JOB MOTIVATION AND SATISFACTION LEVELS

OF

MID-LEVEL SUPERVISORS IN THE

UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE DIVISION OF THE

OKLAHOMA EMPLOYMENT SECURITY

COMMISSION

By

RALPH DAVID SHELTON

Bachelor of Science in Agriculture
Economics
Oklahoma State University
Stillwater, Oklahoma
1970

Master of Science in Education
Oklahoma State University
Stillwater, Oklahoma
1994

Submitted to the Faculty of the
Graduate College of the
Oklahoma State University
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Dissertation Approved:

Dissertation Adviser, Committee Member
Dr. Brian A. Sandford
_____

Committee Member
Dr. Lynna Ausburn
_____

Committee Member
Dr. Mary Jo Self
_____

Committee Member
Dr. Gary J. Conti
_____

Outside Committee Member
Dr. Bernita Krumm
_____

Dr. A. Gordon Emslie
_____
Dean of the Graduate College

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background

Structure and Purpose of the Oklahoma Employment Security
Commission

The Oklahoma Employment Security Commission (OESC) is

comprised of two very different divisions the Employment

Services or ES and the Unemployment Insurance or UI.

Employment Services deals with finding jobs for people who

are out of work or new employment for those who are

underemployed. The primary purpose of the Employment

Service Division is to match qualified workers with

prospective employers who are seeking those workers that

have the necessary and desired skills, attitudes, and

abilities.

The primary purpose of the Unemployment Insurance

Division as the OESC governmental component is the removal

of the unemployed from the unemployment insurance rolls and

the collection of taxes from the employers which funds the

insurance program that allows for the payment of the

claimants. Shrinking the unemployment insurance rates by

placement of unemployed workers in the workforce has an economic impact on both the state and those served by the employer-employee relationship or service. This study focused specifically on the Unemployment Insurance Division of the OESC.

The researcher worked in the Unemployment Insurance Division, but since has been transferred to the Employment Services Division. The eighteen years of experience with the OESC provided the researcher with a unique perspective and understanding of the workings of both Divisions.

The purpose of this study is to enhance the ability of the agency to perform at their highest level. The problem exists that the OESC employs talented and experienced supervisors who have not had the freedom to fully take advantage of best practices due to restrictive management practices. The new director of UI Services is dedicated to discovering and implementing best management practices for the agency. This would provide greater performance by the employees, which in turn, will provide better service to UI customers.

An additional benefit would be the cost savings to OESC customers, better customer service and fewer problems with unemployment claims when the claimants receive their money in a timely fashion. More efficient management

practices would reduce the amount of UI taxes paid by employers which in turn will help their business. This study may show that implementing best management practices can benefit both the OESC and employers and can also be used as a model for other agencies.

The context for the Study

The OESC placement and insurance services are managed by mid-level supervisors working with civil service staff members to accomplish organizational goals and objectives. This mid-level management system is predicated upon the ability of the supervisor to motivate other workers to get things done (Funzi, 1999). The process through which workers respond to supervisory initiatives can be viewed as either an intrinsic or extrinsic motivational response. How workers react could be predicted by or related to their level of work satisfaction and productivity. With leadership and managerial changes currently occurring within the Oklahoma Employment Security Commission, senior leaders desire to implement best practices in performance management. To reach that goal, the level of worker satisfaction within the Unemployment Insurance Division and its concomitant impact on client services and customer service must be assessed.

The satisfaction levels of mid-level supervisors can impact their ability to motivate their subordinates to perform more effectively (Burke, Graham and Smith, 2005). Therefore, it is important to performance management to answer the question, "What is the job satisfaction of mid-level supervisors within the Unemployment Insurance Division as a measure to determine the ability to implement best practices resulting in quality customer services". This indicates that direct measurement of the level of job satisfaction of midlevel supervisors within the Unemployment Insurance Division would be beneficial to implementing best management practices.

The OESC leadership has committed to the following strategic vision statement: "Oklahoma's prosperity is enhanced by OESC's efforts to provide economic stability and employment security" (OESC Handbook, p.1, 2006). It is clear from this vision statement that the OESC believes that the implementation of best practices will have a major economic impact on the organization, the workforce, and the workplace in the State of Oklahoma, and thus to its overall prosperity and success.

Current performance of the UI Division of the OESC is indicated in recent data. In 2005, the last year for which full data exists, the UI Division dealt with 85,874 benefit

claims from workers. Within this cohort, 32,967 claims had

issues that required adjudication/investigation, or

slightly more than 38% requiring multiple handlings by more

than one employee (http://www.oesc.state.ok.us). These

data suggest that performance improvement would be

beneficial. Each mid-line supervisor is responsible for

meeting compliance standards where every organizational

employee under their direct supervision must correct

deficiencies found in an average of 281 claims per year

regardless of their position or responsibilities

(http://www.oesc.state.ok.us). Federal Tax Performance

Measurements Standards (TPS) (http://www.oesc.state.ok.us)

require all claims be processed within a time constraint

based on the type of claim or discrepancy which causes the

claim to fall out of the normal flow process. This offers

further impetus for performance improvement in the OESC UI

Division and for analysis of the satisfaction and

motivation of its mid-level supervisors.

OESC must find ways to work more effectively and

efficiently to meet performance standards while providing a

satisfying work environment staffed with motivated mid-line

supervisors who transmit a positive approach to customer

service.

Average organizational turnover within OESC over the last six years has averaged 12.9% per year as a composite. This average turnover rate is adversely impacted by a 10.8% rate of voluntary resignations with and without cause. A large turnover rate within the OESC work environment, coupled with an aging work force under high stress, highlights the need for job satisfaction research (OESC, 2006 Annual Compensation Report).

Motivation, Satisfaction and Performance in Service Organizations

Franco (2006) reported research that showed the middle-tier age bracket of people ages 45 – 54 is the least satisfied of all workers. According to Franco, 57.3% of the group expressed general dissatisfaction with their work, while 40% of all workers in his research felt disconnected from their employers. He further stated that 66% of all workers do not identify with or feel motivated to drive forward their employer's business goals and objectives (Franco, 2006).

Motivation is one key to employee productivity, job satisfaction, and productivity in the workplace (denews.com. 2005). In understanding this relationship, it is helpful to describe how motivation functions. Motivation at its simplest is the willingness by the

individual to do something in order to satisfy some personal need (Robbins, 1979). A need was defined by Robbins (1979) as an internal state or a feeling that makes certain outcomes appear attractive. Thus, motivation develops in response to needs as they arise. Hill (1979) articulated, "Motivation is not something a person is born with or without, but rather is something that can be enhanced or developed" (p.85). Maier and Verser (1982) related motivation as development to arising needs, claiming that motivational need, internal or external, causes individuals to take some action, either positive or negative, to satisfy or meet that need. They further asserted that motivated behavior is an internal means to some external end.

In studying the OESC, the question arises of how motivational theory applies to a government agency that is service oriented. Essentially, motivation impacts a government services agency in the same way it impacts manufacturing or any other type of employee or employer relationship. This government agency (OESC) is a service-oriented agency because it serves the needs of its constituents. Within the consumer marketplace, the service industry is growing faster and in greater proportion than any other industry. The service industry now accounts for

almost three-quarters of all employment and the need for service providers is anticipated to increase greatly in the future (Heskett et al., 1997). The expanding service industries, including the government sector, are unlikely to succeed in their stated missions without motivated and satisfied employees whose needs are being met through sound relationships with their employers and supervisors.

The Oklahoma Employment Service Commission (OESC) is a service provider, but it differs in the sense that it is the sole provider of a particular service and has no competition in its role as a government entity fulfilling mandatory statutory directives. Only the OESC delivers services to beneficiaries (claimants), while it simultaneously assists and regulates employers.

During the 1990s, a great deal of emphasis was placed on improving organizational performance through initiatives such as Total Quality Management (TQM). However, most of these efforts fell short of the desired results. According to Hammer and Champy (1993), who were leading proponents of TQM, 50 to 70 percent of those entities who tried to implement full TQM management principles failed to reach their set goals or stated objective. Customer satisfaction may be a related factor to less than satisfactory results, according to Burke, Graham and Smith (2005). Writing on the

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effects of TQM reengineering on the employee satisfaction-customer satisfaction relationship, they found there was a strong relationship between the morale or motivation of an employee and the level of service provided to customers. They also reported that certain elements of employee morale consistently predicted customer satisfaction. According to Burke, Graham and Smith (2005), changing the level of job satisfaction directly affected the level of customer satisfaction, either adversely or in a positive manner. Increased workload in conjunction with increased demands for quality work had an adverse affect on the employee's ability to perform their jobs and provide customer satisfaction. In essence, job change due to TQM efforts and changes in the way the job is conducted was identified as a cause for a drop in both worker job satisfaction and customer satisfaction.

Motivation and worker job satisfaction are interrelated but not synonymous. Motivation and job satisfaction are different in that satisfaction has been defined as an end-stage resulting from the attainment of one's goal, while motivation has been equated with the desire to perform tasks to reach that goal (Lawler & Porter, 1967). Further, although many assume that job

satisfaction is directly related to performance of the employee, Lawler and Porter (1967) claimed that it does not increase or cause high performance (p.20). Thus, the relationship between motivation and job performance may not be causal in nature. It has, however, been found that different methods of motivation have been linked to increasing productivity and that there is a wide variety in motivational practices in organizations (Cameron & Pierce, 1994). Several theorists have presented viewpoints on motivation, needs, and their relationships to satisfaction and performance. These theorists have included:

A. Alderfer (1969): Clayton Alderfer's contribution to organizational behavior was dubbed the ERG theory (Existence, Relatedness, and Growth), and was created to align Maslow's motivation theory more closely with empirical research.

B. Herzberg (1959): Frederick Herzberg developed the Motivation-Hygiene Theory, commonly called the two factor theory. This was an attempt to explain or determine which factors in an employee's work environment caused satisfaction or dissatisfaction. He found six factors leading to dissatisfaction and six main factors leading to satisfaction. Herzberg's six

factors leading to dissatisfaction are: (a) company
policy, (b) supervision, (c) relationship with boss,
(d) work conditions, (e) salary, (f) relationship with
peers. The six factors leading to satisfaction are:
(a) achievement, (b) recognition, (c) work itself, (d)
responsibility, (e) advancement, (f) growth.

C. Maslow (1954): Abraham Maslow attempted to
synthesize a large body of research related to human
motivation. Prior to Maslow, researchers generally
focused separately on factors as biology,
achievement, or power to explain what energizes,
directs, and sustains human behavior. Maslow posited a
hierarchy of human needs based on two groupings:
deficiency needs and growth needs. Within the
deficiency needs, each lower need must be met before
moving to the next higher level. Once each of these
needs has been satisfied, if at some future time
efficiency is detected, the individual will act to
remove the deficiency. Maslow's first four levels are:

1. Physiological: hunger, thirst, bodily comforts,
etc;

2. Safety/security: out of danger;

3. Belonginess and Love: affiliate with others, be accepted;

4. Esteem: to achieve, be competent, gain approval and recognition.

D. McClelland (1961): McClelland's theory of needs focuses on three needs: achievement, power, and affiliation. They are defined as follows:

1. Need for achievement (nAch): The drive to excel, to achieve in relation to a set of standards, to strive to succeed.

2. Need for power: The need to make others behave in a way that they would not have behaved otherwise.

3. Need for affiliation: The desire for friendly and close interpersonal relationships.

E. McGregor (1960): Douglas McGregor developed the theory X and theory Y models to deal with the behavior of individuals at work. With each model certain assumptions apply. Theory X has the following assumptions:

1. Because of their dislike for work, most people must be controlled and threatened before they will work hard enough.

2. The average human prefers to be directed, dislikes responsibility, is unambiguous, and desires security above everything.

3. These assumptions lie behind most organizational principles today, and give rise both to "tough" management with punishments and tight controls, and "soft" management which aims at harmony at work.

4. Both these are "wrong" because man needs more than financial rewards at work; he also needs some deeper higher order motivation - the opportunity to fulfill himself.

5. Theory X managers do not give their staff the opportunity of self-fulfillment so that the employees behave in the expected fashion.

By contrast, Theory Y assumptions are as follow:

1. The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest.

2. Control and punishment are not the only ways to make people work; man will direct himself if he is committed to the aims of the organization.

3. If a job is satisfying, then the result will be commitment to the organization.

4. The average man learns, under proper conditions, not only to accept but to seek responsibility.

5. Imagination, creativity, and ingenuity can be used to solve work problems by a majority of employees.

6. Under the conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual potentialities of the average man are only partially utilized.

F. Vroom (1964): Vroom's Expectancy Theory deals with motivation and management. Vroom's theory assumes that behavior results from conscious choices among alternatives, with the purpose of maximizing pleasure and minimizing pain. Together with Edward Lawler and Lyman Porter, Vroom suggested that the relationship between people's behavior at work and their goals was not as simple as was first imagined by other theorists. Vroom posited that an employee's performance is based on individual factors such

as personality, skills, knowledge, experience and abilities. The Expectancy Theory states that, in the workplace, employees act in ways they expect to bring pleasure and avoid pain. It also states that individuals have a variety of goals and can be motivated if they believe that:

1. There is a positive correlation between efforts and performance,

2. Favorable performance will result in an outcome,

3. The outcome's value to the employee can be determined,

4. The desire to satisfy the need is strong enough to make the effort worthwhile.

The actual equation is: $F = E (I \times V)$.

Learning Strategy Preferences and Motivational Support

The OESC director has mandated that best management practices be incorporated into and adopted by the mid-level supervisors of the UI division of OESC. This means that these supervisors will have to learn about best management practices and in order to ensure that maximum learning

occurs, it is important to understand how adult's best learn and more importantly how this group of mid-level management adult learners learn best. The preferred learning strategies of the group and its members need to be identified in order to determine what methods of information presentation need to be used to train these supervisors in the use of best practices.

An assumption of this study is that effective learning support based on knowledge of their learning strategy preferences will promote motivational support for the OESC UI Division mid-level supervisors. This assumption is supported by the proposition that success and achievement lead to satisfaction (Herzberg, 1959); Munday, D.R. 2002; Munday, W.S., 2002; Wakefield, 1993). This prompted the need for identification of the mid-level supervisors' learning strategy preferences as a variable in this study. Learning strategies are approaches to learning and are based on an individual's experiences with learning and applied to both formal and informal learning tasks and situations (Conti & Kalody, 1995, 2004). Preferences were measured by the Assessing the Learning Strategies of AdultS (ATLAS) test (Conti & Kalody, 1999).

Personality Types and Motivational Support

Motivation is central to most theories of personality, and several different types of motivation are affected by personality types (Boeree, 2006). What appears to be critical is that personality type plays a part in motivating employees and that various personality types are characterized by different predominant motivations. This led to the assumption in this study that assessment of the personality types of the OESC mid-level supervisors would help provide them with motivational support.

In order to understand the supervisors, some way to measure or identify their personality types were needed so that their needs could be addressed in order to motivate them to adapt to best practices. The instrument selected to measure the personality type variable for this study was called the Myers Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) which has been validated and continually used to determine personality types in education and business for many years.

According to Consulting Psychologists Press, Inc. (CPP), which owns the rights to the MBTI, it is "the most widely used personality inventory in history" (CPP, p.1). According to the Center for Applications of Psychological Type, approximately 2,000,000 people a year take the MBTI.

CPP claims that it helps improve work and personal relationships, increase productivity, and identify leadership and interpersonal communication preferences that can be utilized in strategies affecting motivation.

Summary of the Study's Context and Framework

The Unemployment Insurance Division of OESC needs to be able to implement best practices in order to effectively achieve its economic mission of benefiting the state of Oklahoma. To promote and assess this effectiveness, the Federal Government has designed processes and measurements of accountability. These measurements, called Tax Performance Measurements (TPS) are to be implemented by government agencies. Those responsible for this implementation in the UI Division of the OESC are the mid-level supervisors.

The agency needs some indication of how successful mid-level supervisors will be in implementing the process of best management practices. In order to authenticate this indication they need to assess the mid-level supervisors in some way that will give the agency some indication of how successful this implementation process is likely to be.

Research has indicated that motivation, satisfaction, and job performance are inter-related and that in order for change to occur, there needs to be some type of motivation

change that affects job satisfaction. Research has also indicated that motivation is connected to job satisfaction, which suggests that measurement of supervisors' current level and type of job satisfaction is necessary in order to begin a process of change.

In order to determine what motivates the supervisors and will support their motivations as they learn, a measurement is needed to determine how the supervisor's best learn or gain new knowledge. Similarly, a measure of supervisors' personality types would support the development and maintenance of an effective work environment. Thus, three measurements are needed to correctly identify what would be necessary in the work environment to implement best practices by the mid-level supervisors of the UI Division of OESC. These three measurements were employed in this study in order to construct mid-level supervisor profiles that could be used to target a working environment to facilitate their performance as catalysts for improvement in their subordinate employees.

Problem Statement

The UI division of the OESC does not know the satisfaction level of their mid-level supervisors, without this knowledge the probably of implementing best practices

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into the management styles of these mid-level supervisors is not likely to occur.

Within every organization, two types of employees exist: satisfied and dissatisfied (Falkenberg 1997). Dissatisfied employees can be characterized as problems for organizational performance. These problem employees, in general, adversely impact productivity, morale, and organizational goals. Failure to identify dissatisfied problem employees negatively impacts any organization. One can assume that there is a reason for workers to be dissatisfied, and whether or not there is a solution to the reasons for their dissatisfaction may depend on the ability of the organization to identify and address these problems. Addressing sources of dissatisfaction and ways to increase satisfaction for OESC supervisors is important in supporting their effectiveness in leading employees toward improved performance.

At the present time, information about mid-level supervisor satisfaction or dissatisfaction is not available in the OESC. One way of obtaining this information is by testing or asking questions about their job satisfaction with an instrument such as the Job Descriptive Index (JDI), which identifies areas of dissatisfaction. Other variables that affect job satisfaction are learning

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styles/strategies, which can be assessed by the ATLAS survey instrument, and personality types, addressed by the Myers Briggs Personality Type indicator.

Problem employees feel underappreciated (Keirsey & Bates 1978). Without information to identify the satisfaction issues of supervisors, the OESC is unable to address this problem. The OESC UI Division failure to address supervisors' job satisfaction and needs may result in the inability to incorporate best practices into standard management operational procedures. Failure to address job satisfaction needs may affect the ability of the organization to meet accountability measures, such as Tax Performance Standards (TPS) set by the Federal Government. In turn, failure to meet these standards places the agency on "notice of failure" and results in the need for additional detailed remedial planning documentation which specifying how the organization plans to meet all TPS standards. A TPS standards failure will increase personnel costs, may decrease organizational morale, and jeopardizes further federal funding for the agency. This can put job satisfaction and performance in a downward spiral from which recovery would be difficult.

Worker satisfaction is a well documented problem. "Half of all Americans today say they are dissatisfied with

their jobs" (The Conference Board, Feb 28, 2005). Findings
by the Conference Board which categorized dissatisfactions
were:

1. The largest decline in overall job satisfaction,
from 60.9% to 49.2%, occurred among workers 35-44.

2. The second largest decline took place among
workers aged 45-54, with the satisfaction level
dropping from 57.3% to 47.7%.

3. The largest decline in job satisfaction took place
among householders earning $25,000 to $35,000, with
satisfaction falling from 55.7% to 41.4%. This income
group expressed the second lowest level of overall
satisfaction.

4. The second largest job satisfaction decline was
posted by householders earning $35,000-$50,000. This
group experienced a decline from 59.7% to 46.7%.

These findings support the likelihood of job
dissatisfaction among mid-level supervisors that could
adversely affect their job performance. Furthermore, the
Conference Board (2005) articulated that workers had
specific complaints which lead to job dissatisfaction.
Some of these complaints were promotion polices and bonus
plans. Only 30% of workers were satisfied with educational

and training programs within their organizations, and fully 66.5% of those surveyed were dissatisfied with their pay.

These findings correlate closely with Herzberg's (1966) Motivation-Hygiene Theory, called two-factor dissatisfaction/satisfaction theory. Herzberg outlined six factors that affect job satisfaction. They are: organizational policies, supervision, working superior/subordinate relationships, working conditions, salary, and relationships. Frunzi (1997) found that while satisfaction was indicative of worker achievement, recognition, the work itself, greater individual responsibility, self advancement and growth were important needs of workers.

The problem statement addressed is the need to determine the satisfaction levels of the mid-level supervisors of the UI Division of the OESC. In order to address these issues and needs in its mid-level supervisors; the OESC UI division needs a profile of their satisfiers, learning preferences, and personality types that can impact personal needs and satisfactions. This profile currently does not exist. Without this information, targeting of work environments and opportunities cannot proceed in the OESC UI Division and advancement cannot be

made toward raised levels of job satisfaction and
performance of these critical employees.

Purpose and Objectives

The purpose of this study was to describe the (1)
level of job satisfaction, the (2) personality types of
mid-level supervisors, and the (3) preferred learning
strategies within the Oklahoma Employment Security
Commission (OESC) Unemployment Insurance (UI) Division
using the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) questionnaire, the
Myers Briggs Personality Type Indicator (MTBTI), and the
Assessing Learning Strategies of AdultS (ATLAS) to measure
issues and variables that affect job satisfaction.

Research Questions

This study was guided by the following research
questions;

A. What are the job satisfaction levels, personality
types, and learning strategies, of mid-level
supervisors employed by the OESC Unemployment
Insurance Division as measured by;

1. The Job Descriptive Index (JDI)

2. The Myers Briggs Personality Type Indicator
(MBTI)

3. Assessing the Learning Strategies of AdultS
(ATLAS)

B. Do relationships exist among these measures and
demographic variables in the mid-level supervisors of
OESC UI Division?

Overview of the Study

Population:

The population for this study consisted of forty-five
mid-level supervisors of the UI division of the OESC. This
was a census study that involved the entire population of
interest, so no sampling was needed.

Instrumentation:

Three instruments were used in this study; the Job
Descriptive Index (JDI), the Myers Briggs Personality Type
Indicator (MBTI), and Assessing the Learning Strategies of
AdultS (ATLAS) test.

Job Descriptive Index (JDI) & Job in General (JIG)

Five facets of job satisfaction are measured by the
JDI: (1) Work on Present Job, (2) Present Pay, (3)
Opportunities for Promotion, (4) Supervision and (5)
Coworkers. These serve to describe important aspects of
the job. Each of the five facets has five questions; three

are positive and two are negative. The Job in General scale was developed to evaluate overall, global satisfaction with the job and is the sixth facet of the test. This facet has eight questions with five being positive and three being negative (Ironson, Smith, Brannick, Gibson, & Paul, 1989). The JDI and JIG are bundled together and commonly referred to as the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) survey.

Myers Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI)

This instrument measures 16 different types of personalities and gives descriptions of the characteristics of these different types and how they act and interact with others. The MBTI is composed of 93 separate questions that are divided into four separate groups. The instrument equates either a question that requires the subject pick the answer that best fits how they feel or act or the instrument equates that the subject must choose between words that appeal to them more. The four groups and a brief description of the terms that comprise the test are as follows:

1. Extraversion (E) & Introversion (I); People who prefer extraversion tend to focus on the outer world of people and things, while people who

prefer introversion tend to focus on the inner world of ideas and impressions.

2. Sensing (S) & Intuition (N); People who prefer sensing tend to focus on the present and on concrete information gained from their senses, while people who prefer intuition tend to focus on the future, with a view toward patterns and possibilities.

(3) Thinking (T) & Feeling (F); People who prefer thinking tend to base their decisions primarily on logic and on objective analysis of cause and effect, while people who prefer feeling tend to base their decisions primarily on values and on subjective evaluation of person-centered concerns.

(4) Judging (J) & Perceiving (P); People who prefer judging tend to like a planned and organized approach to life and prefer to have things settled, while people who prefer perceiving tend to like a flexible and spontaneous approach to life and prefer to keep their options open.

The scores for each group are then added up to determine which group the subjects fall in. This will be used to determine which personality type they prefer.

Assessing the Learning Strategies of AdultS (ATLAS)

ATLAS is a self-assessment instrument that classifies adult learners into three groups based on their preferred methods and techniques for learning (Ausburn, 2004, Conti & Kalody, 1999). The three ATLAS strategy groups are Navigator, Problem solvers, and Engagers. Using a small number of key discriminating questions, ATLAS places learners into the group that best describes their preferred approach to learning tasks.

Procedures

The surveys were issued to three separate groups of mid-level supervisors on three consecutive days. This was during the regular workweek at a period when time was set aside for regular training for these supervisors and therefore had no impact on time from work or time missed. This training is required by OESC for all mid-level supervisors in the UI Division. However the decision to participate in this study was strictly voluntary and not a requirement of the training, all people that participated in this study were asked if they understood that participating in this study was strictly voluntary and were then asked to sign a consent form indicating they wanted to be involved in the study.

Data Analysis

All data gathered were compiled, coded, checked for missing data and entered into the SPSS computer program for analysis. Descriptive statistics and cross-tabulation were used to analyze the data.

Terms and Definitions

Conceptual Definitions

Abilities: Attitudes and characteristics a person needs to possess in order to satisfactorily perform a task. (United States Office of Personnel Management (USOPM) 1994).

Competency: A skill, knowledge, or ability that enables the subject to perform a task or achieve a desired outcome (USOPM, 1994).

Empowerment - A motivational construct manifested in four cognitions: meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact (Spreitzer, 1995).

Extrinsic Motivation: Factors external to individuals and unrelated to the tasks they are performing. Examples include money, good grades, and other rewards (Spreitzer, 1995).

Intrinsic Motivation: Internal desire to perform a particular task. Examples of internal reasons include pleasure, the ability to develop a particular skill, or morals (Spreitzer, 1995).

Morale: An individual motivational aspect of the workplace that can be influenced by events, such as heavy layoffs, the cancellation of overtime, canceling benefits programs, the influence of unions, sick building syndrome, low wages, and employees being mistreated (Kaufmam, 1985).

Motivation – The willingness to accomplish a specific task or goal in order to satisfy some personal need (Kaufmam, 1985).

Needs Analysis – A method to determine where a need comes from and a mechanism that provides insight of clues to how the need may be reduced or eliminated (Kaufmam, 1985).

Needs Assessment – Is a method for identifying and justifying gaps in results, and placing the gaps in prioritized order for attention (Kaufmam, 1985).

Occupational group – Is a description of a body of people who are doing the same kind of work or having the same kind of occupation (Diltz, 1999).

Organizational Values – A framework that surrounds all the interactions of the people within a system. Values and related beliefs determine how events and communications are interpreted and given meaning, and are thus the key to motivation and culture. Shared values and beliefs hold an effective organization or team together while conflicts of values are the source of disharmony and distention (Diltz, 1999).

Performance element – Is a critical component of a job that is used to judge the success of overall task performance (USOPM, 1994).

Productivity - The sum of quality and quantity of work performed by an individual or work unit (USOPM, 1994).

Skill - A specific behavior that enables a person to perform a job task (USOPM, 1994).

Task - A unit of work activity or operation that forms a significant part of a job, function or duty. A task constitutes a logical and necessary step in a performance and usually has a logical beginning and end. A task is sometimes described as a subset of a job (USOPM 1994).

Operational Definitions

Learning Strategy – For this study the definition to be used will be, the Designation as a Navigator, Problem Solver, or Engager on the ATLAS test. Each group has

distinct learning approach preferences (Conti & Kalody 1999).

Mid-level Supervisors – In this study will be defined as all managers in the UI division that have the responsibility of implementing and delegating work to other employees in the agency.

Personality Type – The 16 types of individuals as determined by scores on the Myers Briggs Personality Type Indicator (MBTI manual, 1998).

Job Satisfaction Scores – Indicates job satisfaction as measured by the Job Description Index (JDI) (Conti & Kadoly 1999).

Limitations and Assumptions of the Study

The following limitations and assumptions were accepted in this study:

1. The population of interest was small and limited to a specific organization. Generalization to other populations is not appropriate.

2. The population was limited to a particular set of mid-level supervisors within the OESC. Generalizations to other groups within the OESC are not appropriate. Due to the population limitations, the findings of this study will not be generalizable to any other population or work group.

3. The instruments were assumed to provide valid and reliable data.

4. Participants were assumed to answer the instruments honestly and accurately.

Significance of the Study

This study can help the OESC determine if best practices can be implemented and what employee motivation factors may need to be addressed to enable this implementation. Implementing best practices into the managerial styles of the mid-level supervisors of the Unemployment Insurance Division can help ensure that all employees of the OESC will have the opportunity to provide the best possible customer service to OESC clients. If this can be accomplished, major savings will occur and save OESC clients and the taxpayers of Oklahoma thousands of dollars. If it is possible to do this in one small government agency, then perhaps these same opportunities could be justified in other agencies to provide greater customer service, and the savings would continue to grow as each entity is able to implement best practices.

The first step in facilitating best practices is to identify variables that can be used to maximize the job satisfaction and motivations of mid-level supervisors. This was the step taken in this study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The study of worker satisfaction is vital to the health of an organization. Within any study of worker satisfaction certain questions need to be asked and answered. For example: Do they prefer a particular learning strategy? Do they indicate satisfaction with their work environment and setting (Ausburn, 2006)? Each question has parameters that affect motivation, and motivation is one key to worker satisfaction. Empowerment is the key to worker satisfaction and motivation and is defined as "a motivational construct manifested in four cognitions: meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact" (Spreitzer, 1995). Empowerment as motivation meets individual needs that impact their job satisfaction level. Job satisfaction positively or negatively impacts worker motivation. Motivation is "the willingness to accomplish a specific task or goal in order to satisfy some personal need". A need is defined as "an internal state or a

feeling that makes certain outcomes appear attractive"
(Robbins, 1979, p. 110).

<div align="center">Oklahoma Employment Security Commission</div>

The Oklahoma Employment Security Commission is a
governmental not-for-profit organization normally
categorized as service oriented. As such it falls within a
group of service industry employers accounting for almost
three quarters of all employment within the United States
(Heskett et al., 1997).   The Oklahoma Employment Service
Commission (OESC) consists of two distinct divisions:
Employment Services and Unemployment Insurance.

The OESC is responsible for implementing and
maintaining the Unemployment Insurance Program to pay
unemployment benefits to qualified unemployed wage earners.
The Unemployment Insurance Division (UI) of OESC maintains
the Unemployment Insurance Program established through the
Social Security Act of 1935. Administrative funding for
the program is provided through the Federal Unemployment
Tax Act (FUTA) (Act, 1935).

The Oklahoma Employment Security Commission was
created by the Oklahoma State Legislature in 1941 and
modified in 1980 to implement and maintain the Unemployment
Insurance program. The OESC is funded by the federal

government and regulated by guidelines set forth by the Federal Unemployment Tax Act (Act, 1935).

The FUTA was established to implement Federal Tax Accountability Standards (TPS) to insure accountability for federal monies. The federal government set forth specifically designed rules and regulations which specify that all Unemployment Insurances agencies are limited to one organization per state that is mandated to implement the act (Act, 1935). Funding and implementation of the Unemployment Insurance (UI) program is mandated at no cost to the individual claimants. Funding for this program is generated through the collection of unemployment insurance taxes from employers.

Mid-level Supervisors Worker Positions & Progression

Mid-level Supervisors within the OESC are program managers. They are engaged in the direct supervision of programs related to the delivery of agency services on a statewide basis. Work includes the supervision of professional level staff in providing a variety of services and assistance to eligible clients, responsibility for a work unit of a division or a single program area, assisting in directing a major multi-functional program or unit, or overall responsibility for major program activities involving the principle operations of the agency.

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Mid-level supervisors provide direction and guidance for program services and operations, and coordinate program functions and activities within the agency or division. Individual responsibilities may include direct supervision of professional level field staff, responsibility for a work unit of a division or a single program area, assisting in directing a major multi-functional program or unit, or overall responsibility for major program activities involving the principle operations of the agency.

Typical supervisory functions will vary but will include in general the following types of functions according to the Oklahoma Department of Personnel Management:

1. Manages a major agency unit, section, division, or program; directs or supervises staff in the completion of assigned functions and activities.

2. Develops and recommends policies, rules, and regulations that pertain to the administration of assigned programs consistent with federal and state laws; participates in program analysis, including the analysis of problems and needed services.

3. Directs studies of needs; reviews and analyzes information from studies and projects for immediate and long-range program development; advises

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subordinate program staff and other interested groups
of the proper interpretation and application of agency
rules and policies.

4. Reviews periodic staff reports, administrative
audits, program activities and other information to
evaluate program effectiveness and quality of service;
develops controls to assure accountability for program
operation, policy implementation and the maintenance
of efficiency in various units.

5. Develops and maintains sound personnel policies and
practices; participates in the selection of persons
for educational scholarships; directs staff training
programs (OPM, 2007).

Within the Mid-level supervisory classification, five
levels exist. Each level is distinguished based on the
scope of responsibility associated with supervisory
responsibilities. The levels and associated
responsibilities are:

1. Level I: Mid-level supervisors are assigned
responsibilities related to direct supervisory
responsibility over a professional level staff. This
will include responsibility for all phases of program
staffing, conducting local on-site staff meetings and
training to provide information about program policies

and procedures, counseling with local officials about needs and problems at the local level, and initiating corrective actions concerning program procedures and staff management.

2. Level II: Mid-level supervisors are assigned responsibilities involving the direction or supervision of a work section of a division or will have responsibility for a single program area administered by the agency and will perform all essential functions related to the position.

3. Level III: Mid-level supervisors are assigned responsibilities for assisting in the administration of a major multifunctional program or unit of the agency. This includes assisting in planning, organizing and directing program or unit functions and activities and the supervision of lower level managers or supervisors who are responsible for individual units or programs. Positions at this level are found only in programs or divisions that are large in size, scope and complexity and have a major impact on the operations of the agency.

4. Level IV: Mid-level supervisors are assigned overall responsibility for planning, organizing, directing and coordinating the principle operations

and major program activities of the agency. They will
be found only in programs or divisions large in size,
scope and complexity and will have a major impact on
the principle operations of the large agency.

5. Level V: Mid-level supervisors are assigned
responsibilities for directing and coordinating
functions and activities related to multiple programs
of the agency, including the direction and supervision
of administrators, who are in turn responsible for the
direction of other programs included in the assigned
area of responsibility.

Needs and Worker Satisfaction

Mid-level supervisors are responsible for assessing,
doing a needs analysis, and enabling/empowering
subordinates with the necessary skills, attitudes, and
abilities to meet organizational and client needs. They
have a role of motivating employees because Falkenberg
(1997) stated that data from worker exit poll interviews
show that without meeting the workers needs, the next sound
they may hear is the worker leaving to find a new job
because they are dissatisfied.

Worker needs

Martinez (1994) postulates that every individual
differs in some primary way, every worker is different,

and every worker brings differing needs to the workplace. Ten ways in which people are different can be outlined as, aptitude, ability, achievement, intelligence, concentration, memory, imagination, well-being, self-confidence and interest (Martinez 1994).

Maslow's Hierarchy of needs demonstrates that certain basic human needs affect individuals as general categories. This hierarchy of human needs was broken down by Maslow (1954, 1962) into five basic stages or levels. The first needs are called the survival needs, because they are needed to meet basic physiological needs; food, water, and sleep are examples. First stage needs are essential because without them the individual may not survive to progress through the other four stages. Stage 2 is safety needs, best described as: better/more food, clothing, and shelter. The objective here is to remove the threat of harm or danger. Once survival and safety needs are met, Stage 3, social needs become pre-eminent. The social needs are affiliation, affection, and friendship. The individual seeks to satisfy the needs of belonging. Stage 4 progresses from this belonging stage as it relates to one's view of competency, adequacy, and how they are recognized. As a category, Stage 4 is a view of one's self-worth. The fifth and final stage of Maslow's hierarchy is Self

Actualization, the process of finding self-fulfillment. It

can and has been argued that this stage is transitory in

nature as the individual progresses in the self-learning

process (Maslow 1954, 1962). Hunt broke the Maslow model

down into two basic levels of human needs he described as

high and low. Self Actualization, Self Worth and Esteem

are identified as the higher level needs. While he

categorized social, safety and basic needs as lower level

needs (Hunt, 2000).

Schneider & Alderfer (1973) differentiated Maslow's

five stages into a simple three stage needs methodology.

Commonly called the ERG Theory of needs, it is based not on

a stair stepped process of needs but a causality model

built on frustration regression where one or more needs may

be met or unmet at any given time (Schneider & Alderfer

1973). The three components of Alderfer's model are:

1. Existence needs – meeting common physiological and

   material needs.

2. Relatedness needs – meeting interpersonal needs.

3. Growth needs – a personal or professional

   development.

Goals and Worker Satisfaction

Vroom's (1964) Expectancy Theory provides a framework

to understand worker motivation as it relates to

satisfaction or dissatisfaction in the work place. Expectancy Theory assumes that individuals make conscious, rational choices about behavior.

> "Choices made by a person among alternative courses of action are lawfully related to psychological events occurring contemporaneously within the behavior demonstrated" (Vroom 1982, pp 14-15).

When attracted to the behavior with an expectation that it will help them be successful, individuals are motivated to perform in an appropriate and beneficial way. Expectancy Theory assumes that motivation is always a conscious process, while allowing individuals may not consciously realize what motives them or which processes are driving their behavior at times.

Vroom's Expectancy Theory, while complicated in its design, simplifies a comprehensive approach to the study of worker motivation by measuring effort and expectancy to outcome and performance, while Porter and Lawler's (1967) Expectancy Model views motivation as an individually value laden role. The Expectancy Model measures the production of effort and how it is affected by intrinsic or extrinsic organizational or personal rewards. The Expectancy Model deals with the concept of satisfaction as a motivator.

Locke and Latham (1990) found that setting goals for individuals had a strong influence on their motivation and performance. Their Goal-Setting Theory proposed that conscious goals influence individual behavior. This theory has been substantiated and has become a part of many theories since it was first defined. Goals must be considered when addressing motivation of employees in the workplace.

Another theory to help substantiate the importance of setting goals in work motivation is the Control Theory (Champion & Lord, 1982; Carver & Scheier, 1982; Hyland, 1988; Lord & Hanges, 1987). Control theory is based on a model that argues that action is regulated by a feedback loop. The loop consists of four elements: an input function, a reference value or goal, a comparator, and an output function.

Information from the environment is perceived by the input function, and then it is compared to the reference value; based on that comparison the output function is changed or it stays the same. Control Theory states feedback in reference to the goal actually drives behavior.

According to Dubrin (2000) and Dulewicz and Higgs (2003) feedback is directly related to organizational culture and climate. These factors provide input in the

motivation of employees to meet both needs and goals. Workers emotionally harmonize the culture and climate to facilitate self-motivation; without this ability to harmonize conflict arises and dissatisfaction may occur.

Emotional intelligence is the understanding of employee's personal feelings that dictate how they perform and are motivated. While the concept of emotional intelligence is relatively new (Caporael, 2001), Goleman (1995) asserted that the skills that help people harmonize should become increasingly valued as a workplace asset in the years to come. "Motivation is emotion, and leadership is motivation" (Maddock, 1998, p. 12). Therefore, if one wishes to change or direct motivational levels, which seems to have a direct affect on worker satisfaction, one must understand how and what causes employees behavior to be energized and directed.

Emotional Intelligence utilized to obtain feedback within the work environment comes from outside sources such as other individuals, the task environment, or from within the individual (Ilgen, Fisher, & Taylor, 1979). Workplace feedback is compared to the worker's goal which is the reference value based on the worker's attitudes, or values from others through communication and observation or from

higher-level goals set by those in charge of their performance (Taylor, Fisher, & Ilgen, 1984).

If the discrepancies between what they perceived as goals or values are small, then they should feel satisfaction in achieving the goals. But if the discrepancies are great, then they feel dissatisfaction. This theory has been supported by numerous studies Kerman & Lord, (1991); Locke & Latham; (1990), and Rice, McFarlin, & Bennett, (1989).

Kernan and Lord (1991) found the relationship between performance and satisfaction increased significantly when performance goals were included. Reactions that do not meet the values or discrepancy feedback information can be caused by a change in the goal, a change in expectancies, a change in goal commitment, a change in self-efficacy, or the distortion of feedback (Hollenbeck & Brief, 1988); Klein, (1989); Lord & Hanges, (1987); Taylor et al., (1984); Thomas & Mathieu, (1994).

The key to this information is the fact that behavioral reactions to discrepant information can be more obvious than the observed reactions and can involve persistence, withdrawal, changes in effort, or changes in the tactics used in trying to achieve their goals. If there is a small difference in the goal performance

discrepancy then the individual will persist or increase their efforts to meet the goal. However, if a large difference in the discrepancy feedback occurs, then withdrawal is more likely; in other words, they tend to give up and feel the goal is unattainable to them, unless the goal is highly valued or they are unable to quit or withdraw (Carver & Scheier, 1981).

In essence, when negative discrepancy feedback is used as feedback to the worker it can impact affective, cognitive, and behavioral components of motivation. Later research by Harvey & Lord, (2000) and by Lawrence, Carver & Scheier, (2000) suggests that in addition to the previous feedback process, there exists a second process called a meta-monitoring feedback loop. This loop monitors the rate at which the loop reduces detected discrepancies. This gives the employee a way of showing that progress is occurring and that they are making strides in reaching their goals. However, the same results hold true for this model as well; if the loop shows slow or no change then this causes the employee to become discouraged, but if the loop shows positive change and the results show that they are making progress in meeting their goals then they are encouraged. So it can be assumed that using unrealistic

goals or setting goals that are unattainable cause negative responses in employees.

Unrealistic goals also reduce employee motivation which has an adverse effect on worker satisfaction and productivity. Organizational goals that are reasonable and attainable increase worker motivation and job satisfaction (Carver & Scheier, 2000). Constant failure to meet goals causes workers to expect to fail in future attempts to obtain their goals. Workers who continuously meet their goals and expectations develop an expectation that they can successfully meet future goals. This increases confidence or doubt depending on which outcome occurs for the worker (Wegener & Petty, 1996).

Canli, Zhao, Desmond, Kang, Gross, & Gabvbrieli, (2001) propose that people with higher expectancies for future success will experience positive results and people with lower or negative expectancies for future success will experience negative results. People react to expectancies in either a positive way or a negative way based on the results of the feedback model. This can influence task satisfaction, and is a critical construct in understanding motivational processes. If workers are not satisfied with the task, there is no fulfillment, and they are more likely to suffer from burn-out or become embittered and cynical.

Job satisfaction is directly related to worker perception of how successful they will be in meeting their goals (Weiss, Nicholas, & Daus, 1999).

Individual goals are the driving force behind most theories of motivation, while without self-commitment a goal will have no motivational effect Locke & Latham, (1990). Klein, Wesson, Hollenbeck & Alge (1999) postulated that the higher the expectancy of meeting the goals, the higher the commitment, and concomitantly, the lower the expectancy of meeting the goals, the lower the commitment (Klein, Wesson, Hollenbeck, & Alge, 1999). According to Kolz (1994), expectancy will mediate the relationship between feedback information and persistence. The greater ability to understand how people react to work situations and why they react the way they do is a tremendous tool for employers to use in motivation of their employees to perform at higher levels, have greater job satisfaction, and in turn create better customer service and satisfaction.

Measuring Worker Satisfaction

Scully, (1986) stated, "The job enrichment model of motivation emerges as a viable answer to motivation on the job" (p. 29). Her thesis was that job enrichment led to greater job satisfaction which resulted in improved worker

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motivation and client satisfaction.   However, measuring

worker satisfaction becomes crucial in the development of

organizational strategies to meet worker needs.

   The first step in meeting workers' needs is

identifying their personality types, which utilizes a

Jungian approach. As the perceptual learning type is

identified, the identification of learning strategies

becomes critical. Knowles', (1984) process of andragogy

provided the framework of self-direction in learning to

maximize the process of meeting learner needs. When a

worker's perceptual learning incorporates self-direction,

then satisfaction within the worker themselves and the

environment can be assessed to determine if they are

satisfied or dissatisfied.

Jung and Myers Briggs

   In 1920, Jung published Psychological Types that used

a psychological system from which the Myers-Briggs was

founded two decades later. Jung said that there are two

function-attitudes of living in this world; being

extraverted, and being introverted. Some people see the

difference as being "sociable" and "solitary," "talkative"

or "quiet,". This is not what Jung originally intended.

Extraversion is having the focus on the outside concrete

world, interacting with it. Introversion is focusing on the inner mental world, interacting with it.

Jung (1920) also said there are four basic functions, two of them being perception functions, the other two being judgment functions. The perceiving functions are two basic ways of gathering data about a particular world (inside or out). The first way is through sensing, in that the senses experience nothing but the object itself. The other way is through intuition which experiences patterns and what is hidden beneath the surface of an experience. The two judgment functions are thinking and feeling. Jung did not mean for these to be taken literally. Thinking, as a function, is a process that makes a decision based on objective, impersonal criteria. Feeling is a process that makes a decision based on how it affects others or personal, subjective values.

Each of these four functions can be subdivided into Extraverted and Introverted attitudes, thus making a total of eight (8) functions. They are extraverted sensing, introverted sensing, extraverted intuition, introverted intuition, extraverted thinking, introverted thinking and extraverted feeling, introverted feeling.

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These eight functions are what Jung (1920) postulated people use each and every day. People use all of them; however, they do prefer some over others. People are particularity skilled at using some functions which come automatically, while there are others that people are not very good at using and have to really exert themselves.

The Eight Functions - The following descriptions are from research conducted and published by Berens, (2000).

Sensing

Sensing is a process of becoming aware of sensory information and often involves responding to that sensory information without any judgment or evaluation of it. Sensory information is concrete and tangible in nature. In the sensing process, the focus is on the actual experience, the facts and the data. As an active perceptual process, it is more than stimulation of the five senses. It is the registration of that stimulation and actively being drawn outward to the concrete realities of a situation or inward to recollections of familiar experiences.

<u>Extraverted Sensing</u>

People with this personality type enjoy experiencing and noticing the physical world, scanning for visible reactions and relevant data. People are one with the experience. There is no "naming" or describing - just pure, vivid experience. The whole scene comes into acute awareness almost at once. People may be drawn to experience more and more, seeking any variation that will intensely excite the senses. Writing that is richly descriptive can also evoke extraverted sensing as can other mental stimulation. The process is momentary and tied to the events of the immediate situation. The situation is used in the here and now and defines what is really there in the physical world and adapt to it.

Extraverted Sensing occurs when people scan for information that is relevant to their interests and then mentally register data and facts, such as baseball statistics, the locations of all the restaurants in town, or the names of all the actors in the popular television shows. There can be an active seeking of more and more input to get the whole picture until all sources of input have been exhausted or something else captures their attention. Associated behaviors include eating a whole box

of chocolates for the variety of tastes; playing an
instrument for hours with pure enjoyment, not for practice;
voracious reading or continual asking of questions to get
specifics.

Introverted Sensing

Introverted sensing involves recalling past
experiences, remembering detailed data and what it is
linked to. This personality type often involves storing
data and information, then comparing and contrasting the
current stimulation with similar ones. The immediate
experience or words are instantly linked with the prior
experiences and one registers that there is a similarity or
a difference - for example, noticing that some food doesn't
taste the same and is saltier than it usually is.
Introverted Sensing is also operating when people see
someone who reminds them of someone else. Sometimes the
feeling-tone associated with the recalled image comes into
their awareness along with the information itself. Then the
image can be so strong, their body responds as if reliving
the experience. This could be seen as a source of feelings
of nostalgia or longing for the way things were.

Intuiting

Intuiting is a process of becoming aware of abstract information, like symbols, conceptual patterns, and meanings. It is an intangible "knowing" of what something means, how it relates to something else, or what might happen. Some call this the "sixth" sense. Sometimes this process is stimulated by an external event, or sometimes this abstract information just seems to present itself as awareness.

Extraverted Intuition

Extraverted intuition involves inferring relationships, noticing threads of meaning, and scanning for what could be. People with this personality type involve seeing things "as if" with various possible ways of representing reality. Using this process, these people can hold many different ideas, thoughts, beliefs, and meanings in their minds at once with the possibility that they are all true. This is like weaving themes and "threads" together. They don't know the weave until a thought thread appears or is drawn out in the interaction with a previous one. Thus, there is often an emergent quality to using this

process. A strategy or concept emerges based on the here-and-now interactions, not appearing as a whole beforehand.

Extraverted intuiting involves realizing that there is always another view. An example is when people listen to one friend tell about an argument and understand perfectly and then listen to another friend tell a contradictory story and understand that view also. Then wonder what the real story is because there are always many different possible meanings.

Introverted Intuition

Foreseeing implications, conceptualizing, and having images of the future or profound meaning, introverted intuiting often involves a sense of what will be. The details might be a little fuzzy, but when individuals tune in to this process, there is some sense of how things will be. Using this process, they often are able to get pictures about the future or at least a sense of what will happen before there is any data. Sometimes it is an awareness of what is happening in another location and there is no sensory data to go on. Other times introverted intuiting operates when they conceptualize and get a sense of a whole plan, pattern, theory, or explanation. These are the kinds

of images that come to people in the shower, in meditative
states, or in dreams and help these individuals deeply
understand something. Sometimes the images are profoundly
symbolic and even universally so.

In using this process, people with this personality
type tune into a likely future or something universal. This
information can then be used to decide what to do next,
what to plan for. Introverted intuiting involves
synthesizing the seemingly paradoxical or contradictory,
which takes a problem or situation to a new level. Using
this process, people can have moments when a completely
new, unimagined realization comes to them. There is a
disengagement from interactions in the room, followed by a
sudden "Aha!" or "That's it!" kind of experience. These
kinds of experiences are often seen as if they are
"psychic" in nature. The senses of future and realizations
that come from introverted intuiting have a feeling of
sureness and an imperative quality that seems to demand
action.

Thinking

Thinking is a process of evaluating and making
judgments based on objective criteria. Using this process,

people detach themselves from their values and seek to make decisions based on principles. Activities like discriminating according to a set of criteria or objectively defined standards, analysis according to a set of principles, logic, and cause-effect reasoning are all examples of using the cognitive process of Thinking.

Extraverted Thinking

People with this personality type prefer organizing, segmenting, sorting, and applying logic and criteria. Contingency planning, scheduling, and quantifying utilize the process of Extraverted Thinking. Extraverted Thinking helps organize their environment and ideas through charts, tables, graphs, flow charts, outlines, and so on. An individual may organize their shoeboxes by color, height, style, and comfort or place their money in order from large to small. Sometimes the organizing of Extraverted Thinking is more abstract, like a logical argument that is made to "rearrange" someone else's thinking process! An example is when people point out logical consequences and say, "If you do this, then that will happen." In written or verbal communication, Extraverted Thinking helps people easily follow someone else's logic, sequence, or organization. It also helps them notice when something is missing, like when

someone says he or she is going to talk about four topics and talks about only three. In general, it allows them to compartmentalize many aspects of their lives so they can do what is necessary to accomplish their objectives.

Introverted Thinking

Introverted thinking involves analyzing, categorizing, and figuring out how something works, and often involves finding just the right word to clearly express an idea concisely, crisply, and to the point. Using Introverted Thinking is like having an internal sense of the essential qualities of something, noticing the fine distinctions that make it what it is and then naming it. It also involves an internal reasoning process of deriving sub-categories of classes and sub-principles of general principles. These can then be used in problem solving, analysis, and refining of a product or an idea. This process is evidenced in behaviors like taking apart things or ideas to figure out how they work. The analysis involves looking at different sides of an issue and seeing where there is inconsistency. In so doing, the individual searches for a "leverage point" that will fix problems with the least amount of effort or damage to the system.

<u>Feelings</u>

Feeling is a process of making evaluations based on what is important, where personal, interpersonal, or universal values serve as guideposts. Using the cognitive process of Feeling, situations and information are assessed subjectively. The impact on people, circumstances, appropriateness, harmony, likes, and dislikes are all considered in making Feeling judgments. Weighing different values, considering ethical and moral issues, attending to personal and relationship goals, and having a belief in something all involve this process.

<u>Extraverted Feeling</u>

Persons with this personality type prefer to consider others and respond to them. The extraverted feeling process is used in relation to particular people and situations and so has a more here-and-now quality than a universal, future, or past quality. When particular people that these individuals are involved with are out of their presence or awareness, these individuals can then adjust to new people or situations. This process helps people "grease the wheels" of social interaction. Often, the process of extraverted feeling seems to involve a desire to connect

with (or disconnect from) others and is often evidenced by expressions of warmth (or displeasure) and self-disclosure.

The "social graces" such as being polite, being nice, being friendly, being considerate, and displaying appropriate behavior, often revolve around the process of Extraverted feeling. Associated behaviors might include remembering birthdays, finding just the right card for a person and selecting a gift based on what a person likes. The need to stay in touch, laugh at jokes when others laugh, and try to get people to act kindly to each other also involve people with Extraverted Feeling.

Using this process, individuals respond according to expressed or even unexpressed wants and needs of others. Individuals may ask people what they want or need or self-disclose to prompt them to talk more about themselves. This often sparks conversation and lets others know more about them so they can better adjust their behavior.

Introverted Feeling

People with this personality type prefer to evaluate importance and maintain congruence. It is often hard to put words to the values used to make Introverted Feeling judgments since they are often associated with images and

underlying tones more than words. This cognitive process,
often serves as a filter for information that matches what
is valued and wanted. People engage in the process of
Introverted Feeling when a value is compromised and they
think, "Sometimes some things just have to be said." On the
other hand, most of the time this process works "in
private" and is seldom expressed directly. Actions often
speak louder than words. This process helps these
individuals know when people are not truthful or insincere
in their actions or if the people are basically good
intentions. This feeling is comparable to having an
internal sense of the "essence" of a person or a project,
and reading another person or action or project with fine
distinctions among feeling-tones. When the other person's
values and beliefs are congruent with their values and
beliefs, they are more inclined to feel kinship with them
and want to connect with them.

Malcolm Knowles and Learning strategies

Define Learning

The depth or nature of the changes involved is likely
to be different. Some years ago Säljö (1979) carried out a
simple, but very useful piece of research. He asked a

number of adult students what they understood by learning. Their responses fell into five main categories:

1. Learning as a quantitative increase in knowledge. Learning is acquiring information or knowing a lot.

2. Learning as memorizing. Learning is storing information that can be reproduced.

3. Learning as acquiring facts, skills, and methods that can be retained and used as necessary.

4. Learning as making sense or abstracting meaning. Learning involves relating parts of the subject matter to each other and to the real world.

5. Learning as interpreting and understanding reality in a different way. Learning involves comprehending the world by reinterpreting knowledge.

Principles of Learning as determined by Malcolm Knowles;

1. Adults need to be involved in the planning and evaluation of their instruction.

2. Experiences (including mistakes) provide the basis for learning.

3. Adults are most interested in learning about subjects that have immediate relevance to their job or personal life.

4. Adult learning is problem-centered rather than content oriented.

Learning types – styles

What are learning styles? Learning styles are simply different approaches or ways of learning. There are several different types of learning styles: Print learners are people who learn best by reading, writing, and are considered visual learners. Interactive learners learn best by verbalizing, group interaction, activities and discussions.

Visual Learners learn through seeing, they need to see the body language and facial expressions of other people to fully understand the content of a discussion. They may think in pictures and learn best from visual displays including: diagrams, illustrated text books, overhead transparencies, videos, flipcharts and hand-outs. During a lecture or classroom discussion, visual learners often prefer to take detailed notes to absorb the information.

Auditory Learners learn through listening learning best through verbal lectures, discussions, talking things

through and listening to what others have to say. Auditory learners interpret the underlying meanings of speech through listening to tone of voice, pitch, speed and other nuances. Written information may have little meaning until it is heard. These learners often benefit from reading text aloud and using a tape recorder.

Tactile/Kinesthetic/Hap tic Learners learn through, moving, doing and touching learning best occurs through a hands-on approach, actively exploring the physical world around them. They may find it hard to sit still for long periods and may become distracted by their need for activity and exploration.

Atlas

It is clear to educators that individual differences exist in how students approach learning. For nearly two decades, educators have turned to the concept of learning styles as a means of exploring individual differences in learners with instruments to measure these differences developed by Kolb, Gregorc, Canfield, and Dunn (Conti & Kalody, 1999). Consequently, many in the field of adult education have begun to explore the concept of learning strategies as a way to better understand these individual

differences among learners. Contemporary studies with learning strategies suggest that distinct groups of learners do exist.

Regardless of the type of setting, learners use various strategies to accomplish their learning needs. Learning strategies are those techniques or specialized skills that the learner has developed to use in both formal and informal learning situations. They are techniques and skills that an individual elects to use in order to accomplish a specific learning task. These strategies vary by individual and by learning objective. Much of the research in the area of learning strategies has used the Self-Knowledge Inventory of Lifelong Learning Strategies (SKILLS). This research has consistently shown that various groups of learners can be distinguished by the learning strategies they use.

ATLAS (Assessing the Learning Strategies of AdultS) is the result of much of this research. Conti and Kolody (1999) provide an overview of how ATLAS was developed from the research base on SKILLS.

Effects of Job Satisfaction on Motivation

"Americans are growing increasingly unhappy with their jobs. The decline in job satisfaction is widespread among workers of all ages and across all income

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brackets. Half of all Americans today say they are
satisfied with their jobs, down from nearly 60 percent
in 1995. But among the 50 percent who say they are
content, only 14 percent say they are very satisfied."
(The Conference Board, 2005)

Job satisfaction as an attribute of job enrichment has
proven to be effective in increased productivity and
customer satisfaction. Cameron and Pierce, (1994) have
shown that there is an enormous gap in motivational
practices within organizations.

According to Dubrin (2000) and Dulewicz & Higgs
(2003), positive and enriching organizational cultures and
climates are necessary in motivating employees. Goleman
(1995) asserted that the skills which help people harmonize
should become increasingly valued as a workplace asset in
the years to come. "Motivation is Emotion, and Leadership
is Motivation" (Maddock, 1998, p. 12). Therefore, it can
be posited that if one wishes to change or direct
motivational levels, which seems to have a direct affect on
customer satisfaction, then one must understand how and
what causes employees' behaviors to be energized and
directed within the context of the organization's culture
and climate.

Kernan & Lord (1991) found the relationship between performance and satisfaction increased significantly when performance goals were included. Later research by Harvey & Lord (2000) and Lawrence, Carver & Scheier (2000) suggested that in addition to the previous feedback process, there exists a second process called a meta-monitoring feedback loop. This loop monitors the rate at which the loop reduces detected discrepancies. This gives the employee a way of showing that progress is being made and that they are making strides in reaching their goals. By setting goals that are reasonable and attainable, employee motivation and job satisfaction increases, which in turn increases customer satisfaction and service (Carver & Scheier, 2000).

Individual goals are the driving force behind most theories of motivation, but without self-commitment a goal will have no motivational effect (Locke & Latham, 1990). Klein, Wesson, Hollenbeck and Alge (1999) suggested that the higher the expectancy of meeting the goals, the higher the commitment. Concurrently, the lower the expectancy of meeting the goals, the lower the commitment of employees to meet the goals set for them. According to Kolz, expectancy will mediate the relationship between feedback information and persistence (Kolz, 1994). Greater ability to

understand how people react to work situations and why they react the way they do is a tremendous tool for employers to use in motivating their employees to perform at higher levels, have greater job satisfaction, and in turn, create better customer service and satisfaction.

Summary

Evident from the research previously discussed workers have certain needs that must be addressed in order for them to be satisfied in their work or change is not likely to occur. The problem has been and continues to be how to measure these needs in order to enhance worker job satisfaction, so that change - in this case, implementing best practices into the OESC to meet TPS requirements of the Federal Government - can occur. Three different areas of measurement have been chosen in order to determine this outcome. They are the Job Descriptive Index or JDI, the Myers Briggs Personality Type Indicator, and the ATLAS learning strategies test/survey.

The JDI measures job satisfaction, so that management can determine if the Mid-Level Supervisors are satisfied or not. The research shows that one half of all workers are not satisfied; so if the agency is a reflection of the population as a whole, then the agency needs to know about the personality types that the supervisors have in order to

address the needs of the workers to enhance the
satisfaction of the supervisors. The Myers Briggs
Personality Type Indicator measures the personality types
so that management can understand the interactions of the
supervisors in their management styles. The ATLAS
measures the learning strategies of the supervisors so that
the agency can address ways of providing training and
skills needed by the supervisors to implement the change
(best practices) into the management of the agency in order
to meet the TPS that the Federal Government has dictated to
the agency.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Overview of the Study

The purpose of this study was to describe the (1) level of job satisfaction, the (2) personality types of mid-level supervisors, and the (3) preferred learning strategies within the Oklahoma Employment Security Commission (OESC) Unemployment Insurance (UI) Division using the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) questionnaire, the Myers Briggs Personality Type Indicator (MTBTI), and the Assessing Learning Strategies of AdultS (ATLAS) to measure issues and variables that affect job satisfaction.

Previous research in this study found that in order for the supervisors to be trained in management best practices, their personality types and learning styles would need to be identified so that optimal methods of implementing training could be used to ensure the best results. Therefore, the research questions for this study addressed these issues:

1. What are the job satisfaction levels?

2. What are the personality types?

3. What are the learning strategies?

Of mid-level supervisors employed by the OESC
Unemployment Insurance Division as measured by the Job
Descriptive Index (JDI), Myers Briggs Personality Type
Indicator (MBTI), and Assessing the Learning Strategies of
AdultS (ATLAS). And secondly how do these different data
sets influence each other.

Design of the Study

This study was descriptive in design and methodology
Fraenkel and Wallen (2006) defined descriptive research as
studies that "describe a given state of affairs as fully
and carefully as possible" (p.14). This design purpose fit
the needs of this study, because its purpose was to
describe the existing characteristics of a specific group
of people on a specific set of variables, without
manipulating or controlling any features within their
environment or working situation.

The type of statistics used to summarize and present
data in descriptive research are generally referred to as
descriptive statistics. Salkind (2004) stated that
descriptive statistics are used to describe a sample's
characteristics, and also to describe the characteristics
of a given population by measuring each of its items and

then summarizing the set of measures in various ways. According to Fraenkel and Wallen (2006) the major advantage of descriptive statistics is that "they permit researchers to describe the information contained in many, many scores with just a few indices ..." (p.189). They also pointed out, "When such indices are calculated for a sample ..., they are called statistics; when they are calculated from an entire population they are called parameters" (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006, p, 189).

Unlike inferential statistics, which are used when a researcher wishes to make an inference about some characteristics of a population based on data obtained from a sample (Fraenkel & Wallen 2006; Salkind, 2004), descriptive statistics are appropriate for summarizing information that characterizes a population or a sample from which no inference is to be extended to a population.

According to Salkind (2004) descriptive statistics are used to describe the basic features of the data in a study. They provide simple summaries about a sample or a population and the variables that were measured. With descriptive statistics the researcher simply describes what is or what the data show. Descriptive statistics simply describe what is going on in a set of data.

Descriptive statistics are used to present quantitative descriptions in a manageable form and are always used when an entire population is included in a study. A research study may have many measures or may measure a large number of people on any measure. In either case, descriptive statistics help to simplify large amounts of data, and to summarize data in a sensible way. Descriptive statistics provide a powerful summary that may enable comparisons across people or other units (Salkind, 2004).

Because this study was a "census study" that included an entire population rather than a sample, descriptive statistics were the appropriate tools for describing the current situation on several measured variables. Descriptive statistics therefore, were used to summarize the measured variables and produce a "snapshot" of the population studied. Using traditional calculation, several population parameters were obtained for each of the variables in the study.

Methodology

Population

According to Salkind (2004) statisticians define a population as the entire collection of items that is the focus of concern. A population can be of any size; and

while the items need not be uniform, they must share at least one measurable feature. The critical difference between a population and a sample is that in a population the researcher's interest is to identify and describe its characteristics, whereas in a sample, the researcher's interest is usually to make inferences about the characteristics of the population from which the sample was drawn (Salkind, 2004).

This research within the Oklahoma Employment Security Commission (OESC) employed an entire population, and no sampling was used. The study described a small population of 45 mid-level supervisors, who were somewhat entrenched within a civil service delivery to a diverse clientele. All participants involved in this study were responsible for the supervision of employees within the Oklahoma Employment Security Commission (OESC) UI Division. Their responsibilities included the implementation of the Wagner-Peyser act of 1933 which has been revised and is now referred to as the Workforce Investment Act (1998) and the meeting of Tax Performance Standards (TPS) for the agency. Measuring the level of job satisfaction of the mid-level supervisors was assumed in the study to be for improving and ensuring that the UI Division was able to meet the standards and exceed the minimum standards set by TPS.

Since the UI Division is a sole provider service agency, it was viewed as important that customer satisfaction be maintained. As motivation adds to or detracts from a worker's performance, it has a corollary effect on consumers of the service provided the by the organization.

Instrumentation

Three instruments were used in this study:

1. The *Job Descriptive Index* (JDI)

2. The *Myers Briggs Personality Type Indicator* (MBIT)

3. The *Assessing the Learning Strategies of AdultS* (ATLAS)

Job Description Index (JDI)

The JDI was critical in this study to assess the job satisfaction levels of the OESC UI Division mid-level supervisors, in order to determine if it was likely that best practices in management could be implemented.

Research was conducted for this study to determine if there was already available a reliable and valid instrument that would measure the job satisfaction level of these mid-level supervisors. If an appropriate survey instrument was already available, then there would be no need to develop a job satisfaction survey and go through the difficult

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process of validating and testing the new instrument. The added benefit would be that an existing instrument would be available to others who might wish to conduct research in this area. The literature review revealed that an appropriate survey instrument had indeed been developed and was available for use. That instrument was the Job Descriptive Index (JDI).

The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) survey instrument measures satisfaction within the work environment. Areas surveyed are present work, pay, promotion opportunities, supervision, and co-workers. Respondents answer yes or no to the questions within the five categories. Results could be used in this study to determine if the job satisfaction level of the OESC mid-level supervisors was positive or negative. The levels measured determine the attitude of the workers towards their jobs, the level of satisfaction in regard to pay or compensation, how they view their supervision and co-workers, and how they perceive their opportunities to advance in their jobs, or their chances of promotion.

Each aspect of the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) has a motivational implication, either positive or negative, for the worker within the organization. The higher the satisfaction level with each aspect, the higher the

worker's motivation. Utilization of the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) provides uniformity of information in a standardized format. Each question is asked in a simple and direct manner, allowing for ease of administration and analysis. The reliability of this survey instrument is respectable. The instrument has coefficient alpha values for satisfaction with the work from .75 to .94; for pay the alpha ranged from .78 to .91; promotions alpha ranged from .82 to .87; supervision alpha ranged from .87 to .92; co-workers alpha ranged form .87 to .92 (Fields, 2002).

The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) is a survey that collects first demographic data and then primary job satisfaction data about participants in six (6) general categories measuring individual feelings (motivators).

This survey has six subgroups that are used in measuring levels of satisfaction. The first five subgroups have an equal number of five total questions; the sixth subgroup has eight separate questions. Each subgroup has positive questions and negative questions, which were properly coded in order to correctly score the questions. There are three possible answers to each question: yes, no, and undecided. A value was placed on each answer in order to correctly run the survey in the SPSS format.

1. Each question that was stated in the positive a numerical value was given: positive=3, negative=0 and undecided=1. NOTE: undecided answers receive more points than negative answers, and positive answers receive 3 points more than negative answers.

2. For each question that is stated in the negative, a value was assigned as well: "example questions 4 and 5 under the first subgroup," these are the values for the answers; 3=0 and 0=3.

3. The score for each subgroup is complied by adding total number of points for answer. However, if more than two questions were omitted no score was recorded for the subgroup. In the sixth subgroup which has eight questions, if three or more questions were left unanswered than no score was recorded.

A copy of the JDI is attached and can be found in Appendix 1.

Myers Briggs Personality Type Indicator (MBTI)

The next issue that arose after the JDI was selected was whether the job satisfaction level of the mid-level supervisors would impede the implementation of best management practices, than some method of raising the level of satisfaction would be needed. As these needs are identified, training could be provided to improve job

satisfaction so the mid-level supervisors could implement the best practices. If training was to be successful, it seemed logical to target the training to the characteristics of the mid-level supervisors so they could gain maximum knowledge needed to implement the best management skills. Previous research in this study found that the *Myers Briggs Personality Type Indicator* would be an excellent choice to provide insight into how these mid-level supervisors interact and react to different training methods. MBTI was selected because of its excellent reputation and history of respectability in the field.

The purpose of the MBTI is to take the theory of psychological types developed by Jung (1921, 1971) and make it understandable and useful in people's lives. The essence of the theory is that seemingly random variation in behavior is actually quite orderly and consistent, due to basic differences in the way individuals prefer to use their perception and judgment Jung, (1921, 1971).

The desire of the MBTI instrument is to identify, from a person's own self-reporting of easily recognized reactions, the basic preferences of people in regard to perception and judgment, so that the effects of each preference, by themselves and in combination, can be

established by research and put into practical use (MBTI manual, 1985).

Reliability is how consistently a test measures what it attempts to measure. According to the MBTI instruction manual, the instrument meets and exceeds the standards for psychological instruments in terms of its reliability (MBTI manual, 1985). Validity is the degree to which an instrument measures what it intends to measure, and the degree to whatever is being measured by the instrument has meaning. The MBTI has proven to be valid in determining personality types in a consistent manner (MBTI manual, 1985). Whether computed using logical split-half, consecutive item split-half or coefficient alpha the internal consistency of the MBTI is quite high in all samples tested to date by the MBTI survey group, (MBTI manual, 1985).

The MBTI test instrument consists of 93 questions separated into four separate groups that force the subject to choose which answer best describes how they feel or act and which answer appeals to them more. The results are then broken into four separate groupings:

1. Extraversion (E) and Introversion (I)

2. Sensing (S) and Intuition (N)

3. Thinking (T) and Feeling (F)

4. Judging (J) and Perceiving (P)

Combinations of the four major groups create 16 different personality types identified as listed below. These types have separate identifiers that help explain the personality characteristics of the group.

ISTJ Introverted Sensing with auxiliary extraverted Thinking	**ISFJ** Introverted Sensing with auxiliary extraverted Feeling	**INFJ** Introverted intuition with auxiliary extraverted Feeling	**INTJ** Introverted intuition with auxiliary extraverted Thinking
ISTP Introverted Thinking with auxiliary extraverted Sensing	**ISFP** Introverted Feeling with auxiliary extraverted Sensing	**INFP** Introverted Feeling with auxiliary extraverted intuition	**INTP** Introverted Thinking with auxiliary extraverted intuition
ESTP Extraverted Sensing with auxiliary introverted Thinking	**ESFP** Extraverted Sensing with auxiliary introverted Feeling	**ENFP** Extraverted intuition with auxiliary introverted Feeling	**ENTP** Extraverted intuition with auxiliary introverted Thinking
ESTJ Extraverted Thinking with auxiliary introverted Sensing	**ESFJ** Extraverted Feeling with auxiliary introverted Sensing	**ENFJ** Extraverted Feeling with auxiliary introverted intuition	**ENTJ** Extraverted Thinking with auxiliary introverted intuition

In order to better understand what these subgroups are describing, short descriptions of each subgroup are listed below.

ISTJ: The ISTJ subgroup describes people who direct their energy toward the inner world of ideas and information. They prefer to clarify concepts and information, seeking to develop knowledge that is as clear

as possible. They place a large degree of trust in experience, but also envisage future goals providing there is a clear pathway to that goal.

ISFJ: The ISFJ subgroup shows a preference to direct energy toward the inner world of thoughts and emotions. They try to clarify ideas and information, particularly when it relates to people and important relationships. They are quiet, serious observers of people, and are generally conscientious and loyal.

INFJ: The INFJ subgroup shows a preference to direct energy toward the inner world of thoughts and emotions. They use their imaginations to come up with new ideas, possibilities and insights, especially in relation to other people and important beliefs. They are generally good at developing insights about people, even though they often keep their thoughts to themselves.

INTJ: The INTJ subgroup describes people who prefer to direct energy towards the inner world of thoughts and emotions. They use their imaginations to come up with new ideas, possibilities and perspectives. They try to organize their lives on a logical basis, and produce plans and strategies to put their ideas into practice.

ISTP: The ISTP subgroup indicates that people direct their energy toward the inner world of thoughts and

emotions. They try to analyze situations and come up with explanations of how things work and interact. They prefer dealing with tangible problems and proven experience; they enjoy solving organizational problems that need to be thought through before making a decision.

ISFP: The ISFP subgroup prefers to direct energy toward the inner world of thoughts and emotions. They give importance to particular beliefs or opinions, particularly to those that relate to people that they know and their current experiences. They tend to be caring and sensitive towards others.

INFP: The INFP subgroup shows a preference to direct energy toward the inner world of thoughts and emotions. They tend to give importance to particular ideas or beliefs, focusing on those things that they believe in most strongly. They want to deal with patterns and possibilities, especially with people. They prefer to undertake work that has a meaningful purpose.

INTP: The INTP subgroup directs their energy toward the inner world of thoughts and emotions. They tend to structure and organize their ideas, trying to come up with theories and explanations to explain new areas of scientific research or experience. They try to understand

the full complexity of any situation and enjoy solving difficult intellectual problems.

ESTP: The ESTP subgroup chooses to direct energy toward the outer world of actions and spoken words. They like to solve problems, take action and take ideas and concepts and put them into reality, bringing them into being. They are action oriented problem solvers, and often prefer to work with practical organizational issues.

ESFP: The ESFP subgroup wants to direct energy toward the outside world of actions and spoken words. They prefer to get things done, and quickly, and they enjoy doing things with and for people. They seek to live life to the fullest and try to create experiences for others as well. They are at their best solving urgent problems, such as fighting fires or trouble shooting problems.

ENFP: The ENFP subgroup shows a preference to direct energy toward the outer world of actions and spoken words. They strive to develop new potential by exploring new possibilities and trying to create new situations that yield the expectation of something better. They enjoy work that involves experimentation and variety.

ENTP: The ENTP subgroup shows a desire to direct energy toward the outer world of actions and spoken words. They try to create new potential, changing things to see if

any improvement can be made, and generally working toward a better future. They often try to challenge the status quo and like instigating change.

ESTJ: The ESTJ subgroup prefer to direct energy toward the outside world of actions and spoken words. They try to introduce logical organization and structure into the way things are done. They prefer dealing with facts and the present, and are likely to implement tried-and-trusted solutions to practical problems in a businesslike and professional manner.

ESFJ: The ESFJ subgroup shows a tendency to direct energy toward the outer world of actions and spoken words. They seek harmony in personal relationships, engendering a team spirit and being an encouragement to others. They like dealing with people, and organize their lives on a personal basis.

ENFJ: People who are identified as the subgroup ENFJ prefer to direct their energy toward the outer world of actions and spoken words trying to build harmony in important personal relationships with others. Their lives are organized on a personal basis, seeking to develop and promote personal growth in people they value.

ENTJ: The ENTJ subgroup prefer to direct energy toward the outer world of actions and spoken words. They

prefer to organize and structure the world according to

logical principles. They tend to want to control life,

organize systems and people to meet task oriented goals and

try to improve the way things are done.

Assessing the Learning Strategies of AdultS (ATLAS)

Also important in successfully targeting necessary

training for the OESC mid-level supervisors for maximum

success is knowledge of the way they prefer to learn. The

instrument selected to measure this variable was the

Assessing the Learning Strategies of AdultS or ATLAS.

This instrument was created and validated to quickly

identify the preferred learning strategies of adults (Conti

& Kolody, 1998). Adult learners are characterized as having

a preference for the Navigator, Problem Solver, or Engager

learning strategies when approaching learning tasks or

situations (Conti & Kolody,1999a).

Navigators "are conscientious, results-oriented high

achievers who favor making logical connections, planning

and organizing activities" (Conti & Kolody, 1999a, p. 9).

Navigators like to know what is expected in the learning

situation (Conti & Kolody, 1999a, p. 9). Navigators like

structured learning environments where they are in control

(p. 10). Knowing how to locate and use the best information

is beneficial to facilitating Navigators' learning (Fellenz & Conti, 1989).

Problem Solvers are critical, reflective thinkers. Accordingly, Problems Solvers make extensive use of the Critical Thinking learning strategies of Testing Assumptions, Generating Alternatives, and Conditional Acceptance (Fellenz & Conti, 1989, pp. 12-13). Problem Solvers prefer to test assumptions and evaluate the specifics and generalizability in a learning situation (Conti & Kolody, 1999a). They formulate options to devise a number of solutions to learning situations. Problem Solvers tend to accept conditional learning outcomes while keeping an open mind to other learning opportunities and possibilities (Conti & Kolody, 1999a).

Engagers are passionate about learning. They tend to learn with feeling, and learn best when they are actively engaged in a meaningful manner with whatever task they are involved (Conti & Kolody, 1999a). The ability to have fun or gain some sort of satisfaction in a learning situation is a motivating factor for Engager participation. Engagers judge the value of the learning experience and the level of their motivation to determine if the expected reward is worth the effort. If the learning activity is not perceived or expected to be a worthwhile or enjoyable experience, the

Engager will seek out another activity that they find more meaningful (Conti & Kolody, 1999a). Another motivating factor in the extent of the Engager's confidence is whether or not the learning task will keep their interest enough to complete it. The use of mental images to facilitate problem-solving is a common trait of learners with the Engager learning strategy (Conti & Kolody, 1999a, p. 15).

The instrument itself is a two-sided single page survey that that is folded equally so as the subjects are taking the test, they can follow the instructions by reading and following the arrows to discover which learning style they prefer. The survey places subjects into one of the three ATLAS groups. The survey takers simply follow the directions and arrows to find their group.

The ATLAS test was derived statistically from the Self-Knowledge Inventory of Lifelong Learning Strategies (SKILLS) model which was developed in the early 1990s. Since the ATLAS was statistically derived from the SKILLS test, it potentially carried the established validity of its parent instrument. Construct validity for the ATLAS was established by using cluster and discriminant analysis. To establish content validity for the ATLAS test discriminant analysis was used to determine the differences between the proposed three learning strategy groups (Conti & Kolody,

1999). Although the ATLAS has only a few items; each item was based on powerful multivariate procedures of discriminant analysis (Conti & Kolody, 1999, p.19).

Reliability based on test-retest for the ATLAS has not been established in either the initial development or in the subsequent published research for the instrument, which hampers the general acceptance as a research tool. In response to this barrier of general acceptance as a research tool the reliability for the ATLAS test has been demonstrated in both dissertations and informal studies that have found strong test-retest coefficients. Ghost Bear (2001) reported reliability as .87 and Ausburn & Ausburn (2005) found it to be above .90 in informal studies.

Criterion-related validity for the ATLAS test was initially established by comparing ATLAS placements to actual group placements using the SKILLS parent instrument.

Because of the newness of ATLAS it has not yet developed a large database in the published literature. However the strategies utilized by the ATLAS are grounded in historically and theoretically sound concepts of learner differences theory (Ausburn & Brown, 2006). The ATLAS extends the theory of Jung (1934-1954) and the Keirsey & Bates' (1984) 16 personality types, commonly referred to as the Myers Briggs Personality Type Indicator (MBTI), and

integrates theory from cognitive styles or cognitive controls (Ausburn & Ausburn, 1978), Dunn and Dunn learning styles, the four distinct learning styles of Kolb, (1984), and the precepts of andragogy developed by Knowles (1980, 1990). Conti, Fellenz, and Kolody (1989, 1993, 1995, and 2004) developed a definition of learning strategies as techniques or specialized skills that the learner has adapted to use in both formal and informal learning situations.

Learning strategies are "behaviors developed by an individual through experiences with learning" that they chose to utilize in accomplishing learning tasks (Conti, Fellenz, and Kolody, 1989, 1993, 1995, and 2004, p.184). The strategies model is grounded in the principles of cognitive theory and modern andragogy, because the strategies are closely tied to lived experience and human behavior (Ausburn & Brown, 2006).

Procedures

An IRB approval form was completed and approved by the University before any research was conducted (Appendix 2). Permission was received from the Director of the UI Division of OESC to conduct the study (Appendix 3). After these forms were collected, the researcher then set up time frame for the data collection.

The researcher collected data by administering the surveys to the 45 mid-level supervisors in groups of 15 on three consecutive days that were set aside every two months for professional training. Since this is part of their normal training routine, no time was lost for this study. Each group was given a consent form, which they were asked to fill out and return to the researcher. After collecting the consent forms, willing group members were then issued a packet containing the demographic survey, the job satisfaction survey called the *Job Descriptive Index (JDI)*, the *Myers Briggs Personality Type Indicator survey (MBTI)*, and the *Assessing the Learning Strategies of AdultS (ATLAS)*.

They were then instructed regarding how each survey was to be completed and told that a person would be selected to collect the surveys and instruments as they completed them. Each instrument was completed by the entire group before addressing the next one. At that time they were again instructed on how to complete each instrument and told it would be gathered by a member of the group. Each group was treated exactly the same and the instruments were issued and completed in the same manner each time. The collected instruments were placed in a plain envelope and dated with that group's date along with

the number of instruments collected. The number of instruments was compared to the number of consent forms and the number of people in the group. If all three items matched, the designated member of the group that collected the instruments sealed the envelope and gave it to the researcher.

<div align="center">*Analysis of Data*</div>

After all data were obtained by the researcher, instruments were scored and recorded for each participant. Data were then coded and entered into an SPSS data file. The *Statistical Package for the Social Sciences* (SPSS) version 11 computer program was then used to analyze the data using standard descriptive statistics including measures of central tendency, frequency counts and distributions, standard deviations, and cross-tabulations. Descriptive parameters for the study's population were displayed in tables for easy visual inspection, analysis, and comparisons.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

<u>Introduction</u>

The data for this study were collected from survey instruments given to 45 (100%) mid-level supervisors of the Oklahoma Employment Security Commission (OESC) Unemployment Insurance (UI) Division. These data were collected during regular professional staff training periods.

The supervisors were split into three different random groups of 15, and each group was assigned to one of the three days set aside for this training. The researcher presented the instruments to the three random groups in the same manner and in the same sequence in order to ensure that information about the instruments was presented in the same manner to each group. A member of each group was assigned to collect the instruments to ensure anonymity and to make sure they were filled out correctly. Questions from the group about the instruments were answered only by the researcher.

Demographics Profile

No identifying categories or identifiers were utilized in the study, only self reported data was used in order to ensure anonymity of the participants of this study.

Of the 45 mid-level supervisors of the OESC UI Division who participated in the study 32 (71%) were female and 13 were males (29%) (Table 1). This is similar to the population of the workforce of the OESC and other state agencies in general according to Barbara Williams OESC compliance director (personal conversation February, 2007).

The average age for the 45 mid-level supervisors of the OESC UI Division shows that 20 (45%) are 51 years or older (Table 1).

The education levels of the supervisors vary from having a high school diploma to having a master's degree with 38 (85%) of the supervisors having some college education, 13 (29%) having a Bachelors degree and 3 (7%) with a Masters degree.

The ethnic variations of the supervisors in this study shows that 36 (80%) of the participants in this study are white, 6 (13%) African Americans, 1 (2%) Asian, 1 (2%) Hispanic, 1 (2%) Native American.

Of the 45 mid-level supervisors who participated in this study. 23 (51%) are married, 9 (20%) are single and

13 (29%) were divorced. The participants were not asked if they were widows or widowers. A verbal complaint was expressed during the data collection process that there was not a place to mark if they were widowed. The researcher indicated that they should mark single if they were widowed.

State agencies have been considered a safe haven for people with physical limitations because the state cannot discriminate against those with physical handicaps. While the private sector can and does require physicals before employing individuals, state and federal agencies do not require physicals unless the job requires specific physical requirements, for example the Oklahoma Highway Patrol. However, only one participant in this study had a self-reported disability (Table 1).

Table 1: Distribution of Demographic Variables

Variable	No.	Percent
Gender		
Male	13	28.89
Female	32	71.11
Age		
31-35	3	6.67
36-40	6	13.33
41-45	7	15.56
46-50	9	20.00
51-55	7	15.56
56-60	11	24.44
Over 60	2	4.44
Education		
High School	7	15.56
Some College	20	44.44
Associates Degree	2	4.44
Bachelors Degree	13	28.89
Masters Degree	3	6.67
Ethnicity		
African American	6	13.33
Asian	1	2.22
Hispanic	1	2.22
Native American	1	2.22
White	36	80.00
Marital Status		
Married	23	51.11
Single	9	20.00
Divorced	13	28.89
Disability		
Yes	1	2.22
No	44	97.78

The average years of experience working for the agency ranged from 1 to over 30 years, with the highest percentage in the 16-25 (47%) year range (Table 2).

In terms of years of experience as a supervisor with the agency, 23 (51%) of the mid-level supervisors for the OESC UI Division have been supervisors 5 years or less. The

next highest amount was the 30 years and older group at 9 (20%). This could be because of the high attrition rate for the agency (14%) and can be attributed to the retirement of OESC UI division mid-level supervisors in the last 5 years (according to the Human Resource department of the OESC).

In order to determine whether or not the mid-level supervisors are money-oriented or service-oriented, the supervisors were asked how important money and service to others was in finding a new job. The items used the following Likert-like scale:

1. Not Important

2. Not Very Important

3. Does Not Play a Part in My Decision

4. Important

5. Very Important

Although individual responses varied, the cumulative results indicated that 38 (84%) felt that both pay and helping others is either important or very important. However, while 22 (49%) rated pay as important, only 12 (27%) rated helping others as important. Well over one-half 26 (58%) felt that helping others was very important in a job while about one-third 16 (36%) felt pay was very important. Both pay and helping others are important to most the supervisors, but they differ in the degree of this

importance. This is an indication that the mid-level supervisors at OESC UI Division are service-oriented people rather than money-oriented which could have an effect on the probability of implementing best practices.

Of the 45 supervisors surveyed in this study, 14 (31%) can retire in the next 5 years, 13 (29%) in 10 years, 8 (18%) in 15 years, 6 (13%) in 20 Years and 4 (9%) with over 20 years until retirement age.

In this study 27 mid-level supervisors (60%) worked a normal 8-5 workday; 18 (40%) of the mid-level supervisors in this study have chosen to utilize the opportunity to work a flexible work schedule rather than the traditional 8-5 workday (Table 2).

OESC restricts employees from obtaining overtime pay, so they do not allow employees to work more than 40 hours per week. However, the mid-level supervisors of the OESC UI Division report that they work at their jobs more than the required 40 hours per week with 23 (51%) working more than 2 to 8 hours more in a week (Table 2).

Table 2: Distribution of Professional Variables

Variable	Frequency	Percent
Agency Experience		
1-5 years	8	17.78
6-10 years	0	0
11-15 years	5	11.11
16-20 years	13	28.89
20-25 years	8	17.78
26-30 years	1	4.44
Over 30 years	9	20.00
Supervision Experience		
1-5 years	23	51.11
6-10 years	6	13.33
11-15 years	6	13.33
16-20 years	3	6.67
20-25 years	3	6.67
26-30 years	2	4.44
Over 30 years	2	4.44
Importance of Pay		
Not Important	1	2.22
Not Very Important	2	4.44
Not Apply	4	8.89
Important	22	48.89
Very Important	16	35.56
Importance of Helping Others		
Not Important	2	4.44
Not Apply	5	11.11
Important	12	26.67
Very Important	26	57.78
Expected Retirement		
1-5 years	14	31.11
6-10 years	13	28.89
11-15 years	8	17.78
16-20 years	6	13.33
Over 20 years	4	8.89
Hours Work		
8 a.m. to 5 p.m.	27	60.00
Flexible	15	33.33
Other	3	6.67
Actual Hours Work		
40-42 hours	22	48.89
42-45 hours	16	35.56
46-50 hours	7	15.56

Profile of Job Descriptive Index

The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) survey instrument was used to measure the levels of satisfaction of mid-level supervisors of the OESC UI Division. This survey has six subgroups that are used in measuring levels of satisfaction: Work on Present Job, Present Pay, Opportunity for Promotion, Supervision, People at Work, and Job in General (Appendix 2). The first five subgroups have an equal number of five total questions; the sixth subgroup has eight separate questions. Each subgroup has positive questions and negative questions. There are three possible answers to each question: Yes, No, and Undecided. The items are scored as follows:

   a. For each question that is stated in the positive, a numerical value is given as follows: Yes = 3, No = 0 and Undecided = 1. With this scoring system, undecided answers receive more points than negative answers, but positive answers receive 3 times more than undecided answers.

   b. Each question that is stated in the negative was scored as follows; Yes = 0, No = 3 and Undecided = 1.

   c. The score for each subgroup was compiled by adding the total number of points for the answer. However, if more than two questions were omitted, then no score was recorded for the subgroup. In the Job in General subgroup which has 8 questions, no score was recorded if three or more questions were left unanswered.
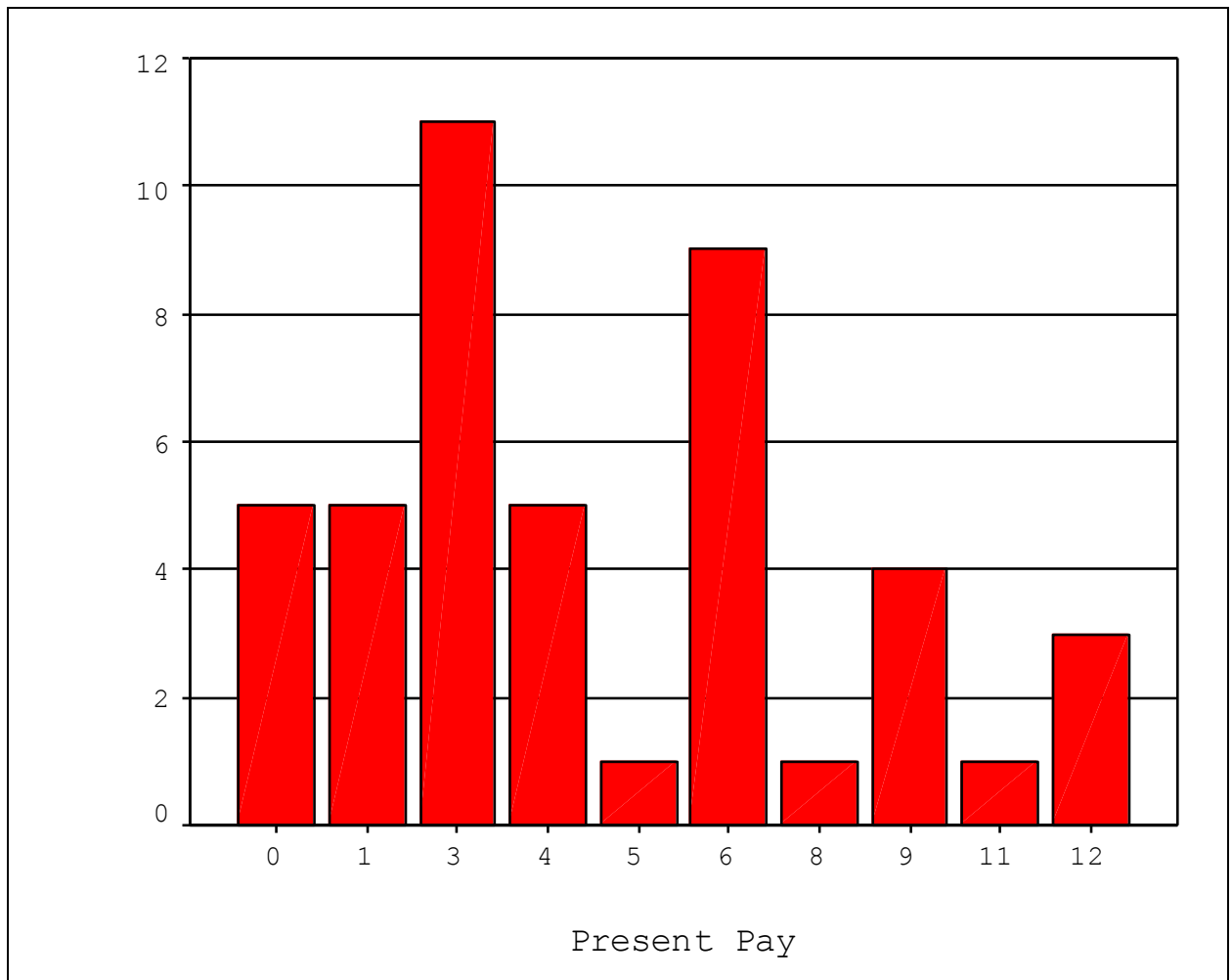
Figure 1: Distribution of Work on Present Job Scores
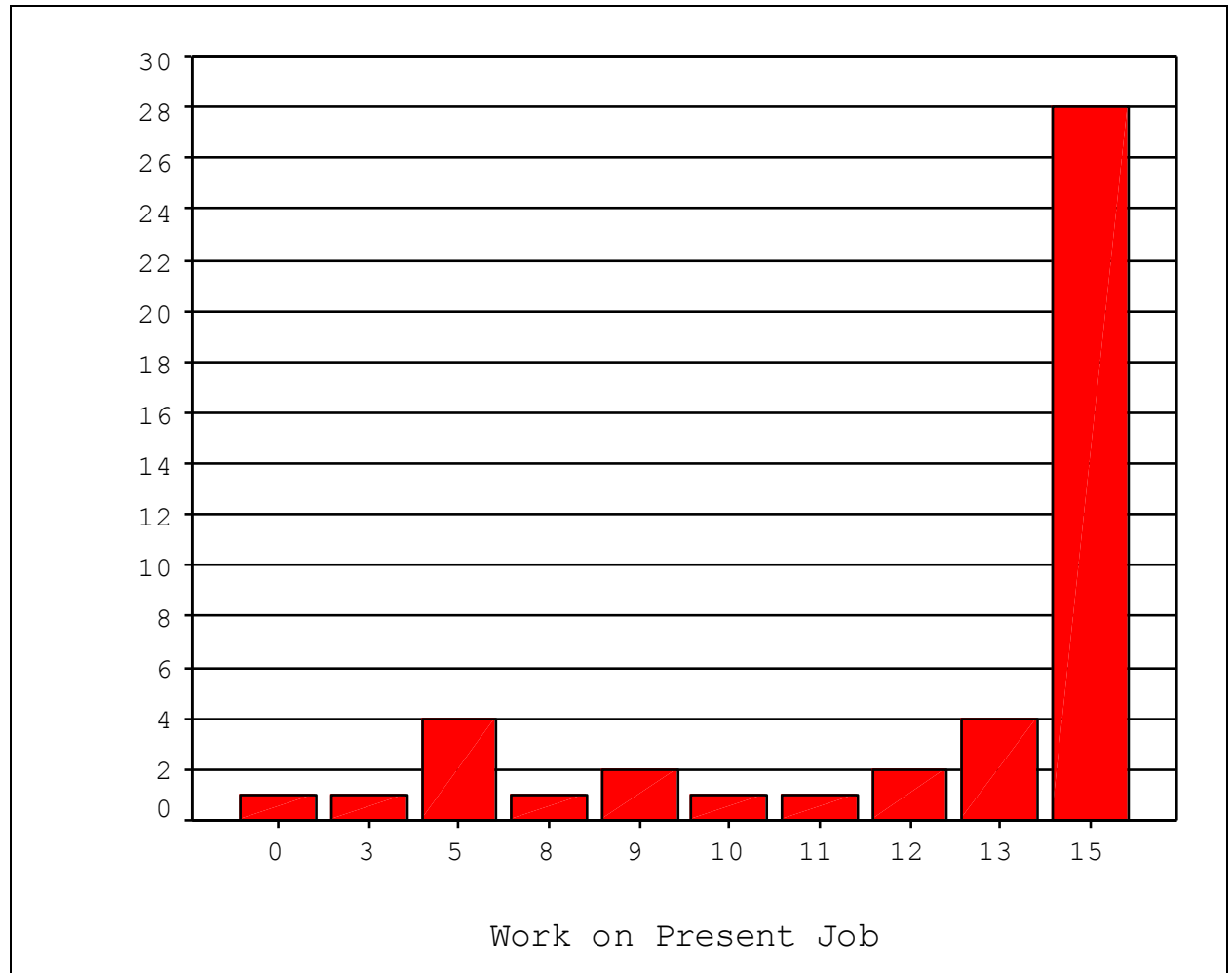
The Work on Present Job subgroup contains five items.
Of these, three are positive, and two are negative. This
subgroup measures the satisfaction level for the work
required for one's present job. Scores may range from 0 to
15 (5 items x 3 =15) on this subgroup. For the
supervisors, the scores ranged from 0 to 15 with 80%
scoring 10 points and higher (Figure 1). The mean score was
12.58 with a standard deviation of 3.99. The median score

was 15, and the modal score was 15. Thus the responses were

greatly distributed toward the high end of the range with

over 60% of the mid-level supervisors scoring the maximum

number of points possible in being satisfied with their
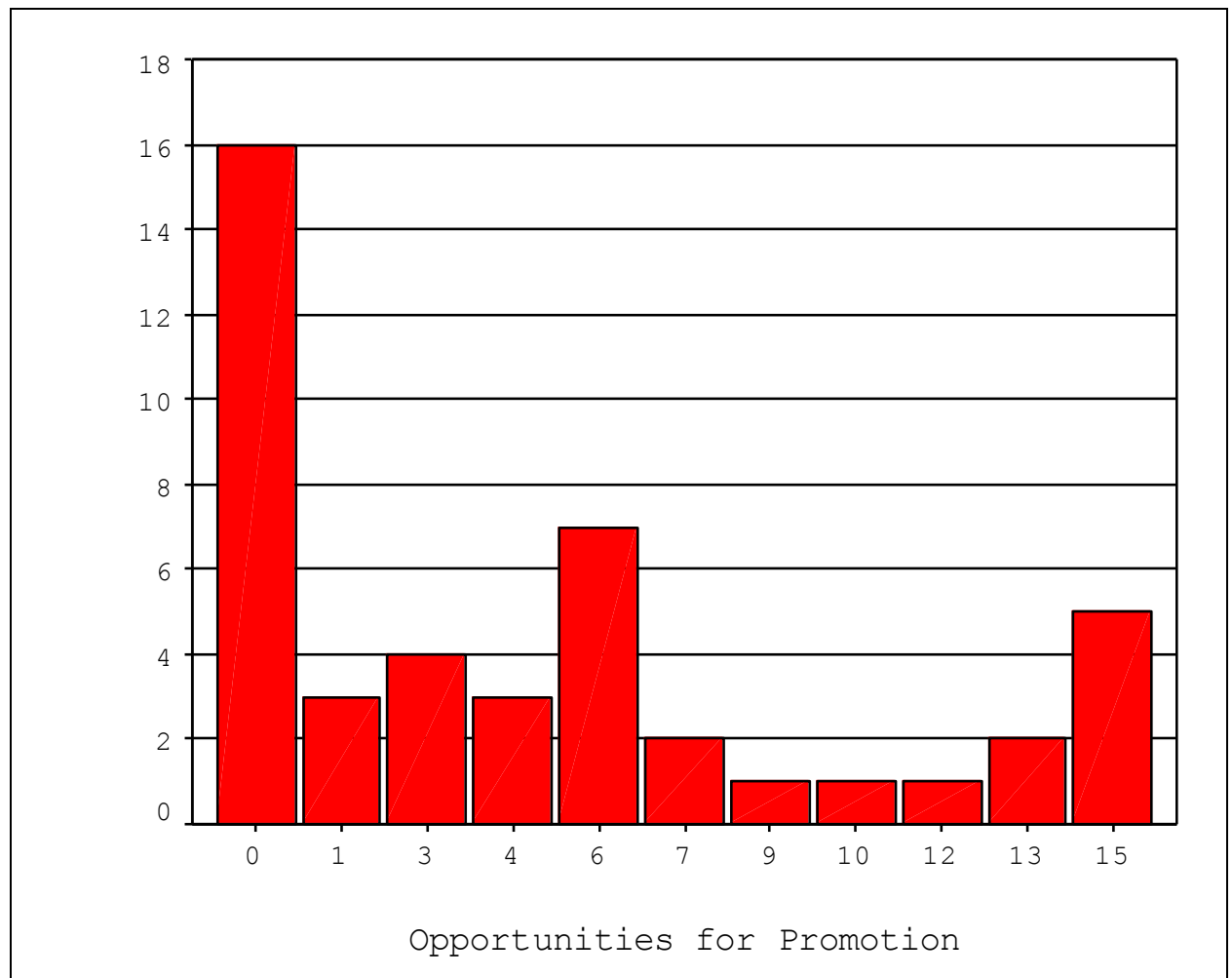
work on their present job.

Figure 2: Distribution of Present Pay Scores

The Present Pay subgroup contains five items. Of

these, three are positive, and two are negative. This

subgroup measures the satisfaction level of pay for one's

present job. Scores may range from 0 to 15 (5 items x 3 =
15) on this subgroup. For the supervisors, the scores
ranged from 0 to 12 with 80% scoring 6 and below (Figure
2). The mean score was 4.62 with a standard deviation of
3.41. The median score was 4, and the mode score was 3.
Thus, the responses were skewed toward the low end of the
range with none of the mid-level supervisors scoring the
maximum number of points possible in being satisfied with
their pay on their present job.

Figure 3: Distribution of Scores for Opportunities for Promotion Scale

Opportunities for Promotion

The Opportunities for Promotion subgroup contains five items. Of these, three are positive, and two are negative. This subgroup measures the satisfaction level of promotion opportunities in one's present job. Scores may range from 0 to 15 (5 items x 3 = 15) on this subgroup. For the supervisors, the scores ranged from 0 to 15 with 73.3% scoring 6 and below (Figure 3). The mean score was 4.78 with a standard deviation of 5.22, the median score was 3,

and the mode score was zero. Thus, the responses were skewed toward the low end of the range with only 11.1% of the mid-level supervisors scoring the maximum number of points possible in being satisfied with their opportunities for promotion on their present job.
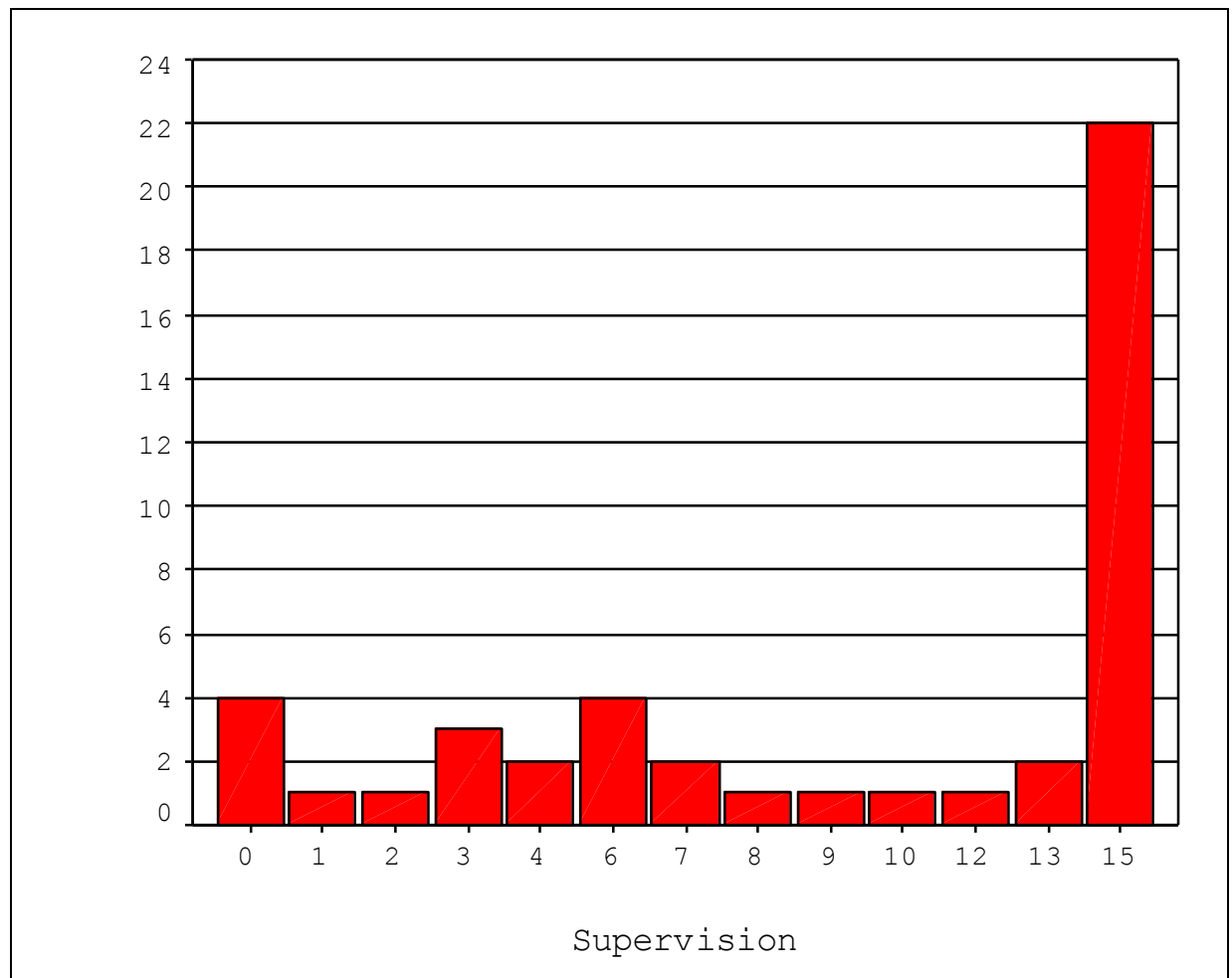
Figure 4: Distribution of Supervision Scores

The Supervision subgroup contains five items. Of these, three are positive, and two are negative. This subgroup measures the satisfaction level of supervision in one's present job. Scores may range from 0 to 15 (5 items x 3 = 15) on this subgroup. For the supervisors, the scores ranged from 0 to 15 with 97.8% scoring 12 and above (Figure 4). The range was from 0 to 15 with nearly 50% scoring a total of 15 out of 15 points. The mean score was 10.07 with a standard deviation of 5.69. The median score was 13,

and the mode score was 15. Thus the scores for the mid-

level supervisors of the OESC UI division were skewed

toward a high degree of satisfaction with their

supervision.

Figure 5: Distribution of People at Work Scores
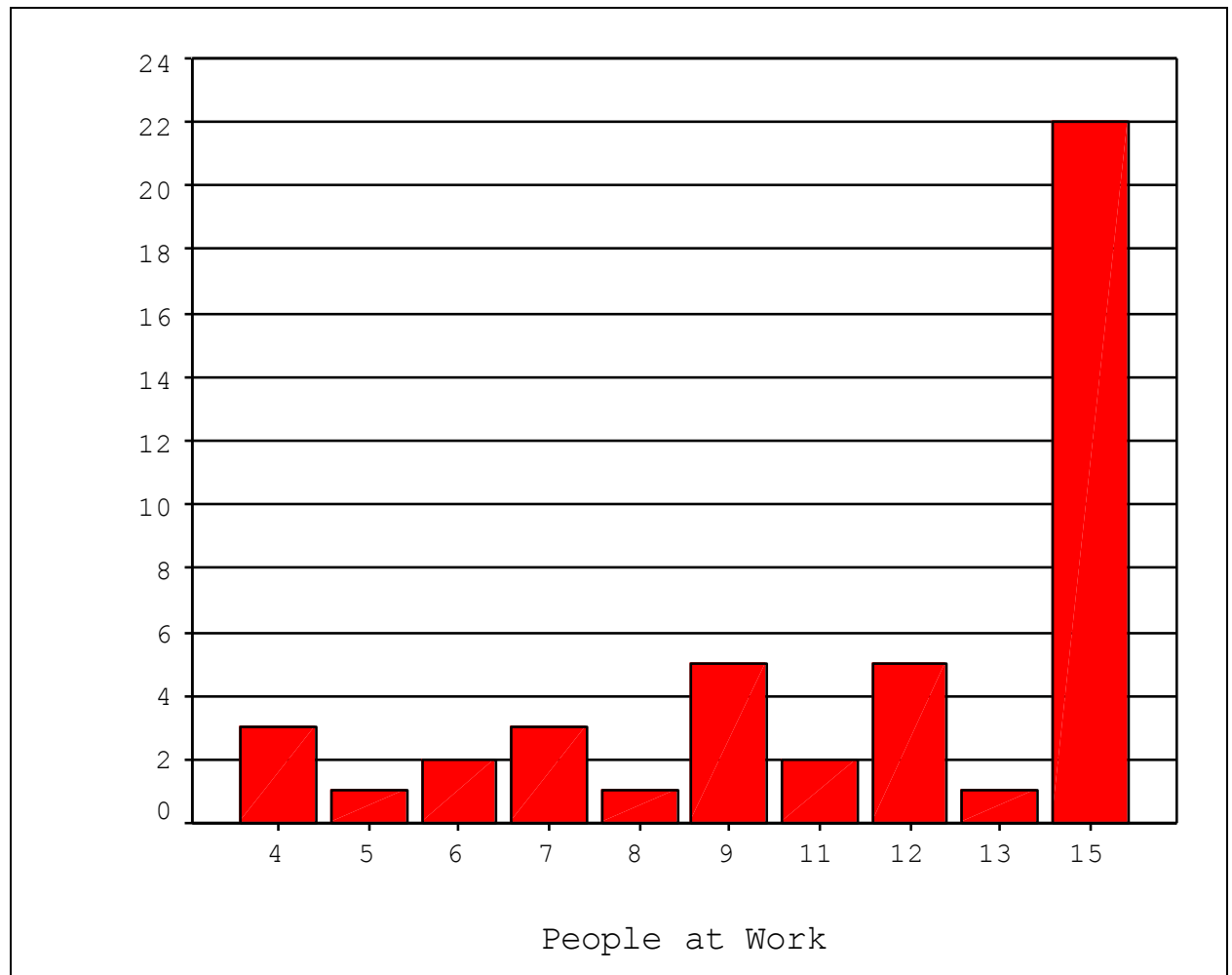
People at Work

The Supervision subgroup contains five items. Of

these, three are positive, and two are negative. This

subgroup measures the satisfaction level of how people feel

about others they work with in their present job. Scores

may range from 0 to 15 (5 items x 3 = 15) on this subgroup.

For the supervisors, the scores ranged from 4 to 15 with

nearly 50% scoring 15 out of 15 possible points (Figure 5).

The mean score was 11.73 with a standard deviation of 3.83.

The median score was 13, and the mode was 15. Thus, the

responses were skewed toward the high end of the range

showing that the mid-level supervisors as a whole are

satisfied with the people with whom they interact at work.

Figure 6: Distribution of Job in General Scores
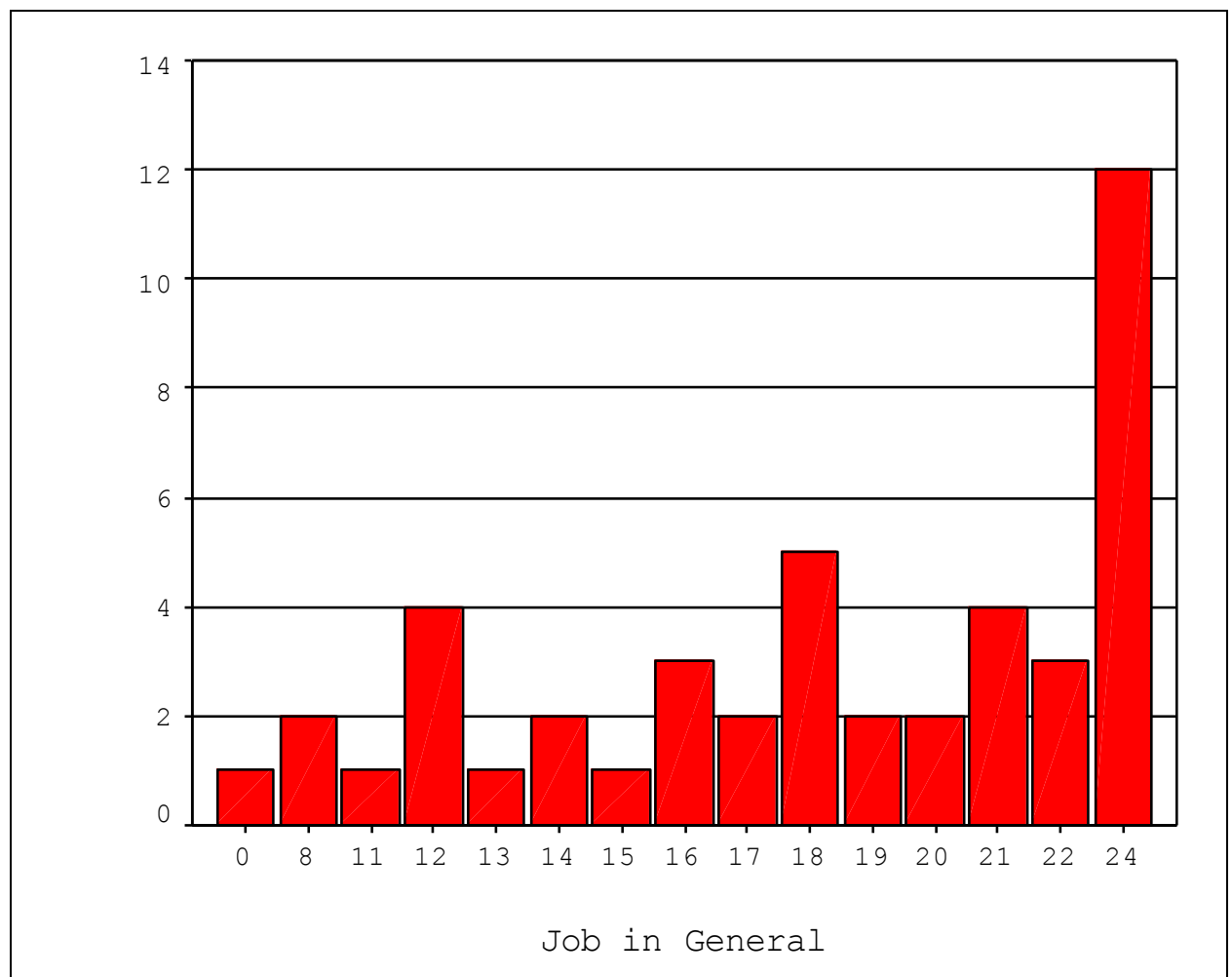
The Job in General subgroup contains eight items. Of these, five are positive, and three are negative. This subgroup measures the satisfaction level with the job in general where one presently works. Scores may range from 0 to 24 (8 items x 3 = 24) on this subgroup. The range for the supervisors was from 0 to 24 with approximately two-thirds scoring 17 points or more (Figure 6). The mean score was 18.2 with a standard deviation of 5.48. The median score was 19, and the mode score was 24. Thus, the responses were skewed toward the high end of the range showing that the mid-level supervisors for the OESC UI division are satisfied with their job in general.

<div align="center">Myers Briggs Profile</div>

Personality Types

The Myers Briggs Personality Type Indicator survey identified 16 different personality types (Figure 7). These types have separate identifiers that help explain the results of the survey. These 16 personality types are described in the manual provided with the survey (Myers & McCaulley, 1985).

Figure 7: Myers Briggs 16 Personality Type Subgroups

ISTJ Introverted Sensing with auxiliary extraverted Thinking, 7 (16%)	**ISFJ** Introverted Sensing with auxiliary extraverted Feeling, 5 (11%)	**INFJ** Introverted intuition with auxiliary extraverted Feeling, 2 (4%)	**INTJ** Introverted intuition with auxiliary extraverted Thinking, 2 (4%)
ISTP Introverted Thinking with auxiliary extraverted Sensing, 2 (4%)	**ISFP** Introverted Feeling with auxiliary extraverted Sensing, 5 (11%)	**INFP** Introverted Feeling with auxiliary extraverted intuition, 2 (4%)	**INTP** Introverted Thinking with auxiliary extraverted intuition, 4 (11%)
ESTP Extraverted Sensing with auxiliary introverted Thinking, 1 (2%)	**ESFP** Extraverted Sensing with auxiliary introverted Feeling, 6 (13%)	**ENFP** Extraverted intuition with auxiliary introverted Feeling, 2 (4%)	**ENTP** Extraverted intuition with auxiliary introverted Thinking, 1 (2%)
ESTJ Extraverted Thinking with auxiliary introverted Sensing, 4 (11%)	**ESFJ** Extraverted Feeling with auxiliary introverted Sensing, 1 (2%)	**ENFJ** Extraverted Feeling with auxiliary introverted intuition, 1 (2%)	**ENTJ** Extraverted Thinking with auxiliary introverted intuition, 0 (0%)

ISTJ; This subgroup directs energy toward the inner world of ideas and information. Those in this group prefer to clarify concepts and information, seeking to develop knowledge that is as clear as possible. People with this personality type place a large amount of trust in experience, but also envisage future goals providing there is a clear pathway to that goal (Myers & McCaulley, 1985, p. 64). In this study 7 (15.6%) of the mid-level supervisors of the OESC UI Division were in this group,

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this was the largest percentage out of all of the

subgroups.

ISFJ; This subgroup tends to direct energy toward the

inner world of thoughts and emotions. Those in this group

try to clarify ideas and information, particularly when it

relates to people and important relationships. People with

this personality type are quiet, serious observers of other

people, and are generally conscientious and loyal (Myers &

McCaulley, 1985, p. 64). In this study 5 (11.1%) of the

mid-level supervisors of the OESC UI Division were in this

group.

INFJ; This subgroup prefers to direct energy toward

the inner world of thoughts and emotions. Those in this

group use their imaginations to come up with new ideas,

possibilities and insights, especially in relation to other

people and important beliefs. People with this personality

type are generally good at developing insights about

people, even though they often keep their thoughts to

themselves (Myers & McCaulley, 1985, p. 64). In this study

only 2 (4.4%) mid-level supervisor of the OESC UI Division

were identified as being in this group.

INTJ; This subgroup desires to direct energy toward

the inner world of thoughts and emotions. Those in this

group use their imaginations to come up with new ideas,

possibilities and perspectives. People with this personality type try to organize their lives on a logical basis, and produce plans and strategies to put their ideas into practice (Myers & McCaulley, 1985, p. 64). In this study only 2 (4.4%) mid-level supervisor of the OESC UI Division were identified as being in this group.

ISTP; This subgroup shows a preference to direct energy toward the inner world of thoughts and emotions. Those in this group try to analyze situations and come up with explanations of how things work and interact. People with this personality type prefer dealing with tangible problems and proven experiences. People with this personality type enjoy solving organizational problems that need to be thought completely through before making a decision (Myers & McCaulley, 1985, p. 64). In this study 2 (4.4%) mid-level supervisors of the OESC UI Division were identified as being in this group.

ISFP; This subgroup like to direct energy toward the inner world of thoughts and emotions. Those in this group give importance to particular beliefs or opinions, particularly those that relate to people they know and their current experiences. People with this personality type tend to be caring and sensitive toward others (Myers & McCaulley, 1985, p. 64). In this study 5 (11.1%) mid-level

supervisors of the OESC UI division were identified as being in this group.

INFP; This subgroup directs energy toward the inner world of thoughts and emotions. Those in this group tend to give importance to particular ideas or beliefs, focusing on those things that they believe in most strongly. People with this personality type want to deal with patterns and possibilities, especially with people. Their preference is to undertake work that has a meaningful purpose (Myers & McCaulley, 1985, p. 64). In this study only 2 (4.4%) mid-level supervisors of the OESC UI Division were identified as being in this group.

INTP; This subgroup directs energy toward the inner world of thoughts and emotions. Those in this group tend to structure and organize their ideas, trying to come up with theories and explanations to explain new areas of scientific research or experience. People with this personality type try to understand the full complexity of any situation and enjoy solving difficult intellectual problems (Myers & McCaulley, 1985, p. 64). In this study 4 (8.99%) of the mid-level supervisors of the OESC UI Division were in this group.

ESTP; This subgroup prefers to direct energy toward the outer world of actions and spoken words. Those in this

group like to solve problems, take action, ideas and concepts and put them into reality, bringing them into being. People with this personality type are action-oriented problem solvers, and often prefer to work with practical organizational issues (Myers & McCaulley, 1985, p. 64). In this study only 1 (2.2%) mid-level supervisor of the OESC UI Division was identified as being in this group.

ESFP; This subgroup wants to direct energy toward the outside world of actions and spoken words. Those in this group prefer to get things done, and quickly, and enjoy doing things with and for people. People with this personality type seek to live life to the fullest and try to create experiences for others as well. This personality type is at their best solving urgent problems, such as fighting fires or trouble shooting problems (Myers & McCaulley, 1985, p. 64). In this study 6 (13.3%) of the mid-level supervisors of the OESC UI Division were in this group, the second largest group.

ENFP; This subgroup shows a preference to direct energy toward the outer world of actions and spoken words. Those in this group strive to develop new potential by exploring new possibilities and trying to create new situations that yield the expectation of something better. People with this personality type enjoy work that involves

experimentation and variety (Myers & McCaulley, 1985, p. 64). In this study 2 (4.4%) mid-level supervisors of the OESC UI Division were identified as being in this group.

ENTP; This subgroup tends to direct energy toward the outer world of actions and spoken words. Those in this group try to create new potential, changing things to see if any improvement can be made, and generally working towards a better future. People with this personality type often try to challenge the status quo and like instigating change (Myers & McCaulley, 1985, p. 64). In this study only 1 (2.2%) mid-level supervisor of the OESC UI Division was identified as being in this group.

ESTJ; This subgroup prefers to direct energy toward the outside world of actions and spoken words. Those in this group try to introduce logical organization and structure into the way things are done. People with this personality type prefer dealing with facts and the present, and are likely to implement tried-and-trusted solutions to practical problems in a businesslike and professional manner (Myers & McCaulley, 1985, p. 64). In this study 4 (8.9%) of the mid-level supervisors of the OESC UI Division were in this group

ESFJ; This subgroup desires to direct energy toward the outer world of actions and spoken words. Those in this

group seek harmony in personal relationships, engendering a team spirit and being an encouragement to others. People with this personality type like dealing with people, and organize their lives on a personal basis (Myers & McCaulley, 1985, p. 64). In this study only 1 (2.2%) mid-level supervisor of the OESC UI Division was identified as being in this group.

ENFJ; This subgroup prefers to direct energy toward the outer world of actions and spoken words trying to build harmony in important personal relationships with others. People with this personality type organize their lives on a personal basis; seeking to develop and promote personal growth in people they value (Myers & McCaulley, 1985, p. 64). In this study only 1 (2.2%) mid-level supervisor of the OESC UI Division was identified as being in this group.

ENTJ; This subgroup shows a preference to direct energy toward the outer world of actions and spoken words. Those in this group prefer to organize and structure the world according to logical principles. People with this personality type tend to want to control life, organize systems and people to meet task oriented goals and trying to improve the way things are done (Myers & McCaulley, 1985, p. 64). In this study none 0 (0%) of the mid-level

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supervisors of the OESC UI Division were identified as being in this group.

The 45 supervisors of the OESC UI Division were distributed among 15 of the 16 Myers Briggs Personality Type Indicator (MBTI) categories (Figure 8). The only personality type not represented among the supervisors was ENTJ. Although 15 personality types are represented, approximately half (51.1%) of the participants were in the four personality types of ISTJ 7 (15.6%), ESFP 6 (13.3%), ISFJ 5 (11.1%) and ISFP 5 (11.1%). Over two-thirds 31 (68.9%) were in six groups when ESTJ 4 (8.9%) and INTP 4 (8.99%) are added.

Figure 8: Distribution of MBTI Personality Groups

Figure 8: Distribution of MBTI Personality Groups

Myers-Briggs Personality Types
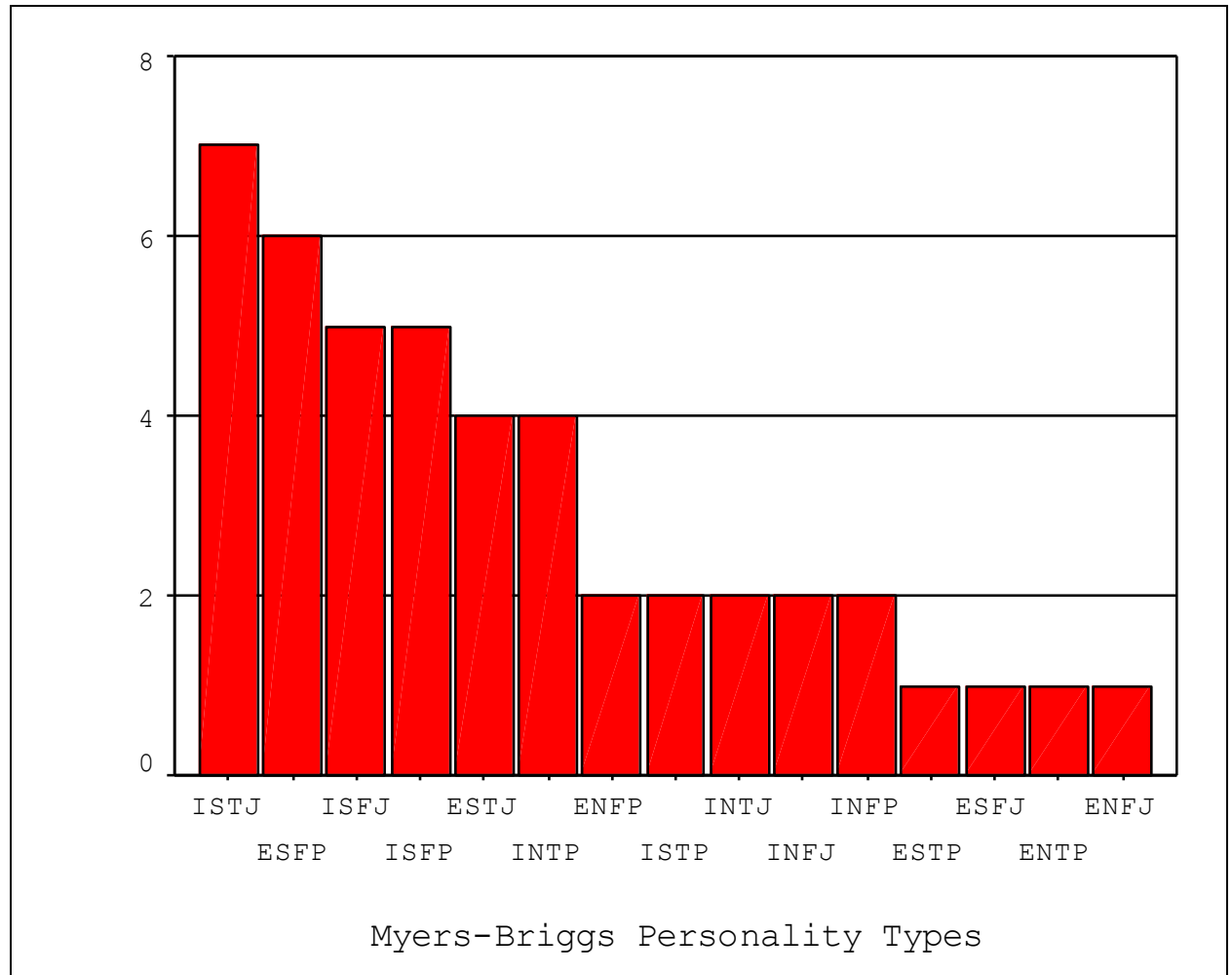
Continuous Scores

In addition to identifying categories of personality

types, the MBTI also produces continuous scores that can be

used in statistical analyses. Separate scores are produced

for each of the four indices of the MBTI.

> Each index reflects one of four basic preferences
> which under Jung's theory, direct the use of
> perception and judgment. The preferences
> affect not only what people attend to in any
> given situation, but also how they draw
> conclusions about what they perceive (Myers &
> McCaulley, 1985, p. 2).

Based upon the concepts of Jung, the four preferences are EI (Extraversion or Introversion), SN (Sensing perception or Intuitive perception), TF (Thinking judgment or Feeling judgment), and JP (Judgment or Perception) (Myers & McCaulley, 1985, p. 2). The EI index reflects if people are extroverts (E) who tend to focus their perception and judgment on people and objects of the outer world or if they are introverts (I) who tend to focus their perception and judgment upon the inter-world of concepts and ideas (p. 2). The SN index reflects how people perceive the world with some relying on sensing (S) observable facts or happenings through the five senses and others relying on the process of intuition (N) (p. 2). TF reflects making judgments based primarily on thinking (T) to decide impersonally and logically or primarily on feeling (F) to decide on personal or social values (p. 2). JP describes the process for dealing with the outer world with those who prefer judgment (J) using thinking for feeling and those who prefer perception (P) using either sensing or intuition (p. 3).

> The main objective of the MBTI is to identify
> four basic preferences. The indices EI, SN,
> TF, and JP are designed to point in one
> direction or the other. They are not designed
> as scales for measurement of traits or behaviors.

The   intent is to reflect a habitual choice between rival alternatives (p. 3).

The preference score for each index consists of a letter and a number (Myers & McCaulley, 1985). The letter shows the direction of the preference, and the number indicates the strength of the preference. After the point values for each pole of the four indices have been totaled, the formula for calculating the preference scores is as follows:

1. For E, S, T, and J: 2 times (larger points minus smaller points) minus 1.

2. For I, N, F, and P: 2 times (larger points minus smaller points) plus 1.

3. For ties, the preference score will be I = 01, N = 01, F = 01, or P = 01 (Myers & McCaulley, 1985, p. 9)

"Continuous scores are a linear transformation of the preference scores" according to Myers & McCaulley, (1985 p. 9). The continuous scores are calculated as follows:

1. For E, S, T, or J preference scores, the continuous score is 100 minus the numerical portion of the preference score.

2. For I, N, F, or P preference scores, the continuous score is 100 plus the numerical portion of the preference score (p. 9).

When conducting various types of research with the MBTI, "it is useful to treat the dichotomous preference

scores as if they were continuous scales" (p. 9).

Therefore, continuous scores were calculated for the 45

supervisors of the OESC UI division to produce a profile of

their preferences on each of the four indices on the MBTI.
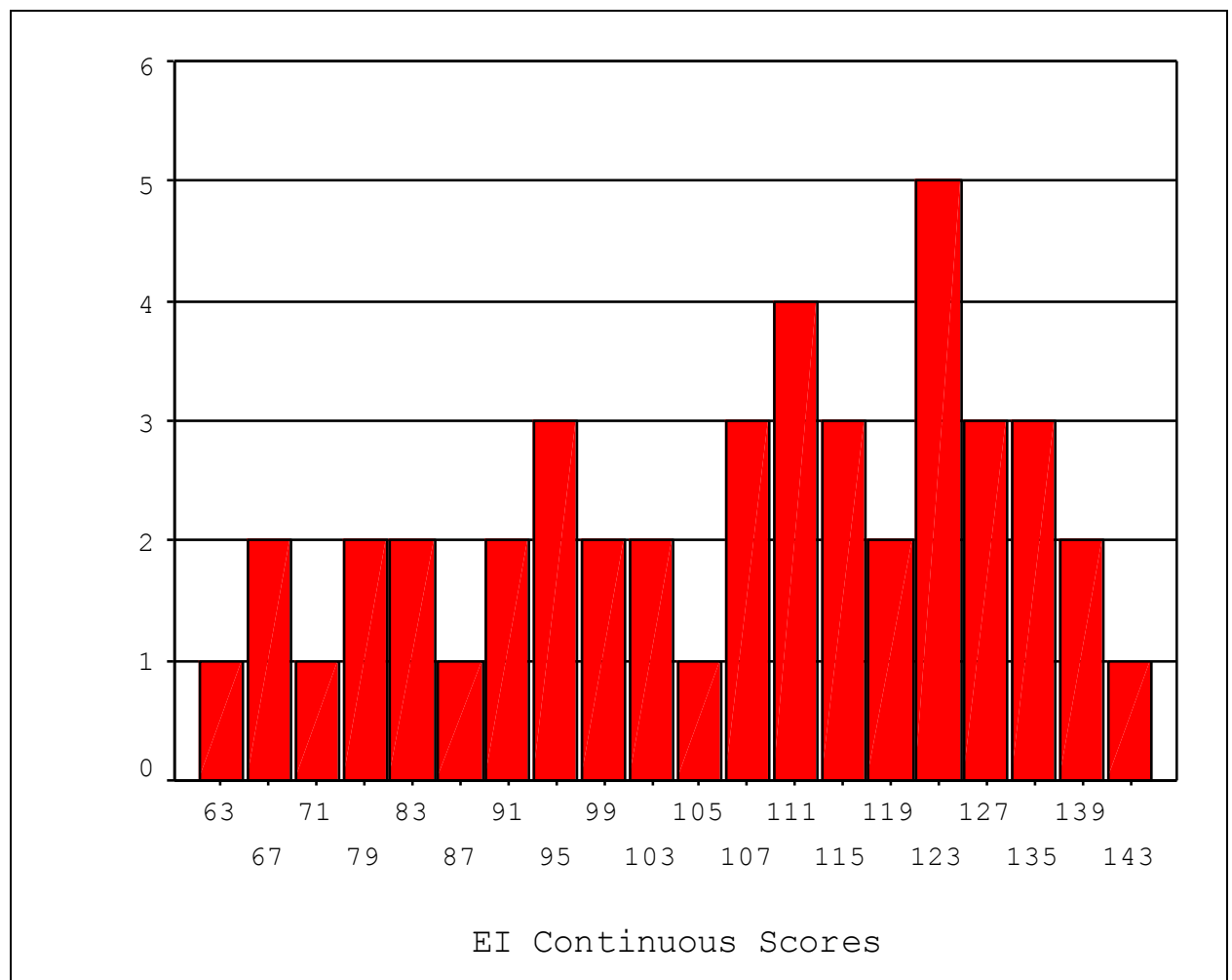
EI Continuous Scores

Extraversion (E) and Introversion (I) differ in that

those who prefer Extroversion like for things to happen

rapidly while those that prefer Introversion prefer to take

their time (Myers & McCaulley, 1985). People who prefer

Extroversion develop their ideas by talking about them. As

they talk, their thoughts become clearer to them.

Therefore, as a result of this they often change direction

during the course of the discussions. Those who prefer

Introversion usually want to process thoughts and ideas

internally and need some quiet time with no talking. The

thinking-out-loud process of extroverts can interfere with

the introverts thinking internal process. In addition when

introverts tune back in to the conversation, they may find

that it has shifted to a different topic. Therefore, these

opposites may encounter conflict between each other.

The EI subgroup score contains 21 items out of 93

total questions in the MBTI. This score measures the

personality type preferences of people between Extroversion

(E) and Introversion (I). The possible range for the EI

score is from 63 to 143 (Figure 9). The mean score was

107.22 with a standard deviation of 20.99. The median score

was 111.00, and the modal score was 123. Thus the responses

were distributed toward the Introverted (I) or high end of

the scale.

Figure 9: Distribution of EI Continuous Scores

EI Continuous Scores

←E   I→

SN Continuous Scores

Sensing (S) and Intuition (N) types differ in the ability to agree on what the problem is being dealt with; Sensing focuses on experience while intuition focuses on the possible and imaginative possibilities (Myers & McCaulley, 1985). Sensing types define a problem by what actually happened, usually concrete events. Intuitive types are more likely to see specific behavior as a part of a pattern that they think is the real problem. Sensing types tend to reflect on their experience and trust what they know has worked before in similar situations.

The SN subgroup score contains 26 items out of 93 total questions in the MBTI. This score measures the personality type preferences of people between Sensing (S) and Intuition (N). The possible range for the SN score was from 49 to 145 (see Figure 10). The mean score was 87.49 with a standard deviation of 27.01. The median score was 81.00, and the mode score was 73. Thus the responses were distributed toward the Sensing (S) or low end of the scale.

Figure 10: Distribution for SN Continuous Scores

SN Continuous Scores
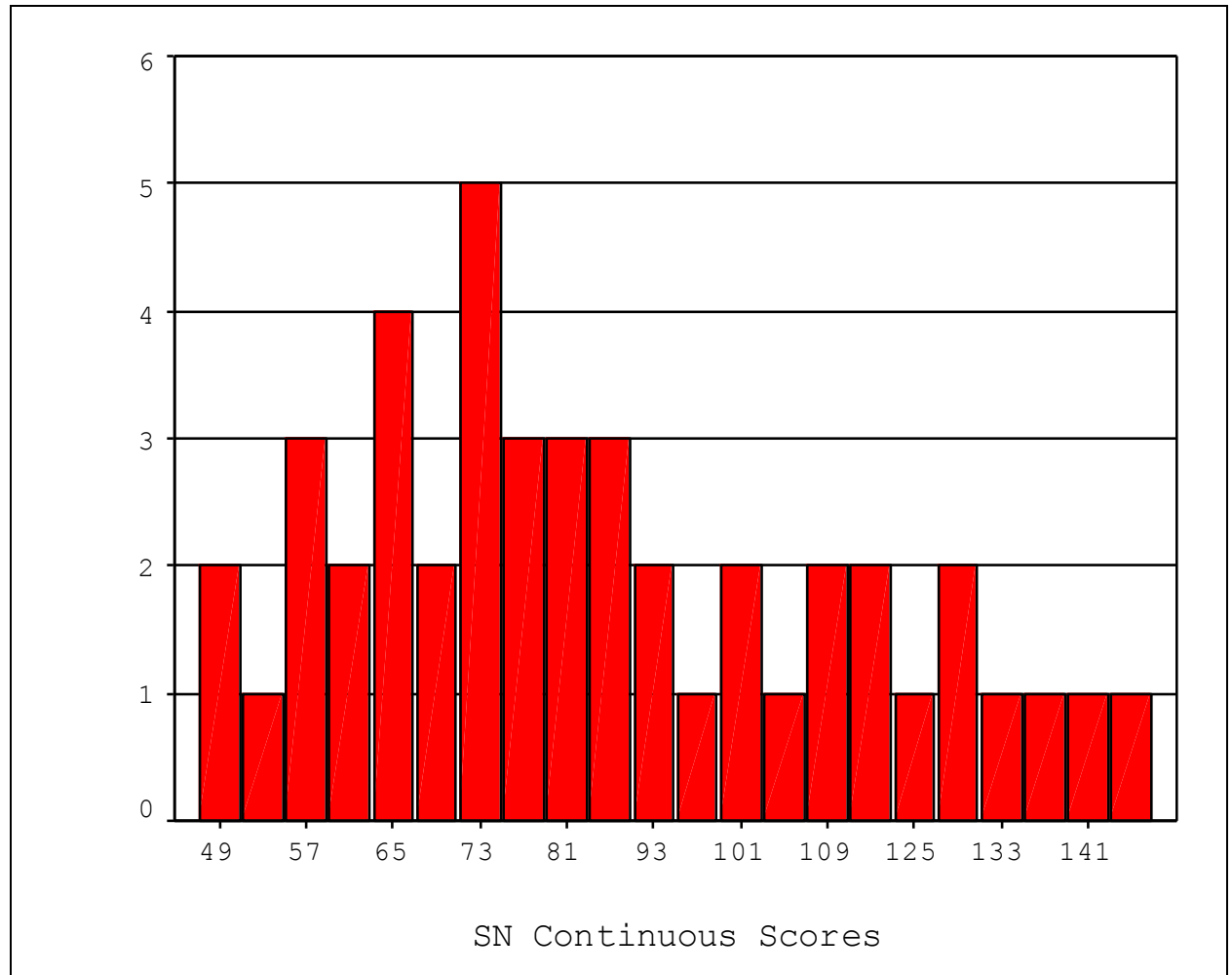
←S   F→

TF Continuous Scores

Thinking (T) and Feeling (F) types differ because
Thinking types believe that if a problem can be defined
accurately and the relevant evidence gathered there will be
a correct solution and an answer to what people should do
(Myers & McCaulley, 1985). However, Feeling types are much
more likely to think that the truth is not always clear,

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that what might be right for one situation may not be right for another, and that the solution will be found by gathering many perspectives and finding the answer that fits best for everyone. For thinking types, the answer that is correct is generally the one supported by logic and reason with personal considerations and emotions separated out. For feeling types, personal considerations identify the solution, and the best answer is found through empathizing with those involved and finding ways to support them.

The TF subgroup score contains 24 items out of 93 total questions in the MBTI. This score measures the personality type preferences of people between Thinking (T) and Feeling (F). The probable range for the TF subgroup was from 53 to 145 (see Figure 11). The mean score was 99.40 with a standard deviation of 26.36. The median score was 101.00, and the mode score was 85. Thus the responses were distributed fairly evenly over the graph.

Figure 11: Distribution for TF Continuous Scores

TF Continuous Scores
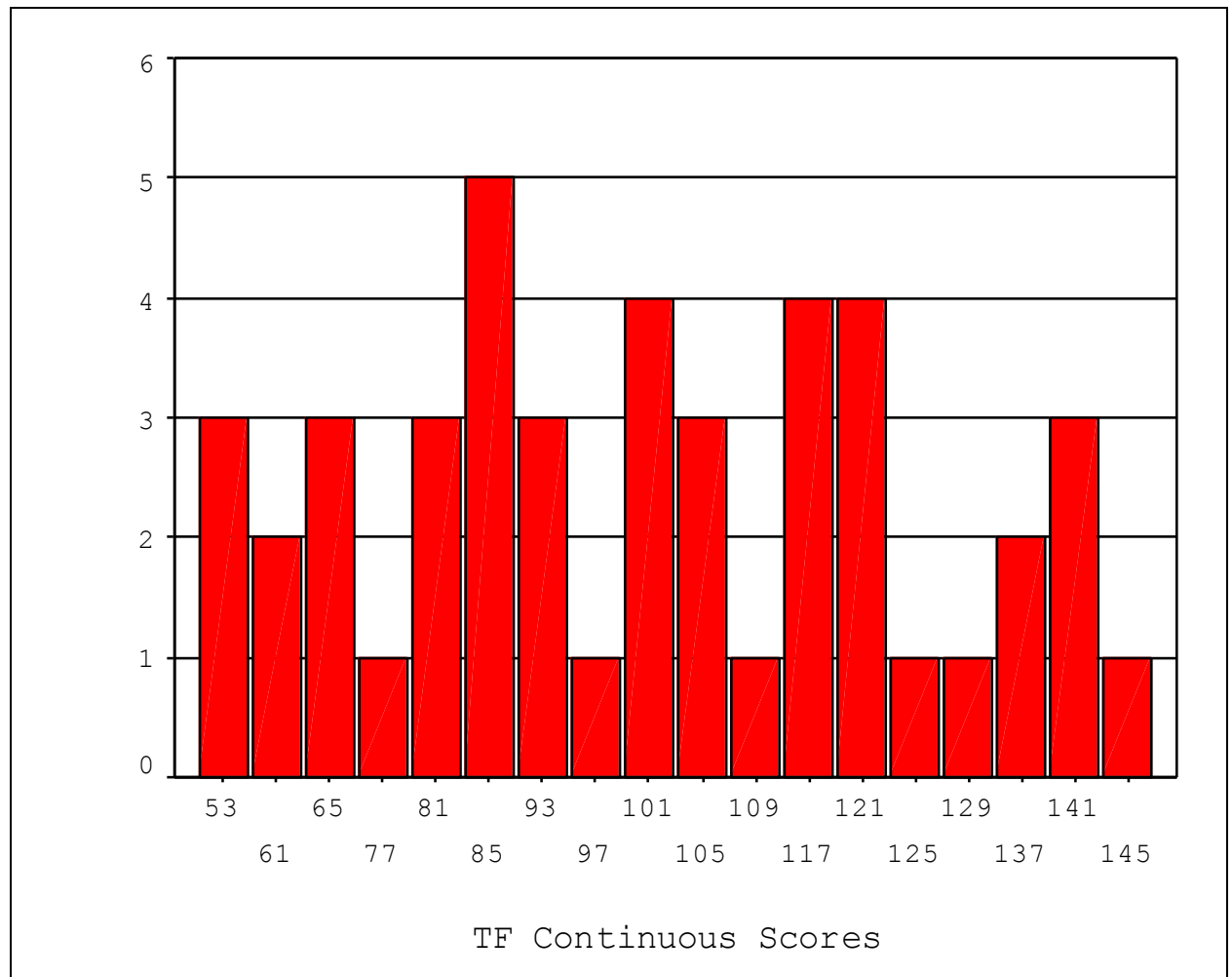
←T   F→

JP Continuous Scores

Judging (J) and Perceiving (P) differ because one

requires structure and the other requires flexibility along

with the desire for closure versus the desire for openness

(Myers & McCaulley, 1985). Judging types want clear goals

they use to create plans, structures, and time frames to

achieve them. Perceiving types also want clear goals and a

deadline, but then they want to be trusted to meet them in their own ways. Judging types want decisions and closure. Ambiguity, delayed decisions, re-opening decisions, and changing goals are uncomfortable to them. Perceiving types like for decisions to grow out of the process. Making a decision just because it is time or because someone is demanding a decision be made makes Perceiving types very uncomfortable; if they feel forced to make a premature decision they are likely to make the wrong decision. They have faith in their own internal sense of timing and trust that when the right time comes they will know and be able to make the right decision.

The JP subgroup score contains 22 items out of 93 total questions in the MBTI. This score measures the personality type preferences of people between Judging (J) and Perceiving (P). The possible range for the JP subgroup was from 81 to 117 (see Figure 12). The mean score was 99 with a standard deviation of 7.91. The median score was 101, and the mode score was 101. Thus the responses were distributed in a fairly normal distribution.

Figure 12: Distribution for JP Scores
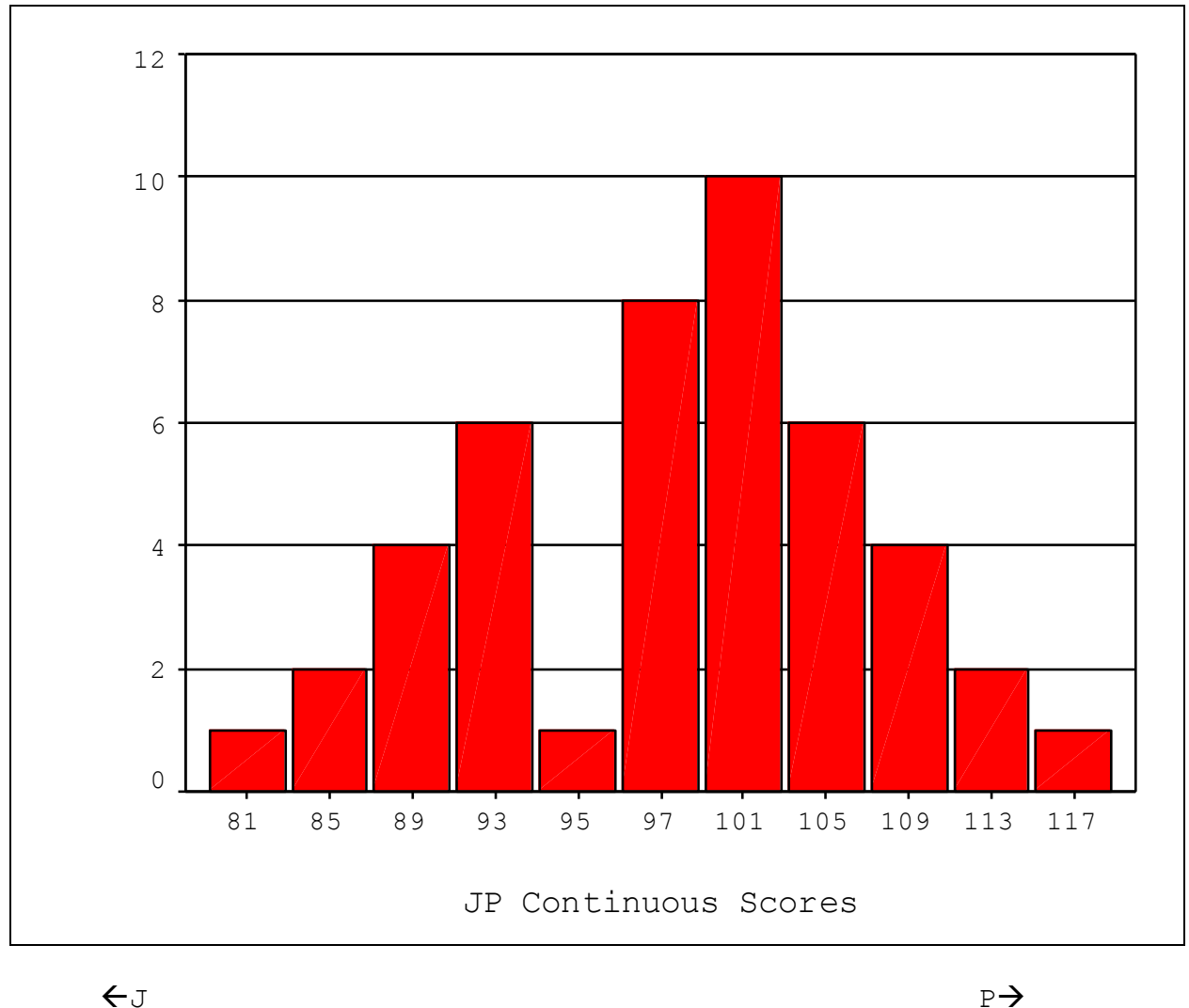
←J   P→

ATLAS Profile

The Assessing the Learning Strategies of AdultS
(ATLAS) was given to the 45 mid-level supervisors of the
OESC UI Division to determine their particular learning
strategy preferences. The three learning strategies
preference groups identified by ATLAS are Navigator,
Problem Solver and Engager. The 44 mid-level supervisors of
the OESC UI Division who completed the ATLAS were

distributed almost evenly with 14 Navigators, 14 Problem

Solvers, and 16 Engagers (see Figure 13).

Figure 13: Distribution of Learning Strategy

Preference Groups
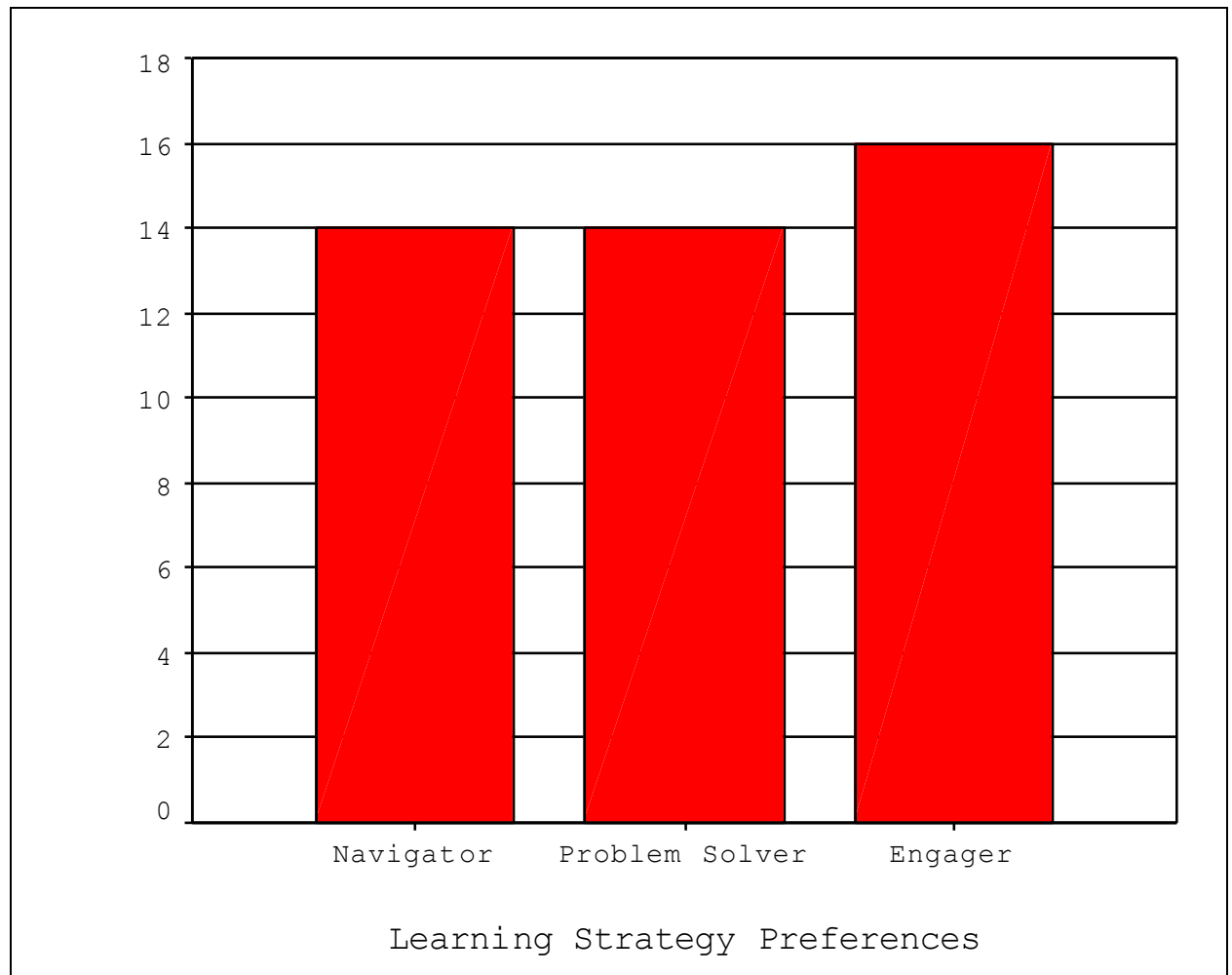
A chi-square analysis was conducted to determine if

the results of the supervisor survey differed from the

norms for ATLAS. Chi-square is often used to assess the

"goodness of fit" between an obtained set of frequencies in

a random sample and what is expected under a given

statistical hypothesis (Salkind, 2004). Chi-square is a

non-parametric test of statistical significance for

bivariate tabular analysis. "A chi-square test compares the

proportion actually observed in a study to the proportions

expected, to see if they are significantly different.

Expected proportions may be based on past data" (Gay &

Airasian, 2000).

Extensive studies of diverse adult populations show;

that the ATLAS learning strategy categories have a nearly

equal distribution in the general adult population with

36.5% classified as Navigators, 31.7% as Problem Solvers,

and 31.8% as Engagers (Conti & Kolody, 1999, p. 18). The

chi-square analysis (χ^2 =.55, df = 2, p = .759) revealed

that there was no significant difference between the

observed ATLAS distribution of this population and the

expected norms for ATLAS (Figure 13). This indicates that

the distribution of mid-level supervisors of the OESC UI

Division is no different than the expected distribution for

the general public taking the ATLAS.

Table 3: Observed and Expected Distribution of ATLAS Groups
for Supervisors

Groups	Observed	Expected	Difference
Navigator	14	16.1	-2.1
Problem Solver	14	13.9	0.1
Engager	16	14.0	2.0

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMEDATIONS

Summary

Government agencies do not have a bottom line or profit margin because the cost for government services is born by the taxpayer. With the removal of profit as a goal, the single most important issue for a governmental agency is its mission. However, agencies cannot meet their mission goals by managing their purpose, whatever it may be, in a vacuum any more than the private sector (NPR, 1999).

The interaction of customers, stakeholders and employees in the operation of an agency is critical to the success of that agency and, therefore, must be addressed by management. This process of assessment is crucial in the determination of what are the best practices are needed to be addressed for the agency as they provide managerial best practices to their customers, stakeholders, and employees.

Best practices have been identified by the National Partnership for Reinventing Government (NPR, 1999) and are recommended for incorporation into the training programs of all government agencies. Research in this study has shown

that to incorporate best practices in the agencies management process, mid-level supervisors must be motivated.

This study was designed to determine if best practices could be incorporated into the mid-level supervisors management styles of the OESC UI division, due to the mandated accountability measures set forth by the Federal government for the implementation of the State Unemployment Tax Act (SUTA), requiring the agency to collect the taxes and disperse the funds to those who qualify for benefits. Previous research established that if supervisors are not motivated to adapt-adopt best management practices, the chance of pro-active best practices being incorporated into the management styles of the mid-level supervisors of the UI Division of the OESC would be limited at best. The possibility of implementing best management practices is improved when motivation to change is present within the mid-level supervisors of any governmental agency.

It was determined by this study that the level of motivation of the mid-level supervisors of OESC UI Division needed to be measured in order for best practices to be incorporated into the management styles of the agency. This researcher found that there is a direct relationship between the level of job satisfaction and employees

motivation.   Operational research was conducted to

determine if there was a proven satisfaction survey

instrument available that could be implemented which could

measure the level of job satisfaction of the mid-level

supervisors within the UI Division of the OESC. This

exploration found that the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) and

the Job In General Index (JIG), combined into one survey

and referred to as the JDI met all the criteria for

assessing the level of job satisfaction in mid-level

governmental supervisors.

Utilizing the JDI the satisfaction level mid-level

supervisors within the UI Division could be determined. If

the supervisors were dissatisfied with their employment the

JDI indicates in which quadrant dissatisfaction was found;

present job, opportunities for promotion, supervision,

people at work, and job in general. These six quadrants

measure the complete worker satisfaction level.

Furthermore, the individual worker typology, and their

concomitant learning strategy also must be assessed in the

determination of the organizations ability to properly

address deficiencies identified within the JDI results

base.

The Myers Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) and the

Assessing the Learning Strategies of AdultS (ATLAS)

instruments were selected to identify the training needs of

mid-level supervisors of the UI Division of the OESC

identified as dissatisfied within the framework of the JDI.

The Myers Briggs Personality Type Indicator (MBTI) and

the Assessing the Learning Strategies of AdultS (ATLAS)

were selected to measure the personality types and learning

styles of the mid-level supervisors of the OESC UI

Division. Once this information was collected and analyzed,

the best methods of training the mid-level supervisors are

determinable.

Study results will impact the incorporation of

previous levels of experience and knowledge of targeted

mid-level supervisors of the UI Division of the OESC. The

mid-level supervisors Of the UI Division of OESC are

responsible for implementing best practices, rules and

regulations mandated by the Federal Government to fund and

run the program. Therefore, it is important to retain as

much knowledge and experience as possible.

<center>Design of study</center>

This study was designed to answer the following

research questions:

What are the personality types, learning strategies,

and job satisfaction levels of the mid-level supervisors of

the OESC UI division as measured by the:

<center>136</center>

1. The Job Development Index (JDI)

2. The Myers Briggs Personality Type Indicator (MBTI)

3. The Assessing Learning Strategies of AdultS
(ATLAS).

2. Do relationships exist among these measures and
demographic variables in the mid-level supervisors of OESC?

Summary of Findings

The findings led to the following conclusions:

1. A higher percentage of females are supervisors within
the UI Division of the OESC than generally found in
Department of Labor studies.

2. Twenty Five percent of all supervisors within the UI
Division of the OESC are 56 years old or older.

3. Nearly one-half of the supervisors within the UI
Division of the OESC have less than six years of managerial
experience within the agency.

4. Over 40% of the supervisors have worked for the agency
20 years or more.

5. One-third of all UI Division of OESC supervisor have a
college degree or higher.

6. Supervisors viewed helping others as more important than
organizational pay.

7. Demographically 80% of the supervisors are Caucasian/white, 13.3% African American, 2.2% Asian, 2.2% Hispanic and 2.2% Native American.

8. One person (2%) of the supervisory population self reported a disability.

9. One-third of the supervisors within UI Division of the OESC could retire within the next 5 years.

10. Fifty-one percent (51%) of all supervisors within the UI Division of the OESC are married.

11. Forty percent (40%) of the supervisors within the UI Division of the OESC work something other than a regular 8-5 workday.

12. Fifty one percent (51%) of the UI Division of the OESC supervisors self report that they work more than 42 hours per week, even though the paid work week is 40 hours.

13. Supervisors within the UI Division of the OESC are satisfied with their current jobs.

14. Supervisors within the UI Division of the OESC are not satisfied with their present pay.

15. Supervisors within the UI Division of the OESC are not satisfied with their opportunities for promotion.

16. Supervisors within the UI Division of the OESC are satisfied with their supervisors.

17. Supervisors within the UI Division of the OESC are satisfied with the people they interact with at work.

18. Supervisors within the UI Division of the OESC are satisfied with their job in general.

19. Personality types for supervisors within the UI Division of the OESC had 15 of the 16 types listed by the MBTI.

20. Supervisors within the UI Division of the OESC were more introverted than extroverted.

21. Supervisors within the UI Division of the OESC were more sensing than intuitive.

22. Supervisors within the UI Division of the OESC were evenly spread between thinking and feeling.

23. Supervisors within the UI Division of the OESC were similar to the normal population in the judging and perceiving scores.

24. Supervisors within the UI Division of the OESC are similar to the general population in their learning strategies.

Conclusions

1. Best managerial practices can be implemented into the managerial styles of the mid-level supervisors of the OESC UI Division. This conclusion is based on the

findings of this study that show 80% of the mid-level managers are satisfied in their work.

2. Mid-level managers who are service-oriented are more inclined to be satisfied in their work, than are mid- level managers who are money-oriented. This conclusion is based on the results of the demographic questions regarding which orientation is the most important in finding a new job and the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) that shows 80% of the mid-level supervisors are dissatisfied in their present pay and promotion opportunities but are satisfied with their jobs in general.

3. The MBTI shows that the mid-level supervisors are more Introverted and Sensing and training should be addressed that would address these needs; however, the results of the MBTI show that 15 out of the 16 subgroups were identified in this group, so training would need to cover all the demographics of the MBTI.

4. The learning styles of the mid-level supervisors of the OESC UI Division are similar to the general population and all three ATLAS groups will need to be addressed in their training to implement best managerial practices.

5. The mid-level supervisors of the UI Division of the

OESC are satisfied in their jobs according to the

results of the JDI and, therefore, more motivated to

implement change which would allow for best

management practices to be implemented.

Discussion of Findings

Nearly three-fourths of the mid-level supervisors of

the OESC UI Division are female; while this is comparable

to the agency's population it is not comparable to the

normal distribution by gender in the general population

(DOL, 2007). This may be related to the glass ceiling that

the general population suffers from and the different rules

and regulations of the State government that make

employment within state government more attractive to

females. Another possibility could be that merit protection

of jobs is attractive to the female population. Job

security and retirement could play major factors in their

decisions to pursue a career in State government. Men by

nature may be more aggressive and adventurous than women

and would prefer to take their chances in the private

sector, knowing that the private sector has more

opportunities for promotion and greater pay.

Mid-level supervisors who can retire within next 5

years will have an effect on the agency; these mid-level

supervisors have a vast knowledge of corporate history and experience that could be lost and damage the effectiveness of the agency if not properly managed. Efforts may need to be implemented to try to find a way to capture this valuable asset.

New mid-level supervisors who have 6 years or less experience as a supervisor will require additional training and more attention than those mid-level supervisors who have greater experience. With over 50% of the supervisors in this category, the agency should consider increasing the amount and quality of supervisory training that will be provided to new mid-level supervisors in implementing best managerial practices into their management styles. This would allow for continued quality service to be provided to the agencies customers. The agency should also consider conducting a supervisor training needs assessment to determine if additional training would be required for the remaining mid-level supervisors.

The longevity of the supervisors work life within the UI Division of the OESC (with 40% of the supervisors having worked 20 years or more for the agency) without upgraded managerial training shows that this group has had little exposure to best practices in operational management.

The agency should review its requirement that all supervisors attend management training every year. The current training effort attempts to ensure that supervisors are exposed to the latest management trends. But there is not in place a measurement instrument to ensure that the best managerial practices are being utilized by the mid-level supervisors of the UI Division of the OESC.

Leadership of the UI Division of the OESC understands the need to enhance service thru better supervisory management. Therefore, the agency training efforts may need to be reviewed to determine if training is effective and is meeting the needs of the supervisors. An example of how the agency could measure these efforts would be the implementation of a Kilpatrick evaluation instrument that would enhance the capture of training information from both the training participant, the trainee's supervisor, and for organizational measurement of the success of implementation of training objectives and cost benefit analysis.

Classroom and practical occupational education plays a significant role in the implementation of management training. Two-thirds of the mid-level supervisors of the UI Division of OESC have less than a college degree, therefore, it would seem necessary to look at providing an avenue that the supervisors could attend higher education

classes in order to stay current with the latest best management practices. Many of the current supervisory positions within the UI Division of the OESC already require a degree in order to qualify for the position.

The OESC UI division is a service oriented agency and it would seem reasonable that the mid-level supervisors of the UI Division of the OESC would need to be service minded in order to fully address the demands of the agency for customer satisfaction. Without a service orientation mind set, supervisors may have trouble finding satisfaction with their job which directly impacts their job motivation. Lack of motivation and job satisfaction causes poor customer service, which adversely impacts the organizational interests of the agency. The agency utilizing the knowledge that mid-level supervisors that are service orientated are more satisfied in their jobs could conceivably develop a better selection process for hiring or promoting supervisors.

It is clear in this study that only (20%) a small portion of mid-level supervisors were money oriented, however, this small part could affect the entire population with negative results unless their needs are addressed. Positive attitudes are contagious, but so are negative attitudes; care should be taken to not let this occur.

All state agencies have veteran hiring preferences; while the mid-level supervisors of the UI Division of the OESC show only one person with a self reported disability, current military operations in Iraq and Afghanistan, will create a large pool of people with handicaps. In the future this may have an impact on the number of supervisors with disabilities and handicaps that worker accommodations in accordance with the Americans with Disability Act will need to be addressed.

Retirement of senior level supervisors can cause an adverse effect on the quality of service if the knowledge and experience can not be replaced. It will be important for the agency to develop people who will be able to fill those positions that have the necessary knowledge and experience so that customer service and quality work doesn't diminish. A need for preparatory training may need to be considered to address this problem.

A significant problem for supervisors is having enough time to complete their paperwork without interruption; Nearly forty (40%) of the mid-level supervisors of the UI Division of the OESC have addressed this problem by taking advantage of flex time schedules to complete required reports. However, in initiating flex schedules, supervisors tend to work more rather than fewer hours.

Fifty one percent (51%) of the supervisors work more than 40 hours per work week. This shows a great commitment on the part of the mid-level supervisors to ensure that quality work and excellent customer services are provided by the agency. It can be a de-motivator if the supervisor feels the agency does not appreciate his or her time expenditure to insure the mission of the organization is met.

Over all, supervisors within the UI Division of the OESC are satisfied with their jobs. Understanding how they can be so dissatisfied with present pay and opportunities for promotion, yet satisfied with all the other aspects of their jobs needs further study.

Initial observations tend to support that those supervisors who have a low service orientation and a high money orientation are significantly more dissatisfied with their employment within the UI Division of the OESC.

Eighty percent (80%) of the mid-level supervisors surveyed within the UI Division of the OESC report that they are satisfied with their jobs. Service orientation is the single factor which appears to offset pay and promotion in worker satisfaction within this population studied.

Recommendations

1. Implement best management practices training for the mid-level supervisors of the UI Division of the OESC.

2. Address the 20% of mid-level supervisors who are dissatisfied to determine if their needs can be met or changed to raise their level of job satisfaction to enhance the implementation of best management practices into their management styles.

3. It is recommended that this study be replicated in other similar agencies in order to determine if this study is similar or has a pattern that could affect the possibility of best managerial practices being implemented into the managerial styles of their mid-level supervisors.

Conclusion

The hope of this researcher is that the information gathered in this study can provide a sound foundation for study that shows training should be based on sound fundamental principals utilized by the Educational community. The one main criticism of corporate training is that it is not based on sound principles; therefore, implementing new knowledge and expertise in order to meet customer satisfaction requirements is not as successful as it could be. This smoke and mirrors method of applying

training can no longer be tolerated if agencies are to

provide the best possible service to their customers.

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    by Occupation of job service applicants thru OESC by
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    2005

APPENDIX   A – 1. DIRECTIONS FOR ADMINISTERING THE

MYERS BRIGGS PERSONALITY TYPE INDICATOR (MBTI).

Issue the survey to the participants instructing them
not to open the survey until they have read all the
instructions for taking the survey on the front of the
survey. Indicate that they must use only a number 2 pencil
to fill in the answers and if they change their minds to be
sure to completely erase the old answer.

A - 2. DIRECTIONS FOR ADMINISTERING THE ATLAS

Issue the survey to the participants and instruct them
to read carefully the directions on the front then follow
the arrows to the next part until they reach the conclusion
that tells them what learning strategy they are.

A – 3. DIRECTIONS FOR ADMINISTERING THE JOB DESCRIPTIVE INVENTORY

Issue the survey to the participants and instruct them to read the directions and carefully fill out the survey by choosing the answer that best fits in their opinion using a number 2 pencil only. If they make a mistake erase the wrong answer completely and be sure to mark only one answer.

APPENDIX A – CONSENT FORM FOR EACH PARTICIPANT

SIGNATURE

Participant Consent Form

I, (print full name)_____, hereby

agree to participate in the research project conducted by

Ralph Shelton to provide information about the level of job

satisfaction of mid-level supervisors in the Unemployment

Insurance (UI) division of the Oklahoma Employment Security

agency.

Specifically, this research will determine the level

of job satisfaction of mid-level supervisors in the UI

division of the Oklahoma Employment Security agency so that

the agency can determine the effectiveness of the

implementation of best management practices in management

will be.

I understand that my participation in this research is

voluntary, that there are no special incentives for my

participation, that there is no penalty for declining

participation, and that I am free to withdraw my consent

and participation at any time.

I understand that the purpose of this research is to document and improve the quality and economic effectiveness of the existing management practices of the agency.

I understand and agree to the following conditions regarding my voluntary participation in the research:

1. My participation will involve completion of the enclosed surveys during normal working hours and will take up to one hour to complete.

2. My responses will be anonymous and treated with complete confidentiality.

3. My responses will be collected and placed in a sealed envelope, where they will remain until analyzed by Ralph Shelton and his research advisor. No one else will see the input data, and the data will be secured by Ralph Shelton at all times.

4. The data yielded from this research will be used solely for research, program improvement, and program documentation purposes.

5. Any data from this research used in preparation and publication of professional literature and reports will be anonymous and reported only in aggregate and/or by codes. No specific reference to my name or

personal identity or other personal information will
be made at any time.

6. All records of this research will be kept solely by
   the project director and will be maintained under
   proper security measures at all times. All such
   records will be destroyed upon completion of this
   research or one year which ever comes first.

If I have questions or concerns, I may contact the
project director, Ralph Shelton, at the Stillwater
Workforce office, phone 405-624-1450 or by email
ralphshelton@oesc.ok.us.

I may contact Dr. Brian Sandford at Oklahoma State
University, phone 405-744-3461 or by email at
brian.sandford@okstate.edu. I may also contact Dr. Sue
Jacobs IRB (Institutional Review Board) Chair, Oklahoma
State University, 219 Cordell North, Stillwater, Ok. 74078,
phone 405-744-1676 or irb@okstate.edu.

I have read and fully understand this consent form. I
sign it freely and voluntarily. A copy has been given to me
for my personal record.

Date._____

Signed:_____

_____

                    (Signature of research participant)

        I certify that this form has been explained to the

participant and their representative before requesting the

participant to sign it.

        Signed:_____

                    (Project Director-Ralph Shelton)

APPENDIX B – APPROVAL TO CONDUCT RESEARCH – DIRECTOR
OESC

Permission for Research Study

This is confirming that Ralph Shelton has requested
permission to use information gathered from the
Unemployment Insurance training sessions in his study. The
information will be used to meet the requirements for
completing his doctoral degree program at Oklahoma State
University. This study will include administering tests
that measure job satisfaction and learning styles. The
results of these tests will be used in his dissertation and
in future training sessions to increase the probability of
implementing best practices in the agency.

Date: _____

Jerry Pectol, Director

Unemployment Insurance Division

Oklahoma Employment Security Commission

APPENDIX C – OPM MID LEVEL SUPERVISOR JOB DESCRIPTIONS

PROGRAMS MANAGER
BASIC PURPOSE:

Positions in this job family are assigned responsibilities involving the direction or supervision of programs related to the delivery of agency services on a statewide basis. This may include the supervision of professional level staff in providing a variety of services and assistance to eligible clients, responsibility for a work unit of a division or a single program area, assisting in directing a major multifunctional program or unit, or overall responsibility for major program activities involving the principle operations of the agency.

Positions in this job family are assigned responsibilities involving providing direction and guidance for program services and operations, and coordinating program functions and activities within an agency division or unit. This may include direct supervision of professional level field staff, responsibility for a work unit of a division or a single program area, assisting in directing a major multifunctional program or unit, or overall responsibility for major program activities involving the principle operations of the agency.

TYPICAL FUNCTIONS:

The functions within this job family will vary by level, but may include the following:

• Manages a major agency unit, section, division or program; directs or supervises staff in the completion of assigned functions and activities.

• Develops and recommends policies, rules and regulations which pertain to the administration of assigned programs consistent with federal and state laws; participates in program analysis, including the analysis of problems and needed services.

• Directs studies of needs; reviews and analyzes information from studies and projects for immediate and long-range program development; advises subordinate program staff and other interested groups of the proper interpretation and application of agency rules and policies.

• Reviews periodic staff reports, administrative audits, program activities and other information to evaluate program effectiveness and quality of service; develops controls to assure accountability for program operation, policy implementation and the maintenance of efficiency in various units.

• Develops and maintains sound personnel policies and practices; participates in the selection of persons for educational scholarships; directs staff training programs.

LEVEL DESCRIPTORS:

The Programs Manager job family consists of five levels which are distinguished based on the scope and breadth of responsibility associated with the program responsibilities assigned.

Level I :   Code: H10A

Salary Band: M

At this level employees are assigned responsibilities related to direct supervisory responsibility over a professional level staff. This will include responsibility for all phases of program staffing, conducting local on-site staff meetings and training to provide information about program policies and procedures, counseling with local officials about needs and problems at the local level, and initiating corrective actions concerning program procedures and staff management.

Knowledge, Skills and Abilities required at this level include knowledge of agency policies and procedures; of all state and federal legislation related to assigned agency programs; and of supervisory principles and practices. Ability is required to supervise and evaluate personnel and program performance; to communicate effectively, both orally and in writing; to interpret and apply policy material; and to maintain effective working relationships with others.

Education and Experience required at this level consists of a master's degree and one year of professional supervisory, managerial, consultative or administrative experience in public health administration, social work, child support, adult protective services, child welfare, guidance and counseling, nursing, developmental disabilities, probation and parole, employment services, public administration, community-based prevention and diversionary youth services programs, juvenile justice, rehabilitation or disability services or counseling, or vocational evaluation or vocational rehabilitation, or an equivalent combination of education and experience, substituting one year of additional qualifying experience for each year of the required education.

<u>Level II:</u>   <u>Code:</u>   H10B   <u>Salary</u>
<u>Band:</u> N

      At this level, employees are assigned responsibilities involving the direction or supervision of a work section of a division or will have responsibility for a single program area administered by the agency and will perform all essential functions related to the position.

      <u>Knowledge, Skills and Abilities</u> required at this level include knowledge of agency policy; of state and federal regulations relevant to agency programs; of sound methods of administration; of methods of management and planning and of supervisory principles and practices. Ability is required to administer programs and supervise personnel; to maintain effective working relationships with others; and to exercise good judgment in the solution of problems.

      <u>Education and Experience</u> requirements at this level consist of those identified in Level I plus one additional year of qualifying experience.

<u>Level III:</u>   <u>Code:</u>   H10C

<u>Salary Band:</u>   O

     At this level employees are assigned responsibilities for assisting in the administration of a major multifunctional program or unit of the agency. This includes assisting in planning, organizing and directing program or unit functions and activities and the supervision of lower level managers or supervisors who are responsible for individual units or programs. Positions at this level are found only in programs or divisions which are large in size, scope and complexity and which have a major impact on the operations of the agency.

    <u>Knowledge, Skills and Abilities</u> required at this level include knowledge of federal and state laws and regulations relating to the administration of various social services, human resources, veterans services, health administration, employment services, and similar programs; of the principles, methods and practices of the various programs being administered; of the organization, development and administration of the programs for which responsibility is assigned; and of supervisory principles and practices. Ability is required to plan, coordinate and evaluate the activities of multiple work units and divisions engaged in

a broad range of functions; to establish and maintain effective working relationships with others; to communicate effectively, both orally and in writing; and to interpret, analyze and resolve highly complex administrative and personnel problems.

Education and Experience requirements at this level consist of those identified in Level II plus one additional year of qualifying experience.

Level IV: Code: H10D

Salary Band P

        At this level employees are assigned overall responsibility for planning, organizing, directing and coordinating the principle operations and major program activities of the agency and will be found only in programs or divisions large in size, scope and complexity and which have a major impact on the principle operations of a large agency.

Knowledge, Skills and Abilities required at this level include those identified in Level III plus demonstrated ability to direct the functions and activities of a program or division which is large in size and scope.

Education and Experience requirements at this level consist of those identified in Level III plus one additional year of qualifying experience.

Level V: Code: H10E

Salary Band Q

At this level employees are assigned responsibilities for directing and coordinating functions and activities related to multiple programs of the agency, including the direction and supervision of administrators who are responsible for the direction of other programs included in the assigned area of responsibility.

Knowledge, Skills and Abilities required at this level include those identified in Level IV plus ability to communicate management goals to staff and the public.

Education and Experience requirements at this level consist of those identified in Level IV plus one additional year of qualifying experience.

Oklahoma State University Institutional Review Board Form

Date: Tuesday, October 31, 2006

IRB Application No ED06200

Proposal Title: J o b Motivation and Satisfaction Levels of

Mid-Level Supervisors in the Oklahoma Employment Security

Commission

Reviewed and Exempt

Processed as:

Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved Protocol

Expires: *10/30/2007*

Principal Investigator(s

Ralph David Shelton & Brian Sandford

814 East 99th St. & 214 Willard

Perkins, OK 74059 Stillwater, OK 74078

The IRB application referenced above has been

approved. It is the judgment of the reviewers that the

rights and welfare of individuals who may be asked to

participate in this study will be respected, and that the

research will be conducted in a manner consistent with the

IRB requirements as outlined in section 45.

CFR **46.**

The final versions of any printed recruitment, consent

and assent documents bearing the IRB approval stamp are

attached to this letter. These are the versions that must

be used during the study. As Principal Investigator, it is your responsibility to do the following:

1. Conduct this study exactly as it has been approved. Any modifications to the research protocol must be submitted with the appropriate signatures for IRB approval.

2. Submit a request for continuation if the study extends beyond the approval period of one calendar year. This continuation must receive IRB review and approval before the research can continue.

3. Report any adverse events to the IRB Chair promptly. Adverse events are those which are unanticipated and impact the subjects during the course of this research; and

4. Notify the IRB office in writing when your research project is complete.

Please note that approved protocols are subject to monitoring by the IRB and that the IRB office has the authority to inspect research records associated with this protocol at any time. If you have questions about the IRB procedures or need any assistance from the Board, please contact Beth McTernan in 219 Cordell North (phone: **405-744-5700,** beth.mcternan@okstate.edu).

Sincerely,

Sue C. Jacobs, Chair
Institutional Review Board

VITA

Ralph David Shelton

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Thesis: JOB MOTIVATION AND SATISFACTION LEVELS OF MID-LEVEL
SUPERVISORS IN THE UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE DIVISION OF
THE OKLAHOMA EMPLOYMENT SECURITY COMMISSION

Major Field: Occupational and Adult Education

Education: BS degree in Agriculture Economics from Oklahoma State University 1970

MS degree in Education from Oklahoma State University 1994

This dissertation is submitted for completion of Ed.D in Education from
Oklahoma State University May, 2007

Name: Ralph D. Shelton

Date of Degree: May, 2007

Institution: Oklahoma State University

Location: Stillwater, Oklahoma

Title of Study: JOB MOTIVATION AND SATISFACTION LEVELS OF MID-LEVEL
SUPERVISORS IN THE UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE DIVISION
OF THE OKLAHOMA EMPLOYMENT SECURITY COMMISSION

Pages in Study: 177

Candidate for the Degree of Doctor of Education

Major Field: Occupational and Adult Education

Scope and Method of Study: A descriptive study of a census population of 45 Mid-Level
Supervisors in the Unemployment Insurance Division (UI) of the Oklahoma
Employment Security Commission (OESC) to determine levels of job
satisfaction, personality types, and learning strategies in order to determine if best
management practices could be implemented into the management styles of the
mid-level supervisors of the UI Division of the OESC.

Findings and Conclusions: Best management practices can be implemented into the
management styles of the Mid-Level supervisors of the UI Division of the OESC
based on the findings provided by the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) survey. The
results of the Myers Briggs Personality Type Indicator (MBTI) and the Assessing
the Learning Strategies of AdultS (ATLAS) which were used to measure the
personality types and learning strategies of the Mid-Level supervisors can be used
to provide appropriate training methodology for the implementation of best
management practices. Mid-Level supervisors who were determined to be
service-oriented were more likely to be satisfied in their jobs than those Mid-level
supervisors who were money-oriented.

ADVISER'S APPROVAL: Dr. Brian A. Sandford