence faculty work engagement is workload satisfaction (Bakker, et al., 2007; Bakker, Schaufeli, et al., 2008; Danaher, et al., 2015; Hoyt, 2012; Johnsrud & Heck, 1998; Krantz-Kent, 2008; Srivalli & Vijayalakshmi, 2015).

Previous research has indicated that educators will have elevated levels of work engagement when certain variables such as support, self-efficacy, workplace relationships, and workload satisfaction are positive (Baker, et. al, 2007; Bakker, et. al., 2008; Baker & Xanthopoulou, 2009; Hanaysha, 2016; Morrison, Rudd, Picciano, & Nerad, 2010). Be that as it may, the majority of this research has been conducted outside the music profession. Therefore, a need exists to determine which of these variables best predict the work engagement levels of music education faculty.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine which of the following variables are significant predictors of work engagement among music education faculty: (a) supervisor support, (b) university support, (c) job-related stress, (d) salary satisfaction, (e) self-efficacy, (f) workplace relationships, and (g) workload satisfaction. The following research questions were presented for investigation.

Research Questions

1. What were the demographics as reported by the sample of music education faculty?
2. What were the interrelationships among the following variables: (a) supervisor support, (b) university support, (c) job-related stress, (d) salary satisfaction, (e) self-efficacy, (f) workplace relationships, and (g) workload satisfaction, and (h) work engagement?
3. Which of the following variables best predicted the work engagement of higher education music faculty: (a) supervisor support, (b) university support, (c) job-related stress, (d) salary satisfaction, (e) self-efficacy, (f) workplace relationships, and (g) workload satisfaction?

Definitions

- **Burnout:** “A psychological syndrome in response to chronic interpersonal stressors on the job. The three key dimensions of this response are an overwhelming exhaustion, feelings of cynicism and detachment from the job, and a sense of ineffectiveness and lack of accomplishment.” (Maslach et al., 2001, p. 399).

- **Institutional Support:** Day-to-day operational support of an organization.
- **Job-Related Stress:** The adverse reaction people have to excessive pressures or other types of demand placed on them at work.
- **Positive Psychology:** The study of the strengths and virtues that enable individuals, communities and organizations to thrive.
- **Resource Inadequacy:** Lacking the requisite qualities or resources to meet a task.
- **Role Ambiguity:** A lack of clarity about expected behavior from a job or position (Scheib, 2003).
- **Role Conflict:** Time you spend at work or school prevent you from spending time with your family (Scheib, 2003).
- **Role Overload:** Lack of balance or reasonableness in the number or extent of expectations from a job- or position-holder (Scheib, 2003).
- **Salary Satisfaction:** Amount of overall positive or negative affect that individuals have toward their pay (Miceli and Lane, 1991).
- **Self-Efficacy:** “People's beliefs about their capabilities to produce designated levels of performance that exercise influence over events that affect their lives” (Bandura, 1994, p. 71).
- **Underutilization of Skills:** a job that is insufficient in some important way for a worker, relative to a standard (Scheib, 2003).
- **Vigor:** characterized by high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the willingness to invest effort in one’s work, and persistence even in the face of difficulties.

- **Work Engagement:** a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption" (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010; Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, & Bakker, 2002, p. 74).
- **Workload Relationships:** Interpersonal relationships with important implications for the individuals in those relationships, and the organizations in which the relationships exist and develop. Workplace relationships directly affect a worker's ability to succeed.
- **Workload Satisfaction:** A faculty's work environment where tasks and responsibilities can be accomplished successfully with the time available.

Operational Definitions

- **Work Engagement** is operationally defined by the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES; Schaufeli et al., 2002).
- **Institutional Support** is operationally defined by the Institutional Support for Faculty Teaching Scale (ISFTS; Hanan 2016).
- **Salary Satisfaction and Workplace Relationships** are operationally defined by the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS; Spector, 1994).
- **Self-Efficacy** is operationally defined by the New General Self-Efficacy scale (NGSE) created by Chen, Gully, and Eden (2001).
- **Job-Related Stress** is operationally defined by the Perceived Stress Scale (PSS; Coehn, 1986).
- **Workload Satisfaction** is operationally defined by the Workload Satisfaction Scale (WSS; Hanan 2016).

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Research has shown that work engagement can be influenced by institutional support, job-related stress, salary satisfaction, self-efficacy, workplace relationships, and workload satisfaction. As such, the measurement of these variables to predict the work engagement of university music education faculty seems warranted. The ensuing literature review investigates the history of work engagement in addition to the abovementioned variables.

Work Engagement

Bakker and Demerouti (2008) defined work engagement as “a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption” (p. 209). In addition, previous studies (Abraham, 2012; Anitha, 2014; Echols, 2005) found that work engagement had a noteworthy outcome on employee efficiency. In order to enrich employee work engagement, managers should be aware of the abilities, experience, and talents of their employees (Echols, 2005). In the quickly evolving world of business, those in management acknowledge that highly engaged employees could increase the performance and productivity of the organization (Baker & Demerouti, 2008; Markos & Sridevi, 2010). According to Bakker (2011), elevating the components of work engagement (i.e., enthusiasm, diligence, and immersion at work) will allow for higher levels of job satisfaction. These components work together with the factors that enable a heightened work level.

As indicated by Bakker and Xanthopoulou (2009), employees who are engaged in their work possess four factors needed to create a heightened work level. First, engaged workers frequently display optimistic feelings that expand their good judgment

capacity. Second, engaged workers exhibit superior wellbeing, which empowers them to focus their abilities and vitality to the task at hand. Third, engaged workers are more likely to make their own particular individual and business resources (i.e., job crafting) applicable to their work environment. Job crafting is “a means of describing the ways in which employees utilize opportunities to customize their jobs by actively changing their tasks and interactions with others at work” (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2007, p. 1). Furthermore, an employee who is positively engaged in the workplace can influence other workers, thereby lifting the job productivity of their fellow employees (Bakker & Xanthopoulou, 2009).

The study of work engagement outside the United States, specifically the Netherlands, has led to a significant amount of research, which has demonstrated that efforts exhibited by employees engaged in their work are superior to non-engaged employees. Specifically, engaged workers (a) display progressive feelings, (b) experience better wellbeing, (c) generate their own employment assets, and (d) influence the work engagement levels of those around them (Bakker, 2011; Bakker & Xanthopoulou, 2009; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Such a reality is positive for the individuals in the workforce and the entire organization (Bakker, 2010).

Work engagement can be a priority for higher education administrators. Hanaysha (2016) collected data from administrative and academic staff at universities in northern Malaysia. Participants ($N = 870$) were given an online survey, which included a scale developed by Schaufeli and Bakker (2004). The scale was adopted and adapted from previous studies by Schaufeli and Bakker to better fit the context of their study. Additionally, employee productivity was measured using a design that was

applied in previous research (Lee & Brand, 2010; Tjosvold & Chen, 2008). Results indicated that vigor had a positive effect on employee productivity ($\beta = 0.192, t = 2.219, p < 0.05$). Results also indicated that dedication had statistically significant and positive effect on employee productivity ($\beta = 0.653, t = 2.806, p < 0.05$). Furthermore, the positive effect of absorption on employee productivity was supported ($\beta = 0.354, t\text{-value} = 4.565, p < 0.05$). Overall, employee engagement accounted for 33% of the overall variance in employee productivity.

Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) studied burnout and its positive antithesis, work engagement. The researchers analyzed data from four independent samples (total $N = 1698$). It was found that burnout and work engagement shared a negative correlation across all four samples, although a particularly strong and consistent relationship was reported between job resources (performance feedback and social support from colleagues) and work engagement. Additionally, it was discovered that work engagement mediated the relationship between job resources and turnover intention. The researchers recommended that different intervention strategies should be used when (a) burnout needs to be reduced or (b) work engagement needs to be enhanced. A practical implication from this study suggests that increased of job resources (participative management, social support, and team building) might lead to higher levels of work engagement.

Schaufeli et al. (2006) developed a short questionnaire to measure work engagement. Specifically, the researchers focused on measuring levels of vigor, dedication, and absorption. The researchers constructed a database of 27 studies that have been carried out between 1999 and 2003 and data were collected from 10 different

counties ($N = 14,521$). Results uncovered systematic differences between occupation group work engagement levels $F(7, 13644) = 78.30, p < .001$, dedication, $F(7, 13630) = 84.24, p < .001$, and absorption, $F(7, 13635) = 90.38, p < .001$. Strikingly, the highest levels of vigor, dedication, and absorption were found among educators ($M = 4.41$), ($M = 4.40$), and ($M = 3.70$). Furthermore, results indicated the initial 17-item UWES could be shortened to 9 items (UWES), as the results derived from the 9-item UWES correlated highly with the original 17-item UWES.

Fong and Ng (2011) explored the psychometric properties of the Chinese version of the UWES. A sample of service workers ($N = 992$) participated in the study. The majority of the sample (78.7%) included support staff, while the rest of the sample (21.3%) consisted of professional staff (e.g., social workers, nurses, and occupational therapists). Statistically significant differences were found across gender, age groups, and staff rank. Among the subgroups, support staff exhibited higher levels of engagement, vigor, dedication, and absorption when compared to the professional staff. In terms of reliability, Cronbach's alpha (.74 for vigor, .77 for dedication, .70 for absorption, and .88 for total scale) indicated the items comprising the measure were internally consistent.

Additionally, Sulaiman and Zahoni (2016) conducted a study using the UWES-J (Japanese version) to measure the work engagement among a sample ($N = 213$) of retail sales workers. The correlation between work engagement and job meaningfulness showed a significant and positive relationship ($r = .828, p < 0.01$), while the relationship between work engagement and turnover intention was negative, ($r = .657, p < 0.01$). To date, the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) is the most accepted measure for

addressing work engagement (Fong & Ng, 2011; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Schaufeli et al., 2006; Sulaiman & Zahoni, 2016). This study focused on work engagement, and given results of the previous research, it was warranted to measure this variable using the UWES.

Institutional Support

One challenge often facing colleges and universities is the supportive relationships between faculty and administrators. Numerous studies have shown positive relationships between supervisor support and job satisfaction (Hoyt, 2012; Johnsrud and Heck, 1998; Welsh & Metcalf, 2003). The Pew Higher Education Research Group (1996) proposed the separation and division among faculty and administrators at universities of numerous types has debilitated their capacity to work cooperatively. According to Welsh & Metcalf (2003), administrators can spend more time with external stakeholders than with faculty. Subsequently, administrators may likely open themselves to outside influence.

According to Welsh and Metcalf (2003), academic administrators are wedged between social burdens for change and their faculties' desire to maintain the institutional policies in the structure with which they are familiar. In what often appears to be a sharp differentiation with their faculty, administrators are likely to trust the institution they serve encompasses a core of outside powers that greatly influence the sustained vitality of the foundation. Furthermore, it was found that faculty might often hold trepidations about the capability of administrators to actually implement effective workplace strategies.

Johnsrud and Heck (1998) conducted a longitudinal study to test intuitional support as it relates to work life, which can encompass work engagement. The target population consisted of probationary tenure-track faculty hired at the assistant or associate level at a major public research university in the western United States. The study was carried out over an eight-year period from 1987 to 1994. Data were examined from three groups of probationary faculty. For each group, the data were collected three or four years after faculty members' initial date of employment. Participants in all three groups responded to a questionnaire, which was designed to measure the experiences of faculty members working toward tenure in research universities. The questionnaire consisted of 96 items that describe a variety of personal, organizational, professional, economic, and social issues about the academy. The variables measured in this study consisted of professional priorities, institutional support, and quality of life. Results indicated that faculty within the first sample (1987 and 1998) exhibited the most negative responses across all three worklife constructs. Faculty within the second sample (1989 and 1990) perceived significantly fewer quality-of-life problems (e.g. isolation and economic problems). Faculty in the third sample (early 1990s) perceived considerable fewer problems with institutional support.

Boyer et al. (1994), studied an international sample of college and university professors. The report revealed that faculty exhibited an overall lack of confidence towards their administrators. Of the U.S. faculty responding to the survey, (a) 45% agreed that interaction between the faculty and the administration was poor, (b) 58% agreed their administrators often possessed autocratic tendencies, and (c) only 39% agreed that top-level administrators provided competent leadership. Further evidence

revealed that faculty had the most confidence in the strength of the leaders closest to them (e.g., department chairs). The strength of chair and departmental relations has been shown to be critically important to the success and retention of faculty. The confidence of the faculty lessened as the distance between themselves and their leader's increases (e.g., deans, senior administrators, presidents, board members).

Hoyt (2012) found that satisfaction with faculty support was a significant predictor of loyalty among a sample of adjunct faculty. Participants ($N = 676$) completed an online survey, and the results indicated the following variables were statistically significant predictors of faculty satisfaction: (a) classroom facilities, (b) collaborative research, (c) heavy teaching load, (d) honorarium, (e) support, (f) teaching schedule, and (g) work preference.

Welsh & Metcalf (2003) set out to determine if there were substantial variances among administrators and faculty regarding their positions concerning the importance of institutional effectiveness activities. Participants ($N = 680$) included 396 faculty members and 294 academic administrators. Results of a 2-tailed independent samples t -test revealed that a significant difference existed between the opinions of administrators and faculty regarding institutional effectiveness, $t(582) = -7.00, p < 0.001$.

Institutional support was measured using a survey designed by the researcher to measure supervisor support and university support, which is titled the Institutional Support for Faculty Teaching Scale (ISFTS). The author researched possible statements and shared the statements created for the ISFTS with colleagues consisting of numerous higher education faculty (e.g. college deans, liberal arts, school of music, and psychology faculty) to solicit their input for improvement.

Job-Related Stress

Based on previous descriptions of occupational stress (Beehr, 1987; Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, & Snoek, 1964), Scheib (2003) created a list of six role stressors (a) role conflict, (b) role ambiguity, (c) role overload, (d) underutilization of skills, (e) resource inadequacy, and (f) nonparticipation. Scheib utilized these role stressors to examine a sample ($N = 4$) of secondary music faculty who served in public education. Data were gathered and documented from observations, interviews, and documented analysis. When analyzing the results, Scheib remarked, “While role ambiguity and nonparticipation issues were not of great concern among the participants, issues related to role conflicts, role overloads, underutilization of skills, and resource inadequacy were substantial” (p. 124). The results suggest further research is needed to investigate the significant issues to help circumvent stress among music faculty.

Previous research examined a sample of police officers in South Africa to test frameworks relating to job satisfaction, occupational stress, burnout, and work engagement (Mostert & Rothmann, 2006; Pienaar & Rothman, 2003; Rothman, 2008; Rothmann, Steyn & Mostert, 2005). Rothman (2008) studied the relationships among employee wellbeing (i.e. job satisfaction) in the workplace, occupational stress, burnout, and work engagement. Results indicate that job stress was significantly related to exhaustion and cynicism ($p < 0,01$).

Pienaar and Rothmann (2003) administered the Police Stress Inventory (PSI) to a sample of Police officers. The survey consists of 28 statements related to occupational stress. Each statement was aligned with a scale that ranged from 1 (*low*) to 9 (*high*). Results of a factor analysis isolated two stress related factors: (a) Job

Demands ($\alpha = 0.92$), and (b) Lack of Job Resources ($\alpha = 0.92$). Results further indicated that Lack of Support shared (a) positive relationships with Exhaustion and Cynicism and (b) a negative relationship with Vigor and Dedication.

Padula et al. (2012) postulated that occupational stress is connected with dissatisfaction and excessive demands at work. According to the researchers, these factors can (a) decrease work performance and (b) predispose employees to various diseases. An employee's health might be protected if there is encouragement to face challenges, which may diminish the effect on psychological and psychosomatic stress. The researchers examined the relationship between occupational stress and work engagement. Participants ($N = 457$), who were employees of a metallurgical industry, completed (a) a personal data survey, (b) the Job Stress Scale, and (c) the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale. Results indicated a significant negative association between occupational stress and work engagement ($p = 0.001$). It was further determined the manner in which an individual dealt with frustration is associated with occupational stress.

Occupational stress can have a negative effect on faculty retention. However, Hendel and Horn (2008) reported that stressors for faculty have changed by nature, and the intensity of these stressors has yet to be observationally validated. One such measure that can report stress levels of faculty is the Higher Education Research Institute (HERI) Faculty Survey, which was developed at the Higher Education Research Institute (HERI) at the University of California-Los Angeles. The survey was first administered in 1989-90 (Hendel & Horn, 2008). Since then, more than 1,100 two- and four-year organizations have utilized the results from this study to examine

personnel practices, values, and needs with institutional achievement (Astin, 1991; Sax, 1996; Sax, 2002; Sax, Astin, Korn, & Gilmartin, 1999). The HERI Faculty Survey incorporates topics such as pedagogical practices, faculty goals and student expectations, research and service activities, stress and satisfaction, and the association between learning in the classroom and practices in the local and global community. As such, it would be advantageous to utilize this instrument, which captures the essence of stress, for the use in future research.

Smith and Emerson (2014) reported that over the last few decades, researchers and experts have demonstrated a developing enthusiasm for comprehending the nature of stress in the workplace. There is significant evidence connecting stress with several health problems (Cohen, Tyrrell, & Smith, 1993; Dougall & Baum, 2001; Otto et al., 2007; Song et al., 1999), prompting an agreement that stress plays a significant role in a person's wellbeing. Other stress scales such as the Life Event Scale (Holmes & Rahe, 1967) and the Occupational Stress Indicator (Cooper & Payne, 1992) are restricted to specific conditions. As such, they are deficient as a general perceived scale, which limit their use with certain groups (Smith, & Emerson, 2014).

In the early 1980s, Cohen, Kamarck, and Mermelstein (1983) established the Perceived Stress Scale (PSS) as a “means to measure the degree to which situations in one's life are appraised as stressful” (p. 385). The PSS is a self-reported measure designed to determine to what degree, and to which circumstances in a person's life, are assessed as stressful. It was initially created as a 14-item measure that utilized a five-point Likert-type scale. By the late 1980s, the authors believed a 10-item version (PSS-

10) demonstrated greater psychometric characteristics in contrast to the original 14-item scale (Cohen, Sloan, & Williamson, 1988).

Smith and Emerson (2014) examined (a) the factor structure of the Perceived Stress Scale-10 (PSS10; Cohen, Sloan, & Williamson, 1988), (b) the variability of its factor structure, (c) the reliability of the scale, and (d) its convergent and divergent validity with specialized staff from seven civic accounting partnerships ($N = 305$). Smith and Emerson's analyses support a structure with two essential variables (i.e., General Distress and Ability-to-Cope) that rely on a secondary component (i.e., Perceived Stress). These results provide substantial confirmation to support the PSS10 as a perceived stress measure.

Ezzati et al. (2014) administered the PSS among a sample of older adults. The sample ($N = 768$) was categorized into two groups. One group of adults was considered to be normal and the second group was considered to be Mild Cognitive Impaired (MCI). The MCI group was classified based on a comprehensive review of cognitive test results, applicable neurological traits and indications, and functional status. Results of the study indicated depression was positively associated with total stress score ($r = 0.39, p < 0.001$). Additionally, the items comprising the PSS were internally consistent, ($\alpha = 0.82$).

Jovanovic and Gavrilov-Jerkovic (2015) administered a Serbian version of the PSS-10 to a sample ($N = 560$), which consisted of psychiatric outpatients ($n = 157$), adults from a non-clinical population ($n = 165$), and university students ($n = 238$). Results of an ANOVA were significant $F(2, 602) = 62.68, p < .001, \eta^2 = .17$. Follow up tests found no significant difference between students and the non-clinical adult

sample, but results did indicate women scored significantly higher than men on the Negative subscale within the student sample (Cohen's $d = .30$) and the non-clinical adult sample (Cohen's $d = .31$). In addition, the internal consistency of the PSS was found to be adequate across all three samples ($\alpha \geq .70$), although the reliability coefficient for the Positive subscale among the female students was .69.

Roberti, Harrington, and Storch (2006) administered the PSS among a sample ($N = 285$) of undergraduate college students. Results of the study indicated no significant correlations existed between men and women when convergent and divergent validity were evaluated separately by gender. Additionally, the researchers found the items comprising the PSS-10 were internally consistent ($\alpha = 0.89$).

The PSS, which measures the perception of stress, is a widely-used instrument in the area of psychological research (Ezzati, et al., 2014; Jovanovic, & Gavrilov-Jerkovic, 2015; Roberti, Harrington, & Storch, 2006). Given the results of the previous research, and the proven reliability of the PSS-10, it was warranted to utilize this instrument in this study to measure the variable of work-related stress.

Salary Satisfaction

Salary increases are often offered as a possible solution to compensate for work-related stress, lack of support, and a substantial workload. It is crucial that human resource management regard employees' salary as a high priority. They also need to consider that employers should match the employees' qualifications with a satisfactory salary (Lee & Lin, 2014). According to the AAUP Salary Survey, salaries of college and university professors at all ranks rose 3.0% in 1996 and 1997 (Chronicle of Higher Education, 1997). However, this increase failed to keep up with the rate of inflation,

which was 3.3% in 1996. While salary alone does not act as a long-term motivator (Moore and Amey, 1993), faculty members often perceive their salaries are not on par with other professions. This realization can have a great impact on how a faculty member perceives his or her quality of life.

A study by O'Neil, Stanley, and O'Reilly (2011) examined a sample of MBA graduates in a longitudinal investigation to determine (a) why employees who exhibit high trait positive affect (PA) sometimes display higher rates of turnover and (b) the consequences of frequent turnover in relation to long-term satisfaction. PA "reflects the way basic emotions are experienced and expressed, and serves as a backdrop to all life experiences" (p. 600). The study took place in 1987 and 1988 when respondents were enrolled in their first year of a 2-year MBA program. Participants ($N = 105$) were asked to report the salary they expected to earn at the highest point in their careers as well as their satisfaction with their current jobs. O'Neil et al., conducted a regression analysis to determine if PA was a significant predictor of salary expectations. The overall equation was significant ($F(2, 88) = 6.57, p < .01$). In addition, PA was a statistically significant predictor of salary expectations.

Lee & Lin (2014) investigated the relationships among salary satisfaction, psychological contract, and job enthusiasm. Participants ($N = 254$) were employees in regular (not specified) companies in China. Results revealed a significant correlation ($p < .001$) between salary satisfaction and psychological contract.

A study by Schulze (2007) investigated job satisfaction among higher education faculty in South Africa. Participants ($N = 94$) were surveyed on nine basic job elements (a) teaching, (b) research, (c) community service, (d) administration and own

management, (e) compensation and job security (f) promotions, (g) management and leadership, (h) co-workers' behavior and physical conditions and (i) support facilities. Regarding salary, only 11.7% of the sample reported to be satisfied with their salaries and nearly two thirds (62.8%) were dissatisfied with salaries paid by their institution in comparison with others outside the higher education system.

While developing the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), Spector (1985) collected data from 19 separate samples ($N = 3,067$). Participants were representatives of human service, public, and nonprofit sector organizations. Results showed that salary satisfaction was significantly related to pay and operating procedures ($p < .01$). Additional results indicated the internal consistency of the JSS was adequate ($\alpha = 0.75$).

Watson, Thompson, Meade (2007) compared the measurement properties of the JSS across two groups of workers within the same organization operating in different work contexts. The sample ($N = 1,511$), which included 312 administrative officers and 1,198 patrol officers from various agencies in the southeastern United States were measured on the eight facets of the JSS (a) Pay, (b) Promotion, (c) Supervision, (d) Fringe Benefits, (e) Operating Procedures, (f) Coworkers, (g) Nature of Work, and (h) Communication. Results of the study, as it relates to pay satisfaction indicated that administrative officers responded with a higher response option than that of patrol officers with equal satisfaction levels.

Liu, Borg, and Spector (2004) investigated the measurement equivalence of the German-JSS (GJSS) scales among different cultures. A sample ($N = 9,364$) of full-time employees representing a multinational corporation from 18 different countries was administered the GJSS via the corporate website. Data were collected during a 2-week

time interval in the year 2000. The researchers found the internal consistency of the GJSS to be adequate as it pertained to salary and job satisfaction.

According to Liu, et al., (2004) the GJSS has been tested extensively. Furthermore, the English version of the JSS (Spector, 1985) has served as a reasonable satisfaction scale for human service employees. Given the results of the previous studies and the proven reliability of the JSS, it was justified to measure the variable of salary satisfaction by the use of a subscale from the JSS.

Self-Efficacy

Bandura and Walters (1963) developed Social Learning Theory, which utilized observational learning and vicarious reinforcement. By the 1970s, Bandura felt as though there was one main component missing from not only the current studies of the day, but from his own Social Learning Theory. In 1977, he recognized the missing component was self-efficacy. According to Bandura, self-efficacy does not just relate to the governing of one's contemplations or actions to achieve certain objectives (i.e., particular self-efficacy). Relatively, self-efficacy can be measured as a universal variable that shows a person's view of their capacity to complete tasks in several different frameworks (i.e., general self-adequacy) (Chen, Gully, and Eden, 2001). People who exhibit high levels of self-efficacy can (a) recover from contrary occurrences and (b) manage those occurrences in a productive way (Bandura, 1997).

Bandura (1994) proposed that an individual's self-efficacy could be measured by four main sources of influence. The first main source of influence is past achievement. For example, easy success can cause an individual to be discouraged by failure, but if an individual can exhibit determination through adverse situations, then

the individual will emerge stronger. The second main source of influence involves the strengthening of self-efficacy through vicarious experiences provided by social models. Seeing similar individuals succeed by continuous determination raises an individual's convictions that they too have the capacities to achieve equivalent actions required to succeed. Social persuasion is the third source of influence, and can be achieved by strengthening an individual's belief to succeed. Individuals who are verbally persuaded to believe they have the abilities to master given activities are liable to prepare and sustain a more prominent effort. The fourth source of influence is a person's a physiological state, and involves one's ability to reduce anxiety and modify negative emotional tendencies. Physiological pointers of efficacy assume a particularly compelling part in the wellbeing of an individual.

Self-efficacy is often utilized as a variable in organizational research. According to Scherbaum, Cohen-Charash, and Kern (2006), "over the past 20 years, self-efficacy has become one of the most widely studied variables in the educational, psychological, and organizational sciences" (p. 1047). While general self-efficacy (GSE) pertains to the belief in one's competence to cope with a broad range of challenging or stressful demands, specific self-efficacy (SSE) is constrained to a particular task at hand (Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2001). SSE and GSE possess comparative systems, as both address an individual's convictions regarding his or her capacity to achieve anticipated results. However, they differ by measurement. While SSE includes an individual's apparent capacity to perform a specific task as it relates to their current psychological state, GSE incorporates an individual's lifetime experiences.

It is interesting to note that GSE has been criticized as a result of defective measurement (Bandura, 1997). According to Scherbaum et al. (2006), GSE is a situation-dependent competence belief, and its measurement can influence assumptions concerning its relationships with other variables (Lee & Bobko, 1994). Lee and Bobko agree with Scherbaum et al. in that the criticisms of this measurement are somewhat reasonable (Lee & Bobko, 1994).

Specifically, the proof of the dependability towards the reactions to the items GSE measures is not excessively convincing (Chen, Gully, and Eden, 2001). Researchers have started to confront this feedback by means of an improved scale (e.g., Bosscher and Smith, 1998; Chen et al., 2001; Scholz, Doña, Sud, and Schwarzer, 2002). This exploration has put GSE in a stronger psychometric position. The improved measure of GSE is the New General Self-Efficacy Scale (NGSE) (Chen et al., 2001) and was intended to encompass Wood and Bandura's (1989) meaning of GSE, "convictions in one's abilities to assemble the inspiration, subjective assets, and blueprints expected to meet given situational requests" (p. 408). The NGSE includes eight statements that are rated using a 5-point Likert-Type scale with the responses ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*.

General self-efficacy has been found to share a positive relationship with work engagement. A study by Xanthopoulou et al., (2009a) examined the longitudinal relationships between job resources, personal resources (self-efficacy), and work engagement. Xanthopoulou et al. concentrated on three detailed types of personal resources, which are self-efficacy, organizational-based self-esteem, and optimism. Participants ($N = 163$) included electricians and engineers, who were observed for

approximately a year and a half as part of their employee psychosocial risk assessment. Self-efficacy was measured using a 10-item Generalized Self-Efficacy Scale (Chen et al., 2001). Work engagement was measured by using a 9-item variant of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES; Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, and Bakker, 2002). Results suggest that employees who possess a strong sense of self-efficacy believed they were vital to their organization and would most likely encounter elevated amounts of work engagement.

Holzberger, Philipp, and Kunter (2013) examined a combined self-report measure of teacher self-efficacy with teacher and student scores of instructional effectiveness. Data were collected from a sample of German participants ($N = 155$) who taught secondary mathematics. Additionally, a sample of 3,483 students was utilized at 2 measurement points. Teachers' self-efficacy was assessed using a shortened, four-item version of the established Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale developed by Schwarzer, Schmitz, and Daytner (1999). This instrument was developed to measure teachers' self-efficacy in four major areas: (a) job performance; (b) skill development; (c) social interaction with students, parents, and colleagues; and (d) coping with job related stress. Teachers rated the items using a 4-point response scale ranging from 1 = *disagree* to 4 = *agree*. The Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) was used to measure instructional effectiveness. First implemented in 2000, the PISA is an international assessment that measures students' reading, mathematics, and science literacy every three years. Cross-sectional analyses revealed significant correlations among teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, teachers' ratings of instructional quality, and students' ratings of instructional quality. Specifically,

teachers with higher self-efficacy beliefs reported higher cognitive activation, better classroom management, and more individual learning support for students.

Yu, et al., (2014) examined the effect of work stress on job burnout in a study that mainly focused on confirming the arbiter role of self-efficacy. Data were collected while using the Perceived Stress Scale, General Self-Efficacy Scale, and Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey. Participants ($N = 387$) were a sample of middle school teachers. Results indicated that perceived stress was (a) positively correlated with job burnout, and (b) negatively correlated with self-efficacy. In addition, self-efficacy shared a negative correlation with job burnout. According to Yu, et al., the mediational model exhibited adequate fit with the data (RMSEA = 0.037; SRMR = 0.029; and CFI = 0.99). In addition, job stress had a large effect on job burnout through self-efficacy.

Researchers have advocated that the GSE provided high quality contributions to the previous literature. Regrettably, “the limited construct validity work conducted on commonly used GSE measures has highlighted such potential issues as low content validity and multidimensionality” (Chen et al., 2001). Compared to the aforementioned scales, Chen et al. argued the NGSE scale has higher content and predictive validity compared to the aforementioned scales. In addition, while the NGSE scale has fewer statements than the SGDE scale, the NGSE has demonstrated higher reliability. The variable of self-efficacy was measured using the NGSE, as it is the most widely used psychological instrument for measuring general self-efficacy (Chen et al., 2001; Hinkin, 1998; Eden et al., 2000; Yu, et al., 2014).

Workplace Relationships

Nowadays, employees tend to spend a large portion of their lives at the workplace. Accordingly, friendships among employees are often formed at work, and the study of workplace relationships is well established (Amjad, Sabri, Ilyas, & Hameed, 2015; Rydstedt, Head, Stansfield, & Wooley-Jones, 2012; Seibert, Kraimer, & Liden 2001; Venkatarmani, Giuseppe, Grosser, 2013). According to Amjad et al., (2015), workplace relationships have been the focus of considerable body of research during the last decade.

In a study conducted by Venkatarmani et al., (2013), a sample of participants ($N = 183$), who were employed at a food and animal safety manufacture in the Midwestern United States were surveyed using the three-item Social Relationship Satisfaction Scale (SRSS). Results indicated that employees' centrality (i.e., friendships) in positive networks were a significant predictor of social satisfaction ($b = .04, p < .01$). Results also indicated that employees' centrality in negative relationship networks would negatively their social satisfaction ($b = -.11, p < .01$). Furthermore, employees' social satisfaction was positively related to their organizational attachment ($b = .25, p < .01$).

A study conducted in the United Kingdom found (a) quality of social relationships at work, (b) mental health, and (c) self-reported health were independent of job strain (Rydstedt, Stansfield, & Wooley-Jones, 2012). Participants included ($N = 693$) employees of an independent (private) school and employees in selected work sectors ($N = 566$) of a county council. Cronbach's alpha indicated the 10 items comprising the work-related support measure were internally consistent ($\alpha = .80$). In addition, work-related social support shared a moderate correlation with workplace

relationships ($r = .64, p < .001$).

Amjad et al., (2015) studied the impact of workplace friendships (WPF) on (a) employee task and contextual performance, (b) job satisfaction (JS), and (c) turnover intentions (TI) at a university located in Punjab, Pakistan. Participants ($N = 470$) were employed at a private university in Lahore, which is considered the hub of the Higher Education Institutes of Pakistan. The researchers used a questionnaire that included (a) 4-items that measured workplace relationships (Bluedorn, 1982), (b) 4-items that measured turnover intention (Spector 1985), (c) 2-items that measured job satisfaction (Spector 1985), (d) 3-items that measured task performance (TP; Williams and Anderson 1991), (e) 4-items that measured contextual performance (CP; Van Scotter and Motowildo 1996), and (f) 8-items that measured organizational commitment, which was adopted from Meyer and Allen (1987). Results indicated significant effects were found between workplace friendship and (a) job satisfaction ($\beta = .302, t = 7.354, p < .001$), (b) turnover intentions ($\beta = .826, t = 33.852, p < .001$), (c) task performance ($\beta = .702, t = 22.797, p < .001$), and (d) contextual performance ($\beta = .333, t = 8.103, p < .001$).

A study by Srivalli & Vijayalakshmi (2015) was conducted to examine the influence of interpersonal relationships and faculty workload on job satisfaction among faculty members employed at engineering colleges in Nellore Dist, Andhra, Pradesh. Participants ($N = 120$) responded to items, which were related to interpersonal relationships, workload, and job satisfaction. All items were aligned with a 5-type Likert scale, which ranged from *strongly agree* to *strongly disagree*. Results of a correlation analysis revealed that interpersonal relationships shared a statistically

significant relationship with job satisfaction ($r = 0.48, p < .000$). In addition, interpersonal relationships explained 22% of variance in Job Satisfaction.

After vigorous testing and sampling, Spector (1985) found a strong relationship between Coworkers (relationships) and Communication. Results further indicated the internal consistency of the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), based on a sample of 2,870 participants, was found to be adequate ($\alpha = 0.60$ to 0.71). Watson et al. (2007) compared the measurement properties of the JSS across two groups of workers in the same organization operating in different work contexts. Results of the study, as it relates to workplace relationships and supervision, indicated a difference exists in the nature of supervisor-subordinate relationships between patrol officers and administrative officers. These results may be due to job contextual factors. Furthermore, the researchers found a low level of satisfaction among patrol officers compared to administrative officers with the scale item *Coworkers* which stated “there is too much bickering and fighting at work.” The results further indicated patrol officers at all levels of satisfaction were less tolerant of conflict between coworkers compared to those serving in administrative positions. The aforementioned reliability and robustness of the JSS and GJSS suggest the items contained within the scales are internally consistent. Given these results, it was justified to use a subscale from the JSS to measure the variable of workplace relationships.

Workload Satisfaction

Faculty members often take on additional employment outside academia to supplement their income, which can cause an unmanageable workload and/or an unsatisfied work-life balance. Krantz-Kent (2008) found that 17% of U.S. teachers

sought employment outside their current teaching assignment during the academic calendar. This differs from other occupations (e.g., health care, business and finance, architects and engineers) where only 12% of professionals seek additional employment outside of their work. According to Johnsrud & Heck (1998), faculty often spend long hours in the workplace. The reported average is between 52 and 57 hours at public institutions (National Center for Education Statistics, 1991).

Analyzing the job satisfaction among full-time faculty, Schuster and Finklestein (2006) noted a steady decline over a 30-year time span (i.e., 1969–1998) among faculty who were “very satisfied” with their job and a steady increase in faculty who were “somewhat/very dissatisfied” with their job. The researchers attributed this trend to increased workloads for faculty members and decreased academic support provided by their institutions.

Srivalli & Vijayalakshmi (2015) conducted a study to understand the influence of interpersonal relationships and faculty workload on job satisfaction. Results of a correlation analysis revealed that workload exhibited a negative relationship with job satisfaction ($r = -0.67, p < .01$). Furthermore, workload accounted for 43% of variance in job satisfaction ($R^2 = 0.43, p < .001$).

For the purpose of this study, the variable of workload satisfaction was measured using a survey designed by the researcher, which is titled the Workload Satisfaction Scale (WSS). To establish content validity for the WSS, the author researched possible statements and shared these statements with numerous higher education faculty members (e.g. college deans, liberal arts, school of music, and psychology faculty).

Summary of Related Research

It is clear from the examination of the previous literature that (a) supervisor support, (b) university support, (c) job-related stress, (d) salary satisfaction, (e) self-efficacy, (f) workplace relationships, and (g) workload satisfaction all influence work engagement. Hoyt (2012) found that support was a statistically significant predictor of faculty satisfaction. Rothman (2008) found that job stress was significantly related to exhaustion and cynicism. Schulze (2007) indicated that two thirds (62.8%) of higher education faculty were dissatisfied with salaries paid by their institutions in comparison with others outside academia. According to Xanthopoulou et al., (2009a), studies have shown that a high level of self-efficacy exhibited by a faculty may result in a high level of work engagement. In addition, Srivalli & Vijayalakshmi (2015) found that interpersonal relationships explained 22% of variance in job satisfaction and that workload accounted for 43% of variance in job satisfaction.

While the aforementioned research has created a wide-range of results, no current research has been conducted in which all these variables are employed to predict the work engagement of university music education faculty. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to determine which of the following variables best predict work engagement among higher education music education faculty: (a) supervisor support, (b) university support, (c) job-related stress, (d) salary satisfaction, (e) self-efficacy, (f) workplace relationships, and (g) workload satisfaction.

Chapter 3: Method

The purpose of this study was to determine which of the following variables best predict work engagement among higher education music education faculty: (a) supervisor support, (b) university support, (c) job-related stress, (d) salary satisfaction, (e) self-efficacy, (f) workplace relationships, and (g) workload satisfaction. Included in this section is a description of the instrumentation, participants, procedures, and analysis needed to carry out this study.

Instrumentation

Work Engagement

Work engagement levels were measured with the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES), which was developed by Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, and Bakker, (2002). The UWES (see Appendix A) measures vigor, dedication, and absorption, all of which contribute to an employee's overall work engagement levels. The UWES is the most frequently internationally used measure in studying work engagement (Bakker & Bal, 2010; Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti, & Xanthopoulou, 2007; Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006).

The UWES is comprised of 17 statements, which include, "I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose" and "My job inspires me." Participants rated their agreement to each statement using the following 7-point Likert-type scale: (1) *never*, (2) *almost never*, (3) *rarely*, (4) *sometimes*, (5) *often*, (6) *very often*, and (7) *always*. According to previous research, the three factors representing the UWES (vigor, dedication, and absorption) are highly correlated, ranging from .80 to .90. Consequently, Leiter and Bakker (2010) suggested utilization of the composite UWES

score as a wide-ranging indicator of work engagement. Past studies (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010; Schaufeli et al., 2002) have demonstrated the reliability coefficients surpassed .90, indicating the items contained within the UWES are internally consistent.

Institutional Support

The variable of institutional support (see Appendix B) was measured using a survey designed by the researcher, which is titled the Institutional Support for Faculty Teaching Scale (ISFTS). The ISFTS measured supervisor support and university support. Participants responded to a series of statements using the following 5-point Likert-type scale: (1) *strongly disagree*, (2) *disagree*, (3) *neutral*, (4) *agree*, and (5) *strongly agree*. Some examples included in the scale are, “My immediate supervisor (e.g., Chair, Director, Dean, etc.) understands the challenges associated with my job.” supports me.” and “My immediate supervisor (e.g., Chair, Director, Dean, etc.) understands the challenges associated with my job.” This measure was created based on the researcher’s personal experience and previous research. The author created a number of possible statements and then shared the statements with numerous colleagues (e.g., college deans, liberal arts, school of music, and psychology faculty) to solicit their input for improvement.

Job-Related Stress

The variable of job-related stress was measured using the Perceived Stress Scale (PSS) (see Appendix C), which was developed by Cohen (1986). The PSS is the most widely used psychological instrument to measure the perception of stress. Composite PSS scores are obtained by summing the response items. Participants responded to statements using the following 5-point Likert-type scale: (1) *never*, (2) *almost never*, (3)

sometimes, (4) *fairly often*, and (5) *very often*. The PSS is composed of 10 statements and some examples included in the adapted PSS scale are (a) “In the last month, how often have you been upset because of something that happened unexpectedly?” and (b) “In the last month, how often have you found that you could not cope with all the things that you had to do?” The PSS has emerged as the most popular measure of perceived stress (Ezzati, et al., 2014). It has been translated into 25 different languages (Jovanovic, & Gavrilov-Jerkovic, 2015), validated with diverse samples (Mitchell, Crane, & Kim, 2008), and used across a broad range of fields to answer empirical questions and guide clinical practice (e.g., Roberti, Harrington, & Storch, 2006).

Salary Satisfaction

The variable of salary satisfaction (See appendix D; Spector, 1985) was measured using a subscale from the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS). Participants rated the extent in which they personally agree or disagree with statements using the following 5-point Likert-type scale: (1) *strongly disagree*, (2) *disagree*, (3) *neutral*, (4) *agree*, and (5) *strongly agree*. The subscale JSS for salary utilizes 10 statements. Some examples include (a) “I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do” and (b) “I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.”

Self-Efficacy

The variable of self-efficacy was measured using the New General Self-Efficacy scale (NGSE) (see Appendix E; Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2001). Participants responded to a series of statements using the following 5-point Likert-type scale: (1) *strongly disagree*, (2) *disagree*, (3) *neutral*, (4) *agree*, and (5) *strongly agree*. Some examples of the statements included in the NGSE scale are, “When facing difficult tasks at my job, I

am certain that I will accomplish them” and “I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks at my job. According to research by Scherbaum, Cohen-Charash, and Kern (2006), Cronbach’s alpha for the NGSE ranged from .85 to .90, indicating the items comprising this measure were internally consistent.

Workplace Relationships

The variable of workplace relationships (see Appendix F) was also measured using a subscale questionnaire derived from the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS; Spector, 1985). Participants responded to statements using the following 5-point Likert-type scale: (1) *strongly disagree*, (2) *disagree*, (3) *neutral*, (4) *agree*, and (5) *strongly agree*. The adapted JSS is composed of 8 statements. Some examples include (a) “Communications seem good within this organization.” and (b) “I like the people I work with.”

Workload Satisfaction

The variable of workload satisfaction (see Appendix G) was measured using a survey also designed by the researcher, which is titled the Workload Satisfaction Scale (WSS). Participants rated the degree to which they personally agree or disagree to a series of statements using a 5-point Likert-type scale: (1) *strongly disagree*, (2) *disagree*, (3) *neutral*, (4) *agree*, and (5) *strongly agree*. Some examples include, “I am satisfied with my work-life balance” and “I have adequate time for planning, study, and research each week.” This measure was created based on the researcher’s personal experience and previous research. The author created a number of possible statements and then shared the statements with numerous colleagues (e.g., college deans, liberal arts, school of music, and psychology faculty) to solicit their input for improvement.

Reliability Analysis

For the main study, Cronbach's alpha was used to calculate the internal consistency for each measure (see Table 1). The internal reliability for the items comprising the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) had a reliability coefficient of .92. The Institutional Support for Faculty Teaching Scale (ISFTS): Supervisor Support had a reliability coefficient of .92. The Institutional Support for Faculty Teaching Scale (ISFTS): University Support had a reliability coefficient of .84. The Perceived Stress Scale (PSS) had a reliability coefficient of .87. The Job satisfaction – Salary Satisfaction had a reliability coefficient of .84. The New General Self-Efficacy Scale (NGSE) had a reliability coefficient of .88. The Job satisfaction – Workplace Relationships had a reliability coefficient of .81. The Workload Satisfaction Scale (WSS) had a reliability coefficient of .73. These results indicate the items for each measure were internally consistent.

Table 1

Reliability Coefficients

| Measure | α |
|---|----------|
| Utrecht Work Engagement Scale | .92 |
| Institutional Support for Faculty Teaching Scale | |
| Supervisor Support | .92 |
| University Support | .84 |
| Perceived Stress Scale | .87 |
| Job Satisfaction Survey – Salary Satisfaction | .84 |
| New General Self-Efficacy Scale | .88 |
| Job Satisfaction Survey – Workplace Relationships | .81 |
| Workload Satisfaction Scale | .73 |

Note. $N = 359$

Participants

During the Spring semester of 2017, a sample was solicited from a comprehensive email list of music education faculty representing all institutions accredited by the National Association of Schools of Music (NASM). A publically available database of email addresses listed on the NASM website were compiled into a master list for survey distribution ($N = 1,336$). The master list contained email addresses of faculty associated with teaching music education courses.

Procedures

Following the approval from the University of Oklahoma Institutional Review Board (IRB; see Appendix I), an email message was sent to each potential participant. In both the email invitation and the informed consent letter, participants were assured that all data will remain confidential, and their participation was voluntary. The informed consent letter (see Appendix J) served as the opening page to the online survey. Once a participant clicked on the survey link, respondents confirmed their informed consent to participate in the study.

The online survey remained available for several weeks. One week after the initial invitation was sent, a follow-up email was delivered as a reminder to those who have not yet participated. A third and final reminder was sent during the last week of the data collection process. In addition to completing the survey, participants were asked to provide the following demographic information (See Appendix H): (a) gender, (b) years of teaching experience, (c) type of institution (public or private), (d) current rank, (e) Carnegie classification (f) current salary range, and (g) state in which they teach. Surveys were administered via email using Qualtrics (Qualtrics, Provo, UT). Qualtrics is an online survey distribution service, which provides the researcher with (a) real-time results, (b) multiple custom reports, (b) filter and cross-tabulate responses by custom criteria, and (c) downloadable responses.

Data Analysis

Data was transferred from Qualtrics to the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) for analysis. Descriptive procedures were used to analyze the demographics as reported by the sample. A correlation analysis was conducted to

examine the interrelationships among the following variables: (a) supervisor support, (b) university support, (c) job-related stress, (d) salary satisfaction, (e) self-efficacy, (f) workplace relationships, (g) workload satisfaction, and (h) work engagement. A simultaneous multiple regression analysis was conducted to determine which of the following variables best predict the work engagement of higher education music faculty: (a) supervisor support, (b) university support, (c) job-related stress, (d) salary satisfaction, (e) self-efficacy, (f) workplace relationships, and (g) workload satisfaction.

Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this study was to determine which of the following variables were significant predictors of work engagement among music education faculty: (a) supervisor support, (b) university support, (c) job-related stress, (d) salary satisfaction, (e) self-efficacy, (f) workplace relationships, and (g) workload satisfaction. The following research questions were presented for investigation.

Research Questions

1. What were the demographics as reported by the sample of music education faculty?
2. What were the interrelationships among the following variables: (a) supervisor support, (b) university support, (c) job-related stress, (d) salary satisfaction, (e) self-efficacy, (f) workplace relationships, and (g) workload satisfaction, and (h) work engagement?
3. Which of the following variables best predicted the work engagement of higher education music faculty: (a) supervisor support, (b) university support, (c) job-related stress, (d) salary satisfaction, (e) self-efficacy, (f) workplace relationships, and (g) workload satisfaction?

First Research Questions

Participants' demographic information was analyzed to answer the first research question. Survey respondents ($N = 362$) included (a) 173 females (47.79%), (b) 184 males (50.83%), and (c) 1 gender variant/non-conforming participants (0.28%). Four participants (1.11%) preferred not to respond. Participants' representation by state can be found in Table 2.

Table 2

Participant Representation by State

| State | <i>n</i> | Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|----------------|----------|---------|-----------------------|
| Alabama | 10 | 2.8 | 2.8 |
| Arizona | 6 | 1.7 | 4.5 |
| Arkansas | 5 | 1.4 | 5.9 |
| California | 10 | 2.8 | 8.8 |
| Colorado | 11 | 3.1 | 11.9 |
| Connecticut | 1 | 0.3 | 12.1 |
| Florida | 14 | 3.9 | 16.1 |
| Georgia | 3 | 0.8 | 16.9 |
| Hawaii | 1 | 0.3 | 17.2 |
| Idaho | 1 | 0.3 | 17.5 |
| Illinois | 12 | 3.3 | 20.9 |
| Indiana | 10 | 2.8 | 23.7 |
| Iowa | 7 | 1.9 | 25.7 |
| Kansas | 5 | 1.4 | 27.1 |
| Kentucky | 5 | 1.4 | 28.5 |
| Louisiana | 7 | 1.9 | 30.5 |
| Maine | 1 | 0.3 | 30.8 |
| Maryland | 3 | 0.8 | 31.6 |
| Massachusetts | 3 | 0.8 | 32.5 |
| Michigan | 15 | 4.2 | 36.7 |
| Minnesota | 8 | 2.2 | 39.0 |
| Mississippi | 7 | 1.9 | 41.0 |
| Missouri | 9 | 2.5 | 43.5 |
| Nebraska | 1 | 0.3 | 43.8 |
| Nevada | 4 | 1.1 | 44.9 |
| New Hampshire | 1 | 0.3 | 45.2 |
| New Jersey | 2 | 0.6 | 45.8 |
| New Mexico | 4 | 1.1 | 46.9 |
| New York | 22 | 6.1 | 53.1 |
| North Carolina | 11 | 3.1 | 56.2 |

(continued)

Table 2, Continued

Participant Representation by State

| State | <i>n</i> | Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|----------------|----------|---------|-----------------------|
| North Dakota | 2 | 0.6 | 56.8 |
| Ohio | 19 | 5.3 | 62.1 |
| Oklahoma | 31 | 8.6 | 70.9 |
| Oregon | 1 | 0.3 | 71.2 |
| Pennsylvania | 18 | 5.0 | 76.3 |
| Rhode Island | 3 | 0.8 | 77.1 |
| South Carolina | 8 | 2.2 | 79.4 |
| South Dakota | 2 | 0.6 | 79.9 |
| Tennessee | 12 | 3.3 | 83.3 |
| Texas | 19 | 5.3 | 88.7 |
| Utah | 9 | 2.5 | 91.2 |
| Virginia | 13 | 3.6 | 94.9 |
| Washington | 3 | 0.8 | 95.8 |
| West Virginia | 3 | 0.8 | 96.6 |
| Wisconsin | 12 | 3.3 | 100.0 |
| Missing | 5 | 1.4 | |

Note. $N = 359$

Table 3 illustrates participants' teaching experience. Results indicated that nearly half the sample 49.6% ($n = 176$) had 1-15 years of experience in higher education and 9.6% ($n = 39$) of the sample had more than 30 years of experience.

Table 3

Participants' Years of Teaching Experience in Higher Education

| Years of Teaching Experience | Frequency | Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-----------------------------------|-----------|---------|--------------------|
| 1 - 5 years teaching experience | 68 | 19.2 | 19.2 |
| 6 - 10 years teaching experience | 77 | 21.8 | 41.0 |
| 11 - 15 years teaching experience | 60 | 16.9 | 58.0 |
| 16 - 20 years teaching experience | 50 | 14.1 | 72.0 |
| 21 - 25 years teaching experience | 40 | 11.3 | 83.3 |
| 26 - 30 years teaching experience | 25 | 7.1 | 90.4 |
| 31 - 35 years teaching experience | 19 | 5.4 | 95.8 |
| 36 - 40 years teaching experience | 7 | 2.0 | 97.7 |
| 41 + years teaching experience | 8 | 2.2 | 100.0 |
| Missing | 5 | | |

Note. $N = 354$

Table 4 provides the type of institution in which participants were employed. Data indicated that 75.1% ($n = 269$) of the sample taught at public universities while 24.9% ($n = 89$) taught at private institutions.

Table 4

Participants' Type of Institution

| Type of Institution | Frequency | Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------------------|-----------|---------|--------------------|
| Public | 269 | 75.1 | 75.1 |
| Private | 89 | 24.9 | 100.0 |
| Missing | 1 | 0.3 | |

Note. $N = 358$

Current rank reported by participants is listed in Table 5. The combined ranks of Assistant Professor, Associate Professor, and Professor accounted for 82% ($n = 293$) of the sample.

Table 5

Participants' Current Rank (Position)

| Variable | Frequency | Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------------------|-----------|---------|--------------------|
| Adjunct | 18 | 5.0 | 5.0 |
| Assistant Professor | 97 | 27.0 | 32.0 |
| Associate Professor | 108 | 30.1 | 62.1 |
| Professor | 88 | 24.5 | 86.6 |
| Instructor | 15 | 4.2 | 90.8 |
| Lecturer | 19 | 5.3 | 96.1 |
| Visiting | 7 | 1.9 | 98.1 |
| Other | 7 | 1.9 | 100.0 |

Note. $N = 359$

Table 6 provides the Institutional Carnegie Classification of participants' institutions. Results indicated that over half the sample ($n = 185$) taught at Doctorate-granting Institutions.

Table 6

Participants' Institutional Carnegie Classification

| | Frequency | Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-----------------------------------|-----------|---------|-----------------------|
| Doctorate-granting Institutions | 185 | 51.5 | 52.3 |
| Master's College and Universities | 132 | 36.8 | 89.5 |
| Baccalaureate Colleges | 37 | 10.3 | 100.0 |
| Missing | 5 | 1.4 | |

Note. $N = 354$

Participants were also asked to report their annual teaching salary (see Table 7). Descriptive analyses revealed the mean salary for each rank as follows: (a) Adjunct ($n = 18$, $M = \$13,330$); (b) Assistant Professor ($n = 97$, $M = \$56,920$); (c) Associate Professor, ($n = 108$, $M = \$68,590$), (d) Professor, ($n = 86$, $M = \$88,350$), (e) Instructor, ($n = 15$, $M = \$45,530$); (f) Lecturer, ($n = 19$, $M = \$47,630$); (g) Visiting, ($n = 7$, $M = \$52,570$); and (h) Other, ($n = 7$, $M = \$50,290$).

Table 7

Participants' Salaries: Nationwide Means by Academic Rank

| Rank | Mean | <i>SD</i> |
|---------------------|----------|-----------|
| Adjunct | \$13,330 | 10.53 |
| Assistant Professor | \$56,920 | 10.40 |
| Associate Professor | \$68,590 | 12.65 |
| Professor | \$88,350 | 21.38 |
| Instructor | \$45,530 | 16.99 |
| Lecturer | \$47,630 | 13.17 |
| Visiting | \$52,570 | 8.32 |
| Other | \$50,290 | 33.26 |

Note. $N = 357$.

Figure 1 specifies the distribution of participants' annual teaching salary. The overall mean for annual teaching salary was approximately \$60,000, which was slightly higher than the mean salary for the rank of Assistant Professor.

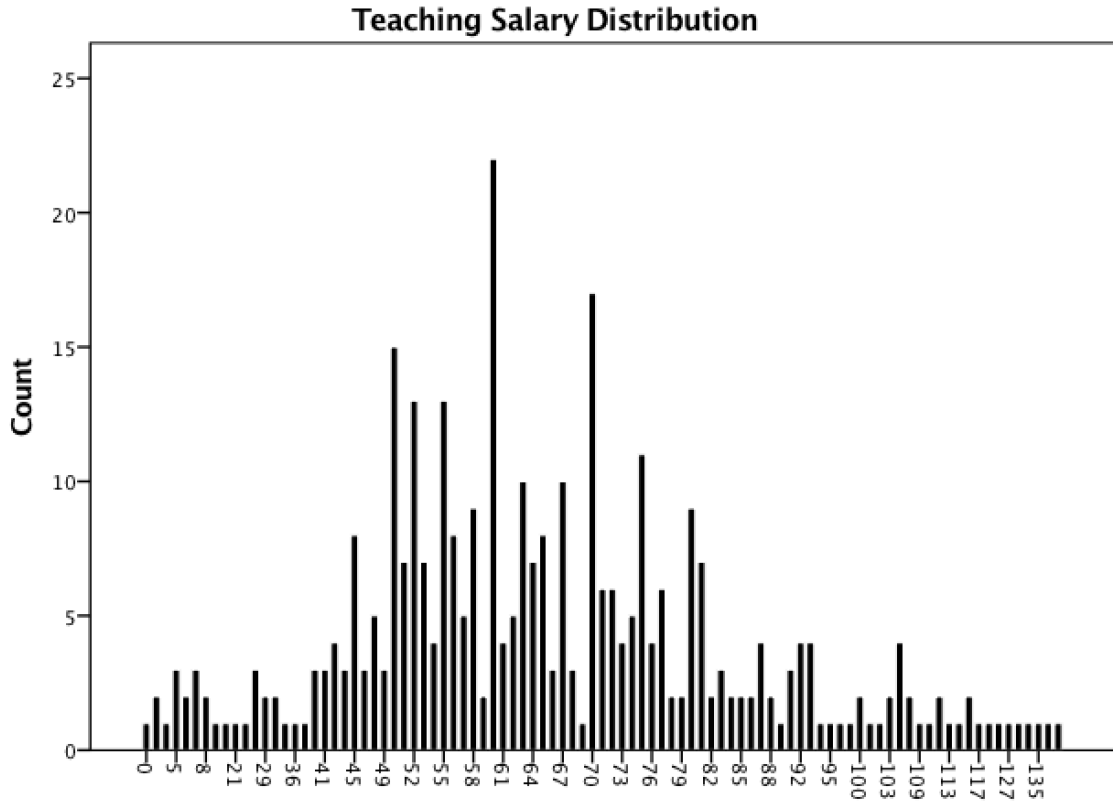


Figure 1. Distribution of participants' annual teaching salary. Note. $N = 357$.

Table 8 provides nationwide salary means for the sample according to gender by rank. One noteworthy finding indicated that on average, female faculty were paid higher than male faculty at the ranks of assistant professor and professor.

Table 8

Salaries: Nationwide Means by Gender and Academic Rank

| Position Held | Gender | Mean | SD |
|---------------------|-------------------------------|----------|-------|
| Adjunct | Female | \$13,500 | 4.79 |
| | Male | \$14,286 | 5.72 |
| Assistant Professor | Female | \$59,953 | 2.31 |
| | Male | \$56,549 | 2.12 |
| | Preferred Not to Answer | \$65,000 | 10.71 |
| Associate Professor | Female | \$67,340 | 2.08 |
| | Male | \$70,057 | 2.08 |
| Professor | Female | \$90,561 | 2.37 |
| | Male | \$86,571 | 2.34 |
| Instructor | Female | \$41,429 | 5.72 |
| | Male | \$49,125 | 5.36 |
| Lecturer | Female | \$42,778 | 5.05 |
| | Male | \$52,222 | 5.05 |
| | Gender Variant/Non-conforming | \$50,000 | 15.14 |
| Visiting | Female | \$47,250 | 7.57 |
| | Male | \$59,667 | 8.74 |
| Other | Male | \$57,833 | 6.18 |

Note. $N = 357$. Only those who indicated their gender were included in this table.

Table 9 provides salary means by region according to academic rank. It is interesting to note the rank of Professor in the Northeast region was the highest paid group ($M = \$109,857$) representing the sample. Overall mean salaries by region (see Figure 2) were highest in the Northeast ($M = \$58,000$) and lowest in the Midwest ($M = \$51,500$).

Table 9

Salaries: Region Means by Academic Rank

| Region | Position Held | Mean | SD |
|-----------|---------------------|-----------|-------|
| Northeast | Adjunct | \$10,677 | 6.13 |
| | Assistant Professor | \$60,133 | 3.88 |
| | Associate Professor | \$78,056 | 3.54 |
| | Professor | \$109,857 | 5.68 |
| | Instructor | \$32,000 | 15.01 |
| | Lecturer | \$61,667 | 8.67 |
| | Visiting | \$54,000 | 15.01 |
| | Other | - | - |
| Midwest | Adjunct | \$8,750 | 7.51 |
| | Assistant Professor | \$56,615 | 2.94 |
| | Associate Professor | \$68,111 | 2.89 |
| | Professor | \$89,636 | 2.61 |
| | Instructor | \$43,250 | 7.51 |
| | Lecturer | \$42,667 | 6.13 |
| | Visiting | \$52,000 | 15.01 |
| | Other | - | - |
| South | Adjunct | \$21,667 | 6.13 |
| | Assistant Professor | \$55,829 | 2.34 |
| | Associate Professor | \$64,093 | 2.29 |
| | Professor | \$84,229 | 2.53 |
| | Instructor | \$47,571 | 5.67 |
| | Lecturer | \$44,000 | 5.31 |
| | Visiting | \$52,286 | 6.71 |
| | Other | \$50,286 | 5.68 |
| West | Adjunct | \$5,500 | 10.61 |
| | Assistant Professor | \$56,923 | 4.16 |
| | Associate Professor | \$69,789 | 3.44 |
| | Professor | \$83,909 | 4.53 |
| | Instructor | \$48,333 | 8.67 |
| | Lecturer | \$56,000 | 10.61 |
| | Visiting | - | - |
| | Other | - | - |

Note. $N = 357$.

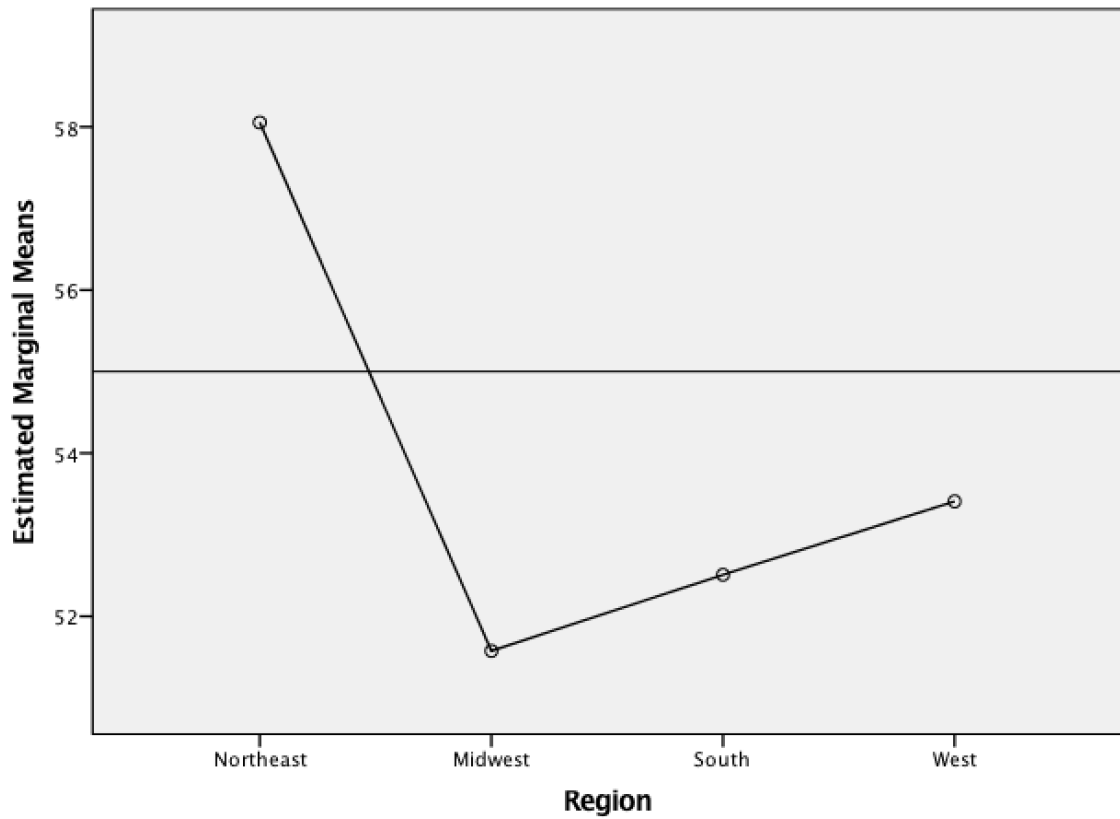


Figure 2. Overall means of participants' regional annual teaching salary.

Second Research Question

Prior to answering the second research question, descriptive statistics were calculated for each measure, and the analyses are provided within the next several pages. Table 10 outlines the descriptive statistics for the composite scores representing the independent and dependent variables.

Table 10

Descriptive Statistics for the Composite Scores Representing Each Variable

| Variable | Mean | <i>SD</i> | Skewness | Kurtosis |
|-------------------------|-------|-----------|----------|----------|
| Work Engagement | 93.3 | 11.7 | -0.13 | -0.37 |
| Institutional Support | | | | |
| Supervisor Support | 16.1 | 3.9 | -1.20 | 1.00 |
| University Support | 20.1 | 4.9 | -0.36 | -0.22 |
| Job-Related Stress | 31.4 | 5.7 | -0.08 | -0.40 |
| Salary Satisfaction | 26.4 | 6.4 | -0.23 | -0.15 |
| Self-Efficacy | 32.9 | 4.1 | -0.13 | -0.11 |
| Workplace Relationships | 18.52 | 3.74 | -0.49 | -0.08 |
| Workload Satisfaction | 28.69 | 4.60 | -0.28 | -0.15 |

Note. $N = 359$

Items comprising the work engagement measure (UWES) exhibited consistently high responses (see Table 11). One statement, “I am proud of the work that I do,” had the highest overall mean score ($M = 6.13$). Other statements such as “I am immersed in my work” ($M = 5.76$) and “I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose” ($M = 5.72$) corresponded directly to participants’ pride in the work they do.

Table 11

Descriptive Statistics for the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES)

| | Mean | <i>SD</i> |
|---|------|-----------|
| At my work, I feel bursting with energy. | 5.04 | 1.04 |
| I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose. | 5.72 | 0.95 |
| Time flies when I'm working. | 5.69 | 1.02 |
| At my job, I feel strong and vigorous. | 5.21 | 1.10 |
| I am enthusiastic about my job. | 5.70 | 1.00 |
| When I am working, I forget everything else around me. | 5.02 | 1.22 |
| My job inspires me. | 5.33 | 1.05 |
| When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work. | 5.68 | 0.90 |
| I feel happy when I am working intensely. | 5.71 | 0.96 |
| I am proud of the work that I do. | 6.13 | 0.78 |
| I am immersed in my work. | 5.76 | 0.94 |
| I can continue working for very long periods at a time. | 5.64 | 1.10 |
| To me, my job is challenging. | 5.55 | 1.11 |
| I get carried away when I'm working. | 4.97 | 1.13 |
| At my job, I am very resilient, mentally. | 5.36 | 0.98 |
| It is difficult to detach myself from my job. | 5.03 | 1.36 |
| At my work I always persevere, even when things do not go well. | 5.79 | 0.92 |

Note. Participants responded to each statement using a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 7 (*always*).

Data representing the items from the supervisor support and university support variables are provided in Tables 12 and 13. When comparing both support variables, participants reported higher levels of support from their supervisors than from the university.

Table 12

Descriptive Statistics for the Institutional Support for Faculty Teaching Scale (ISFTS):

Supervisor Support

| | Mean | <i>SD</i> |
|--|------|-----------|
| My immediate supervisor respects me. | 4.26 | .97 |
| My immediate supervisor supports me. | 4.16 | 1.00 |
| I have confidence in my immediate supervisor at my university. | 3.88 | 1.14 |
| My immediate supervisor understands the challenges associated with my job. | 3.77 | 1.18 |

Note. Participants responded to each statement using a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).

Table 13

Descriptive Statistics for the Institutional Support for Faculty Teaching Scale (ISFTS):

University Support

| | Mean | SD |
|--|------|------|
| I feel respected by my administration. | 3.59 | 1.00 |
| I have confidence that my university administration appreciates my role. | 3.43 | 1.07 |
| My university inspires me to give my very best at work. | 3.45 | 1.03 |
| I am happy with my workspace. | 3.69 | 1.10 |
| I feel well-informed about important decisions at my university. | 3.35 | 1.05 |
| An appropriate level of funding is available for faculty enhancement. | 2.60 | 1.23 |

Note. Participants responded to each statement using a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).

The data representing the items from the perceived stress variable exhibited means that ranged from 2.48 to 4.01 (see Table 14). The statement describing participants' ability to handle personal problems represented the highest mean score ($M = 4.01$). Other statements such as "In the last month, how often have you been able to control irritations in your life?" ($M = 3.77$) and "In the last month, how often have you felt that things were going your way?" ($M = 3.69$) also exhibited high mean scores.

Table 14

Descriptive Statistics for the Perceived Stress Scale (PSS)

| | Mean | SD |
|--|------|------|
| Felt confident about your ability to handle your personal problems? | 4.01 | 0.87 |
| Felt that you were on top of things? | 3.60 | 0.90 |
| Been able to control irritations in your life? | 3.77 | 0.85 |
| Felt that things were going your way? | 3.69 | 0.76 |
| Felt nervous and stressed? | 3.14 | 1.00 |
| Been angered because of things that were outside your control? | 2.73 | 0.97 |
| Been upset because of something that happened unexpectedly? | 2.71 | 0.90 |
| Felt difficulties were piling up so high that you could not overcome them? | 2.41 | 0.93 |
| Found that you could not cope with all the things that you had to do? | 2.48 | 1.03 |
| Felt that you were unable to control the important things in your life? | 2.60 | 0.98 |

Note. Participants responded to each statement using a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*very often*).

Items representing the salary satisfaction variable exhibited means that ranged from 2.66 to 3.88 (see Table 15). One statement, “Raises are too few and far between,” had the highest overall mean score ($M = 3.88$). Other statements such as “The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations (universities) offer” ($M = 3.30$) and “I feel unappreciated by the organization (university) when I think about what they pay

me.” ($M = 3.09$) correspond directly to a faculty members’ need for improved university support.

Table 15

Descriptive Statistics for the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) – Salary Satisfaction

| | Mean | SD |
|--|------|------|
| I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do. | 2.77 | 1.14 |
| There is really too little chance for promotion on my job. | 2.87 | 1.04 |
| I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive. | 2.66 | 1.06 |
| There are benefits we do not have which we should have. | 3.00 | 1.06 |
| Raises are too few and far between. | 3.88 | 1.03 |
| The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations (universities) offer. | 3.30 | 0.97 |
| I feel unappreciated by the organization (university) when I think about what they pay me. | 3.09 | 1.15 |
| I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases. | 2.60 | 1.08 |
| I am satisfied with my chances for promotion. | 3.20 | 1.10 |

Note. Participants responded to each statement using a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).

Analysis of the mean scores for the self-efficacy variable revealed a high level of general self-efficacy among participants (see Table 16). The two highest rated mean statements were, “I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks at my job.” ($M = 4.30$) and “I believe I can succeed at most any work endeavor to which I set my mind.” ($M = 4.27$).

Table 16

Descriptive Statistics for the General Self-Efficacy Scale (NGSE)

| | Mean | SD |
|--|------|------|
| I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself at my job. | 3.90 | 0.82 |
| When facing difficult tasks at my job, I am certain that I will accomplish them. | 4.05 | 0.73 |
| In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me at my job. | 4.08 | 0.70 |
| I believe I can succeed at most any work endeavor to which I set my mind. | 4.27 | 0.68 |
| I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges at my job. | 4.00 | 0.76 |
| I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks at my job. | 4.30 | 0.60 |
| Compared to other people in my profession, I can do most tasks very well. | 4.13 | 0.70 |
| Even when things are tough at my job, I can perform quite well. | 4.20 | 0.59 |

Note. Participants responded to each statement using a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).

Items representing the workplace relationship variable exhibited means that ranged from 2.48 to 4.11 (see Table 17). One statement, “I like the people I work with.” had the highest overall mean score ($M = 4.11$) indicating good working relationships were prevalent among the sample.

Table 17

Descriptive Statistics for the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) – Workplace Relationships

| | Mean | SD |
|---|------|------|
| I enjoy my coworkers. | 4.06 | 0.78 |
| I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with. | 2.44 | 1.13 |
| I like the people I work with. | 4.11 | 0.70 |
| There is too much bickering and fighting at work. | 2.50 | 1.19 |
| Communications seem good within this organization. | 3.28 | 1.03 |

Note. Participants responded to each statement using a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).

Analysis of the mean scores from the workload satisfaction variable revealed that teaching is a source of satisfaction (see Table 18). The two highest rated mean statements were, “My classroom teaching is a source of satisfaction to me.” ($M = 4.4$) and “The number of students enrolled in my courses is manageable.” ($M = 4.14$).

Table 18

Descriptive Statistics for the Workload Satisfaction Scale (WSS)

| | Mean | SD |
|--|------|------|
| The amount of time I spend on my job is a source of satisfaction for me. | 3.58 | 0.94 |
| My classroom teaching is a source of satisfaction to me. | 4.47 | 0.63 |
| My research is a source of satisfaction to me. | 3.80 | 0.91 |
| I spend too much time in service expectations (meetings and committee work). | 3.28 | 1.13 |
| I am satisfied with my work-life balance. | 3.19 | 1.10 |
| The number of students enrolled in my courses is manageable. | 4.14 | 0.78 |
| The number of credit hours I teach is manageable. | 3.75 | 1.07 |
| I have adequate time for planning, study, and research each week. | 3.03 | 1.16 |

Note. Participants responded to each statement using a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).

Pearson product-moment correlations were calculated (see Table 19) to answer the second research question, “What are the interrelationships among the following variables: (a) supervisor support, (b) university support, (c) job-related stress, (d) salary satisfaction, (e) self-efficacy, (f) workplace relationships, and (g) workload satisfaction and (h) work engagement?” All of the independent variables exhibited statistically significant ($p < .01$) correlations with the dependent variable of work engagement:

- Supervisor Support ($r = .37$)
- University Support ($r = .40$)

- Salary Satisfaction ($r = .22$)
- Self-Efficacy ($r = .39$)
- Workplace Relationships ($r = .31$)
- Perceived Stress ($r = .28$)
- Workload Satisfaction ($r = .34$)

Correlations (See Table 19) among the independent variables shared correlations beyond the .01 level of significance. The only exception was the correlation between salary and self-efficacy ($r = .13$), which was beyond the .05 level of significance.

Table 19

Intercorrelations between Work Engagement Variables

| Variable | WrkE | SupS | SupU | SalS | SEf | WrkR | PSS | WrkL |
|----------|------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| WrkE | - | .37** | .40** | .22** | .39** | .31** | .28** | .34** |
| SupS | | - | .51** | .34** | .23** | .44** | .26** | .27** |
| SupU | | | - | .55** | .30** | .50** | .31** | .37** |
| SalS | | | | - | .13* | .38** | .30** | .31** |
| SEf | | | | | - | .24** | .47** | .35** |
| WrkR | | | | | | - | .38** | .33** |
| PSS | | | | | | | - | .51** |
| WrkL | | | | | | | | - |

Note. WrkE = Work Engagement; SupS = Support - Supervisor; SupU = Support – University; SalS = Salary Satisfaction; SEf = Self-Efficacy; WrkR = Workplace Relationships; PSS = Perceived Stress Scale; WrkL = Workload Satisfaction.

* $p < .05$, two-tailed. ** $p < .01$, two-tailed.

Third Research Question

A simultaneous multiple regression analysis was conducted to determine which of the following variables best predict work engagement among a sample of higher education music faculty: (a) supervisor support, (b) university support, (c) job-related stress, (d) salary satisfaction, (e) self-efficacy, (f) workplace relationships, and (g) workload satisfaction. Data from the regression analysis revealed the seven independent variables combined to account for 28.6% of the variance in work engagement (see Table 20). Accordingly, the overall multiple regression was

statistically significant, $R^2 = .286$, $F(7, 351) = 20.06$, $p < .001$. It was further revealed that self-efficacy ($p < .000$), supervisor support ($p < .001$), university support ($p < .005$), and workload satisfaction ($p < .016$) were statistically significant predictors of work engagement. For each *SD* change in self-efficacy, work engagement increased by .25 of a standard deviation unit once the other variables were taken into account. Similarly, for each *SD* change in both supervisor and university support, work engagement increased by .18 of the standard deviation unit once the other variables were taken into account. Additionally, for each *SD* change in workload satisfaction, work engagement increased by .13 of the standard deviation unit once the other variables were taken into account.

Table 20

Summary of the Simultaneous Regression Analysis (N = 359)

| Variable | <i>B</i> | SE | β | <i>p</i> | 95% CI | |
|---|----------|-----|---------|----------|-----------|-----------|
| | | | | | <i>LL</i> | <i>UL</i> |
| Institutional Support – (Supervisor) | .55 | .16 | .18 | .001 | .227 | .870 |
| Institutional Support – (University) | .42 | .15 | .18 | .005 | .126 | .716 |
| Job-Related Stress | -.04 | .12 | -.02 | .731 | .412 | 1.006 |
| Salary Satisfaction | -.05 | .10 | -.03 | .650 | -.275 | .193 |
| Self-Efficacy | .71 | .15 | .25 | .000 | -.248 | .155 |
| Workplace Relationships | .17 | .17 | .05 | .337 | -.1175 | .510 |
| Workload Satisfaction | .34 | .14 | .13 | .016 | .063 | .612 |

Note. $R^2 = .286$, $F(7, 351) = 20.06$, $p < .001$

At the end of the survey, participants were asked the following open-ended question: What can be done to improve your workplace situation? Participants were also provided the opportunity to provide additional thoughts and comments. The Internet-based program Dedoose (Dedoose, Los Angeles, CA) was utilized to analyze the open-ended responses. It was determined that (a) 75% ($n = 270$) of the participants left feedback on how to improve their workplace situation and (b) 20% ($n = 73$) left additional thoughts and comments. Nearly 31% ($n = 83$) of the sample agreed that additional support and better communication from their supervisors and/or university administrators were needed to improve their workplace situation. In addition, 16% ($n =$

53) believed that effective university support was lacking, while 15% ($n = 40$) indicated a need for administrators to hire additional faculty and staff. It was also determined that 15% ($n = 40$) of participants reported a desire for higher pay and better benefits, and 15% ($n = 40$) specifically remarked that pay should be increased to match the salaries paid to other academic areas throughout the university. It was also found that 11% ($n = 30$) desired additional expenditures for faculty development, and 10% ($n = 28$) remarked on inadequate facilities.

Summary

Participants ($N = 362$) included (a) 173 females (47.79%), (b) 184 males (50.83%), and (c) 1 gender variant/non-conforming participant (0.28%). Four participants (1.11%) preferred not to respond. It was revealed that 75.1% ($n = 269$) of the sample taught in public universities and 24.9% ($n = 89$) taught in private institutions. Additionally, results indicated that nearly half the sample 49.6% ($n = 176$) had 1-15 years of experience in higher education. Descriptive analyses revealed the mean salary for Visiting faculty ($M = \$52,290$) and Other ($M = \$50,290$) were higher than the mean salary for Lecturer ($M = \$47,630$) and slightly lower than the mean salary for Assistant Professor ($M = \$56,920$). It is interesting to note that, on average, female faculty were paid higher than male faculty at the positions of assistant professor and professor. A correlation analysis revealed all of the independent variables exhibited statistically significant ($p < .01$) correlations with the dependent variable of work engagement: (a) supervisor support, (b) university support, (c) salary satisfaction, (d) self-efficacy, (e) workplace relationships, (f) perceived stress, and (g) workload. Results of a simultaneous multiple regression analysis revealed the overall multiple

regression was statistically significant, $R^2 = .286$, $F(7, 351) = 20.06$, $p < .001$ and that self-efficacy, supervisor support, university support, and workload satisfaction were statistically significant predictors of work engagement.

Chapter 5: Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to determine which of the following variables were significant predictors of work engagement among a nationwide sample of music education faculty: (a) supervisor support, (b) university support, (c) job-related stress, (d) salary satisfaction, (e) self-efficacy, (f) workplace relationships, and (g) workload satisfaction. The dependent variable of work engagement was operationally defined by the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES; Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, & Baker, 2002). Through a thorough review of the previous research, careful thought, and discussion with experts in the field, the following independent variables were chosen to be included in the regression equation: (a) supervisor support, (b) university support, (c) job-related stress, (d) salary satisfaction, (e) self-efficacy, (f) workplace relationships, and (g) workload satisfaction.

The Institutional Support for Faculty Teaching Scale (ISFTS) was designed by the researcher to measure supervisor support and university support. The Perceived Stress Scale (PSS; Cohen, 1994) was used to measure job-related stress. The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS; Spector, 1985) was used to measure salary satisfaction and workplace relationships. The New General Self-Efficacy scale (NGSE; Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2001) was used to measure self-efficacy. The researcher-designed Workload Satisfaction Scale (WSS) was used to measure workload satisfaction.

During the Fall semester of 2016, an email list of university music education faculty ($N = 1,336$) was obtained from the National Association of Schools of Music (NASM). In January of 2017, an email message was sent to all email addresses included on this list. The email message included a request for participation and a

direct link to the survey. Qualtrics (Qualtrics, Provo, UT), an internet-based survey delivery system, was used to administer the survey. After one week, a follow-up email was sent to potential participants who had yet to respond. After the second week, a third and final email was sent to those who had not yet responded. The survey was closed at the end of the three-week period. Once all data were collected, it was determined that 359 participants completed the survey, which resulted in a 27% response rate.

Cronbach's alpha was used to determine the reliability for all measures. The reliability coefficients indicated the items comprising the measures were internally consistent. Descriptive statistics were calculated for the dependent and independent variables followed by a correlation analysis. A simultaneous regression analysis indicated that self-efficacy, supervisor support, university support, and workload satisfaction were statistically significant predictors of work engagement.

Summary of the Results

First Research Question

Participants' ($N = 362$) demographics were analyzed to answer the first research question. The sample included (a) 173 females (47.79%), (b) 184 males (50.83%), and (c) 1 gender variant/non-conforming participant (0.28%). Four participants (1.11%) preferred not to respond. Nearly half the sample 49.6% ($n = 176$) had 1 to 15 years of experience in higher education and 9.6% ($n = 39$) of the sample had more than 30 years of experience in higher education. Participants who held the rank of Associate Professor represented 30.1% ($n = 108$) of the sample, Assistant Professors accounted for 27% ($n = 97$) of the sample, and Professors represented 24% ($n = 88$) of the sample. In

addition, 75.1% ($n = 269$), taught in public universities and 24.9% ($n = 89$) taught in private institutions. In regards to salary, means for the nationwide sample were reported for the following ranks: (a) Adjunct Faculty, \$13,330; (b) Assistant Professor, \$56,920; (c) Associate Professor, \$68,590, (d) Professor, \$88,350, (e) Instructor, \$45,530; (f) Lecturer, \$47,630; Visiting Professor, \$52,570; and (e) Other, \$50,290. In addition, nationwide salary means were reported for gender. Salary means were also reported by academic rank for each region (i.e., Northeast, Midwest, South, and West) of the United States.

It was revealed the mean salary for Visiting faculty ($M = \$52,290$) and Other ($M = \$50,290$) were higher than the mean salary for Lecturer ($M = \$47,630$) and lower than the mean salary for Assistant Professor ($M = \$56,920$). It is interesting to note that on average, female faculty were paid higher than male faculty at the positions of assistant professor (female, $M = \$59,953$; male, $M = \$56,549$) and professor (female, $M = \$90,561$; male, $M = \$86,571$). In terms of region, results indicated that overall mean salaries in the Northeast were the highest ($M = \$58,000$), followed by the West ($M = \$53,000$), South ($M = \$52,500$), and Midwest ($M = \$51,500$).

Second Research Question

A correlation analysis was conducted to analyze the relationships among the following variables: (a) supervisor support, (b) university support, (c) job-related stress, (d) salary satisfaction, (e) self-efficacy, (f) workplace relationships, (g) workload satisfaction, and (h) work engagement. Based on the results of the correlation analysis, several conclusions can be made. The correlations between (a) supervisor support and work engagement and (b) university support and work engagement were noteworthy as

they support previous research by the PEW Higher Education Research Group (1996), who proposed the separation and division among faculty and administrators in higher education has hindered their capacity to work cooperatively. Additionally, the correlation found between support and work engagement corresponds to the results as indicated by Boyer et al., (1994) who reported that faculty exhibited an overall lack of confidence towards their administrators. Of the U.S. faculty responding to the survey, 45% ($n = 1000$) agreed that communication between faculty and administration was poor. The correlation between work engagement and support also corresponds to a study conducted by Welsh and Metcalf (2003) who found significant differences between administrators and faculty regarding activities that promote institutional effectiveness. Furthermore, the correlation between work engagement and support is in agreement with the results reported by Hoyt (2012) who found that satisfaction with faculty support was a significant predictor of loyalty among a sample ($N = 676$) of adjunct faculty. In addition, Maughan (2013) found that support was a statistically significant predictor of work engagement among a sample of elementary music teachers, which is similar to the results exhibited in the present study. Once again, work engagement research in the area of music education reinforced the importance of support in the workplace.

The statistically significant correlation between work engagement and self-efficacy coincides with previous research that found employees who possessed a strong sense of self-efficacy were most likely to encounter elevated amounts of work engagement (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, & Bakker, 2002). In addition, Xanthopoulou et al., (2009) found that self-efficacy shared a positive relationship with

work engagement. Holzberger, Philipp, and Kunter (2013) found that teachers with higher self-efficacy beliefs reported higher cognitive activation, better classroom management, and more individual learning support for students. Given these results, music education faculty are encouraged to believe in their ability to be effective members of the academic community.

Significant correlations were also found between university support and salary. These results are similar to a study conducted by Schulze (2007) who investigated job satisfaction among higher education faculty in South Africa. Schulze (2007) found that only 11.7% ($N = 94$) of participants were satisfied with their salaries. Lee and Lin (2014) also revealed a significant correlation between salary satisfaction and job enthusiasm, and remarked that employers should match their employees' qualifications with satisfactory salaries. While previous studies have examined variables related to job satisfaction (Amjad et al., 2015; Srivalli & Vijayalakshmi, 2015), the current research found a significant correlation between university support and workplace relationships. As previous research has examined the relationship between these two variables, the current results stress the importance of developing and maintaining strong university support.

Third Research Question

A simultaneous multiple regression analysis was conducted to determine which of the following variables best predicted the work engagement of university music education faculty: (a) supervisor support, (b) university support, (c) job-related stress, (d) salary satisfaction, (e) self-efficacy, (f) workplace relationships, and (g) workload

satisfaction. Results indicated that supervisor support, university support, self-efficacy, and workload satisfaction were statistically significant predictors of work engagement. Numerous studies have indicated that multiple forms of support can increase a faculty member's job satisfaction and work engagement (Johnsrud & Heck, 1998; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Welsh & Metcalf, 2003). Additionally, previous research has found that workload satisfaction can influence a faculty member's work engagement (Baker & Demerouti, 2008; Lee & Lin 2014; Markos & Sridevi, 2010; O'Neill, Stanley, & O'Reilly, 2011; Schulze, 2007; Watson, Thompson, Meade 2007). Self-efficacy has also been positively linked to work engagement in previous research (Bandura, 1997; Chen, Gully, and Eden, 2001; Holzberger, Philipp, and Kunter 2013; Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, and Bakker, 2002; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009a; Yu, et al., 2014).

Implications

The results of this study provide numerous implications for the area of work engagement research in higher education. The robust reliability of the measures indicates they may be used to provide valuable measurement tools for immediate supervisors, administrators, and researchers who wish to measure these variables among their faculty. The results of the multiple regression analysis indicated that (a) supervisor support, (b) university support, (c) job-related stress, (d) salary satisfaction, (e) self-efficacy, (f) workplace relationships, and (g) workload satisfaction were statistically significant predictors of work engagement. It is important to note that music education faculty members do have some control over certain variables (e.g., job-related stress, self-efficacy, and workplace relationships), which can affect their levels

of work engagement. Further discussion on this topic can raise awareness of the control faculty members have over their own self-efficacy. In addition, faculty members are encouraged to promote healthy workplace relationships and maintain appropriate stress levels. Such changes may result in improved levels of work engagement. These findings support previous research that linked high levels of self-efficacy with high levels of work engagement (Holzberger, Philipp, and Kunter, 2013; Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, and Bakker, 2002; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009).

Since supervisor support, university support, and workload satisfaction were significant predictors of work engagement, music education faculty need to feel as though they are connected, respected, and valuable contributors to their institutions. These results are similar to previous studies, which found that excessive workloads and low support from supervisors and administration might hinder a faculty member's work engagement levels. Johnsrud and Heck (1998) reported that faculty often spend long hours in the workplace (e.g., 52 to 57 hours per week on average). Schuster and Finklestein (2006) reported a (a) steady decline over a 30-year time span among faculty who were "very satisfied" with their job and (b) steady increase in faculty who were "somewhat/very dissatisfied" with their job. The researchers attributed this trend to increased workloads for faculty members and decreased academic support provided by their institutions. In addition, Srivalli and Vijayalakshmi (2015) found that workload exhibited a negative correlation with job satisfaction. Participants in the current study often reported excessive workloads. By monitoring the excessive workloads experienced by these faculty members, administrators can make the necessary changes to help improve the work engagement levels of their faculty.

It was further revealed that self-efficacy was a significant predictor of work engagement, indicating that music education faculty should be encouraged to believe in their potential. If administrators and supervisors are aware of the convincing effect self-efficacy has on work engagement, such knowledge can have implications for supervisors and administrators. Perhaps, supervisors and administrators can help increase self-efficacy among faculty by building a collective efficacy in the workplace.

Although salary satisfaction was not found to be a statistically significant predictor of work engagement, it is interesting to note that 15% ($n = 40$) of participants reported a desire for higher pay and better benefits. Perhaps those on the lowest end of the faculty pay scale associated their salary with low levels of work engagement. Furthermore, the descriptive data pertaining to faculty salaries might prove to be valuable for those who are about to enter academia. Such information might also be useful for current faculty who are (a) attempting to renegotiate current salaries or (b) seeking employment at a different institution. Furthermore, if such transparency does not solve the pay inequality that may exist in the workplace, such information can provide valuable data for the profession. Perhaps by providing more information on salary satisfaction and compensation, music education faculty can be better informed regarding their financial value in academia.

Given the results of this study, music education faculty should expect to be supported by their universities, supervisors, administrators, and colleagues. However, what can be done in our current doctoral programs to better prepare students for a career in academia? According to Draves and Koops (2011), research in the mentoring of preservice music teachers has thrived in the past 10 years. Peer mentoring may serve as

a means to help non-tenured and tenure track faculty, who might be experiencing low levels of work engagement. Furthermore, it may be advantageous for non-tenured faculty to seek peer mentoring as a way to develop a strong sense of self-efficacy. It is also recommended that supervisors and administrators approach their faculty to determine the struggles (e.g., facility limitations and too much service expectations) their faculty encounter on a daily basis with the intention of creating appropriate solutions.

Recommendations

This is the first research study to measure the work engagement levels among a sample of university level music education faculty. As a result, this study has the potential to provide several avenues for future research. Participants were frequently concerned about several issues in their workday. For example, a number of participants indicated they did not have adequate salaries compared to those in other academic areas. Future research addressing the effect salary satisfaction has on work engagement would afford music education faculty the opportunity to make research-based recommendations to their administration. Currently, there is very little research that examines the connection between workplace relationships and work engagement. As such, it is also recommended that further investigations be conducted to determine the potential effect workplace relationships can have on work engagement. The current study included a survey adapted from the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS; Spector, 1985) to measure workplace relationships. Further research could include a series of detailed questions and/or statements designed to determine the impact workplace relationships have on the work engagement levels of music education faculty.

It is recommended further research be conducted with other populations to determine if the results of the current study can be replicated across other music areas in higher education (e.g., large ensemble conductors, applied faculty, musicology faculty, and music theory faculty). Additional investigations on the effect of (a) supervisor support, (b) university support, (c) job-related stress, (d) salary satisfaction, (e) self-efficacy, (f) workplace relationships, and (g) workload satisfaction on work engagement would also be useful within these populations. As large ensemble conductors (e.g., concert band and marching band) and music education faculty members often have distinct and separate responsibilities, it would be interesting to determine if the variables that affect work engagement for these groups are the same or different. Future research could also include the development of a path analytical model to study the direct and indirect effects among such variables utilized in this study. Such a model could provide important groundwork that could lead to future research in the development of an educational theory pertaining to work engagement among higher education music faculty.

Limitations

There were several limitations to this study. Certain biases innate in self-reported data might have influenced particular outcomes. Also, the participants in this study represented the area of music education in academia, and the results may differ from other music faculty areas. Since the nature of this study involves self-reported data, cause and effect cannot be established. Furthermore, given the voluntary nature of this study, the results are not generalizable to the overall population. As such, the results should be interpreted with caution.

Conclusion

These findings contribute to the current literature by providing a new awareness of the impact (a) supervisor support, (b) university support, (c) job-related stress, (d) salary satisfaction, (e) self-efficacy, (f) workplace relationships, and (g) workload satisfaction have on work engagement among music education faculty. Workload satisfaction and support were previously considered possible predictors of work engagement. The current study indicates these variables were indeed statistically significant predictors of work engagement among higher education music faculty. The results of this study have revealed that university music education faculty may be unable to fully engage in their work without adequate support. As such, sufficient support from supervisors, administrators, and the university is critical for faculty to maintain appropriate levels of work engagement. It is hoped this study, and future research, will inspire music education faculty to build positive interactions within their work environments while continuing to improve their work engagement levels.

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Appendix A: Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES)

Used by permission for non-commercial educational or research purposes. Please complete the following statements to reflect your current teaching position as accurately as possible.

- 1 – Never
- 2 – Almost Never
- 3 – Rarely
- 4 – Sometimes
- 5 – Often
- 6 – Very Often
- 7 – Always

1. At my work, I feel bursting with energy.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. Time flies when I'm working.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4. At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5. I am enthusiastic about my job.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6. When I am working, I forget everything else around me.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7. My job inspires me.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9. I feel happy when I am working intensely.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10. I am proud of the work that I do.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
11. I am immersed in my work.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
12. I can continue working for very long periods at a time.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
13. To me, my job is challenging.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
14. I get carried away when I'm working.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
15. At my job, I am very resilient, mentally.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
16. It is difficult to detach myself from my job.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
17. At my work I always persevere, even when things do not go well.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Appendix B: Institutional Support for Faculty Teaching Scale (ISFTS)

Please respond to the following statements to reflect your current teaching situation as accurately as possible.

- 1 - Strongly Disagree
- 2 - Disagree
- 3 - Neutral
- 4 - Agree
- 5 - Strongly Agree

Supervisor Support

- 1. My immediate supervisor (e.g., Chair, Director, Dean, etc.) respects me.
1 2 3 4 5
- 2. My immediate supervisor (e.g., Chair, Director, Dean, etc.) supports me.
1 2 3 4 5
- 3. I have confidence in my immediate supervisor (e.g., Chair, Director, Dean, etc.) at my university.
1 2 3 4 5
- 4. My immediate supervisor (e.g., Chair, Director, Dean, etc.) understands the challenges associated with my job.
1 2 3 4 5

University Support

- 5. I feel respected by my university administration.
1 2 3 4 5
- 6. I have confidence that my university administration appreciates my role.
1 2 3 4 5
- 7. My university inspires me to give my very best at work.
1 2 3 4 5
- 8. I am happy with my workspace.
1 2 3 4 5
- 9. I feel well-informed about important decisions at my university.
1 2 3 4 5
- 10. An appropriate level of funding is available for faculty enhancement.
1 2 3 4 5

Appendix C: Job-Related Stress

In 2013, the survey maintained the self-reported measure of stress using the 10-point scale described above. In addition, the survey included a 10-item scale, the Perceived Stress Scale (PSS), developed by Sheldon Cohen, PhD, a professor of psychology at Carnegie Mellon University. Used by permission.

The questions in this scale ask you about your feelings and thoughts during the last month. In each case, you will be asked to indicate how often you felt or thought a certain way.

- 1 – Never
- 2 – Almost Never
- 3 – Sometimes
- 4 – Fairly Often
- 5 – Very Often

1. In the last month, how often have you been upset because of something that happened unexpectedly?
1 2 3 4 5
2. In the last month, how often have you felt that you were unable to control the important things in your life?
1 2 3 4 5
3. In the last month, how often have you felt nervous and “stressed”?
1 2 3 4 5
4. In the last month, how often have you felt confident about your ability to handle your personal problems?
1 2 3 4 5
5. In the last month, how often have you felt that things were going your way?
1 2 3 4 5
6. In the last month, how often have you found that you could not cope with all the things that you had to do?
1 2 3 4 5
7. In the last month, how often have you been able to control irritations in your life?
1 2 3 4 5
8. In the last month, how often have you felt that you were on top of things?
1 2 3 4 5
9. In the last month, how often have you been angered because of things that were outside of your control?
1 2 3 4 5
10. In the last month, how often have you felt difficulties were piling up so high that you could not overcome them?
1 2 3 4 5

Appendix D: Salary Satisfaction

Subscale used from the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS). Used by permission for noncommercial research/teaching.

Please complete the following statements to reflect your current teaching position as accurately as possible.

- 1 - Strongly Disagree
- 2 - Disagree
- 3 - Neutral
- 4 - Agree
- 5 - Strongly Agree

1. I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.
1 2 3 4 5
2. There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.
1 2 3 4 5
3. I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.
1 2 3 4 5
4. There are benefits we do not have which we should have.
1 2 3 4 5
5. Raises are too few and far between.
1 2 3 4 5
6. The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations (universities) offer.
1 2 3 4 5
7. I feel unappreciated by the organization (university) when I think about what they pay me.
1 2 3 4 5
8. I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.
1 2 3 4 5
9. I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.
1 2 3 4 5

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Appendix E: The New General Self-Efficacy Scale (NGSE)

Please complete the following statements to reflect your current teaching position as accurately as possible. Used by permission for non-commercial educational or research purposes.

- 1 - Strongly Disagree
- 2 - Disagree
- 3 - Neutral
- 4 - Agree
- 5 - Strongly Agree

1. I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself at my job.
1 2 3 4 5
2. When facing difficult tasks at my job, I am certain that I will accomplish them.
1 2 3 4 5
3. In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me at my job.
1 2 3 4 5
4. I believe I can succeed at most any work endeavor to which I set my mind.
1 2 3 4 5
5. I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges at my job.
1 2 3 4 5
6. I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks at my job.
1 2 3 4 5
7. Compared to other people in my profession, I can do most tasks very well.
1 2 3 4 5
8. Even when things are tough at my job, I can perform quite well.
1 2 3 4 5

Appendix F: Workplace Relationships

Subscale from the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS). Used by permission for noncommercial research/teaching.

Please complete the following statements to reflect your current teaching position as accurately as possible.

- 1 - Strongly Disagree
- 2 - Disagree
- 3 - Neutral
- 4 - Agree
- 5 - Strongly Agree

1. I enjoy my coworkers.

1 2 3 4 5

2. I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with.

1 2 3 4 5

3. I like the people I work with.

1 2 3 4 5

4. There is too much bickering and fighting at work.

1 2 3 4 5

5. Communications seem good within this organization.

1 2 3 4 5

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Appendix G: Workload Satisfaction Scale (WSS)

Please complete the following statements to reflect your current teaching position as accurately as possible.

- 1 - Strongly Disagree
- 2 - Disagree
- 3 - Neutral
- 4 - Agree
- 5 - Strongly Agree

1. The amount of time I spend on my job is a source of satisfaction for me.
1 2 3 4 5
2. My classroom teaching is a source of satisfaction to me.
1 2 3 4 5
3. My research is a source of satisfaction to me.
1 2 3 4 5
4. I spend too much time in service expectations (meetings and committee work).
1 2 3 4 5
5. I am satisfied with my work-life balance.
1 2 3 4 5
6. The number of students enrolled in my courses is manageable.
1 2 3 4 5
7. The number of credit hours I teach is manageable.
1 2 3 4 5
8. I have adequate time for planning, study, and research each week.
1 2 3 4 5

Appendix H: Higher Education Demographic Questionnaire (Music)

1. Gender

- Male
- Female
- Transgender Male
- Transgender Female
- Gender Variant/Non-Conforming
- Prefer not to respond

2. How many years have you been teaching in higher education?

_____ Years of experience

3. Type of Institution

- Public
- Private

4. What current position do you hold?

- Adjunct
- Assistant Professor
- Associate Professor
- Full Professor
- Instructor
- Lecturer
- Visiting
- Other

5. Carnegie Classification

- Doctorate-granting Institutions
- Master's College and Universities
- Baccalaureate Colleges
- Associate's Colleges (AA)
- Specialized Institutions
- Tribal Colleges and Universities (TRIBAL)

6. What is your current annual teaching salary?

- \$25,000 - \$30,000
- \$30,000 - \$35,000
- \$35,000 - \$40,000
- \$40,000 - \$45,000
- \$45,000 - \$50,000
- \$50,000 - \$55,000
- \$55,000 - \$60,000
- \$60,000 - \$65,000
- \$65,000 - \$70,000
- \$70,000 - \$75,000

- _____ \$75,000 - \$80,000
- _____ \$80,000 - \$85,000
- _____ \$85,000 - \$90,000
- _____ \$90,000 - \$95,000
- _____ \$95,000 - \$100,000
- _____ \$100,000+

7. In what state do you teach? _____

Appendix I: Institutional Review Board Approval



Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects Approval of Initial Submission – Exempt from IRB Review – AP01

Date: January 04, 2017

IRB#: 7578

Principal Investigator: David Aaron Hanan

Approval Date: 01/04/2017

Exempt Category: 2

Study Title: Predictors of Work Engagement Among University Music Education Faculty

On behalf of the Institutional Review Board (IRB), I have reviewed the above-referenced research study and determined that it meets the criteria for exemption from IRB review. To view the documents approved for this submission, open this study from the *My Studies* option, go to *Submission History*, go to *Completed Submissions* tab and then click the *Details* icon.

As principal investigator of this research study, you are responsible to:

- Conduct the research study in a manner consistent with the requirements of the IRB and federal regulations 45 CFR 46.
- Request approval from the IRB prior to implementing any/all modifications as changes could affect the exempt status determination.
- Maintain accurate and complete study records for evaluation by the HRPP Quality Improvement Program and, if applicable, inspection by regulatory agencies and/or the study sponsor.
- Notify the IRB at the completion of the project.

If you have questions about this notification or using iRIS, contact the IRB @ 405-325-8110 or irb@ou.edu.

Cordially,

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read 'Fred Beard', written over a horizontal line.

Fred Beard, Ph.D.
Vice Chair, Institutional Review Board

Appendix J: Online Consent Letter

Online Consent to Participate in Research

Would you like to be involved in research at the University of Oklahoma?

I am David A. Hanan from the OU School of Music and I invite you to participate in my research project entitled Predictors of Work Engagement Among University Music Education Faculty. This research is being conducted at The University of Oklahoma. You were selected as a possible participant because your name and email address have been associated with teaching undergraduate music education students. You must be at least 18 years of age to participate in this study. Please read this document and contact me to ask any questions that you may have BEFORE agreeing to take part in my research.

The purpose of this study is to determine which of the following factors are significant predictors of work engagement among music education faculty: (a) institutional support, (b) job-related stress, (c) salary satisfaction, (d) self-efficacy, (e) workplace relationships, and (f) workload satisfaction. Approximately 1336 Music Education Faculty people will take part in this research. If you agree to be in this research, you will participate in a survey that will take approximately 15 minutes. There are no risks and no benefits from being in this research. You will not be reimbursed for your time and participation in this research.

Research records will be stored securely and only approved researchers and the OU Institutional Review Board will have access to the records. If you do not participate, you will not be penalized or lose benefits or services unrelated to the research. If you decide to participate, you don't have to answer any question and can stop participating at any time.

If you have questions, concerns or complaints about the research or have experienced a research-related injury, contact me (David A. Hanan) at 405-974-3428 or dhanan@ou.edu. You may also contact my doctoral advisor, Dr. Charles Ciorba at 305-877-0142 or cciorba@ou.edu.

You can also contact the University of Oklahoma – Norman Campus Institutional Review Board (OU-NC IRB) at 405-325-8110 or irb@ou.edu if you have questions about your rights as a research participant, concerns, or complaints about the research and wish to talk to someone other than the researcher(s) or if you cannot reach the researcher(s).

Please print this document for your records. By providing information to the researcher(s), I am agreeing to participate in this research.

- I agree to participate (://SurveyLink?d=Take the survey)
- I do not want to participate \$!://OptOutLink?d=Click here to unsubscribe}

This research has been approved by the University of Oklahoma, Norman Campus IRB.

IRB Number: 7578

Approval date: 1/4/2017



IRB NUMBER: 7578
IRB APPROVAL DATE: 01/04/2017

Appendix K: Survey Invitation Email Message

Dear Music Education Faculty Member:

My name is David Hanan, and I am a Ph.D. student majoring in music education at the University of Oklahoma. I am conducting my dissertation research under the direction of Dr. Charles R. Ciorba. The purpose of this study is to examine predictors of work engagement among music education faculty. It is hoped the results of this investigation will raise awareness among the academic community, which could lead to a better understanding of work engagement in academia.

If you agree to participate in this study, you will be asked to complete a short online survey, which should take approximately 15 minutes to complete. Participation is completely voluntary, and all responses will remain anonymous. If you would like to participate, please click on the link below.

Please let me know if you have any problems accessing the survey. If you are not the individual responsible for teaching music education courses at your institution, please feel free to forward this email to the appropriate faculty member(s).

Thank you for your consideration.

The University of Oklahoma is an Equal Opportunity Institution. The OU IRB has approved the content of this advertisement but the investigator is responsible for securing authorization to distribute this message by mass email.

Below is the link to the survey. It will be open today through Sunday, February 12, 2017 at 11:59 p.m. CST. I will send two email reminders within this time frame. Please let me know if you have any problems accessing the survey.

Follow this link to the Survey:

LINK

Or copy and paste the URL below into your internet browser:

URL LINK

Sincerely,

David A. Hanan

Appendix L: Follow up Survey Invitation Email Message #1

Dear Music Education Faculty Member:

My name is David Hanan, and I am a Ph.D. student majoring in music education at the University of Oklahoma. As part of my dissertation research, I am sending this follow-up email to request your participation in a survey-based research study to examine predictors of work engagement among music education faculty. It is hoped the results of this investigation will raise awareness among the academic community, which could lead to a better understanding of work engagement in academia.

If you agree to participate in this study, you will be asked to complete a short online survey, which should take approximately 15 minutes to complete. Participation is completely voluntary, and all responses will remain anonymous. If you would like to participate, please click on the link below.

Follow this link to the Survey:

LINK

Or copy and paste the URL below into your Internet browser:

URL LINK

Please let me know if you have any problems accessing the survey. If you are not the individual responsible for teaching music education courses at your institution, please feel free to forward this email to the appropriate faculty member(s).

Thank you for your consideration.

Sincerely,

David A. Hanan

The University of Oklahoma is an Equal Opportunity Institution. The OU IRB has approved the content of this advertisement but the investigator is responsible for securing authorization to distribute this message by mass email.

Appendix M: Follow up Survey Invitation Email Message #2

Dear Music Education Faculty Member:

My name is David Hanan, and I am a Ph.D. student majoring in music education at the University of Oklahoma. As part of my dissertation research, I am sending this final follow-up email to request your participation in a survey-based research study to examine predictors of work engagement among music education faculty. It is hoped the results of this investigation will raise awareness among the academic community, which could lead to a better understanding of work engagement in academia.

If you agree to participate in this study, you will be asked to complete a short online survey, which should take approximately 15 minutes to complete. Participation is completely voluntary, and all responses will remain anonymous. If you would like to participate, please click on the link below.

Follow this link to the Survey:

LINK

Or copy and paste the URL below into your Internet browser:

URL LINK

Please let me know if you have any problems accessing the survey. If you are not the individual responsible for teaching music education courses at your institution, please feel free to forward this email to the appropriate faculty member(s).

Thank you for your consideration.

Sincerely,

David A. Hanan

The University of Oklahoma is an Equal Opportunity Institution. The OU IRB has approved the content of this advertisement but the investigator is responsible for securing authorization to distribute this message by mass email.