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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND LIFE SATISFACTION AMONG FACULTY IN SELECTED OKLAHOMA JUNIOR COLLEGES

The University of Oklahoma PH.D. 1980

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A DISSERTATION

SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY

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BY

ANITA SPARKS BEDNAR

Norman, Oklahoma

1980

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND LIFE

SATISFACTION AMONG FACULTY IN SELECTED

OKLAHOMA JUNIOR COLLEGES

APPROVED BY

Lillie D Holcomb

Laura B. Folsom

Larry K Michaelsen

Roy E Prickett

Christina G. Stuart

DISSERTATION COMMITTEE

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

"The basic American commitment is not to affluence, not to power, not to all the marvelously cushioned comforts of a well-fed nation, but to the liberation of the human spirit, the release of human potential," states John Gardner, ex-secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare.[1]

Organizations such as business and industry have realized for decades that while improved technology and efficiency seem to be key factors releasing human potential, of equal or greater importance is the attitude of the work staff.[2] Education, as well, in more recent years has been concerned with the attitude of faculty, specifically in the junior colleges. This concern for attitude stems from an awareness by administrators who theorize that faculty who find satisfaction in

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[1]John Gardner, Self-Renewal (New York: Harper & Row, 1963) p. 95.

[2]Steven H. Appelbaum, "Attitudes and Values: Concerns of Middle Managers," Training and Development Journal, (October, 1978), p. 52.

their work will create a better learning environment for students and will help the institution reach specific goals and objectives.

Since the early 1970's, the junior colleges have changed more than any other time in their history. Many of these changes have been brought about by a reduction in growth of full-time faculty, an older student population, new goals and objectives of the institution, and varied demands for community services. All of these changes have had their effects upon the faculty, who are becoming aware of new roles and relationships within the institution.[1] A faculty member's personal identity and sense of well-being can be influencing factors toward attitude on the job.

Because of these changing conditions, administrators in the junior colleges, according to Frankel, are concerned with job satisfaction. These administrators hold that "the person who likes his job will work with efficiency and enthusiasm--the dissatisfied one will show the opposite effect."[2] Thus, efforts are made to provide an environment conducive to job satisfaction through such avenues as faculty development programs, in-service training, participative management, etc.

These programs are aimed at making the jobs more attractive on the assumption that more attractive jobs will lead to greater institutional commitment. Basically, any program however designed

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[1]Arthur M. Cohen and Florence B. Brawer, The Two-Year College Instructor Today (New York: Praeger Publishers, 1977), p. 1.

[2]Joanne Frankel, Junior College Job Satisfaction, (ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior Colleges, Los Angeles: University of California, Los Angeles (October, 1973), p. 1.

has the primary objective of changing the attitude of the faculty members--the way they conduct their work and the way they feel about their jobs.

Walker comments on employees' attitudes:

> The worker's attitudes play a critical role in the acceptance of any changes that are intended to improve the quality of his working life . . . Attitudes moreover are dynamic; they are affected by the forces of information and persuasion and the subtle interplay of changes in conditions at the workplace or outside of it.[1]

Administrators, in attempting to enhance job satisfaction, generally tend to overlook this subtle interplay of work and the non-work spheres of the individual. This viewpoint assumes that an individual's experiences off the job do not affect his or her activities and attitudes on the job.

According to Goodale et al, concerns and measures of job satisfaction have been conducted within what is essentially a "closed-system" framework.[2] Staff development programs have been primarily designed to take a faculty member and make him or her satisfied on the job regardless of his or her satisfaction in the other life spheres. As a result, the total life of the faculty member has been segmented. Administrators have failed to recognize that an individual functions as integrated units, rather than as segmented parts.[3] Thus, the

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[1]Kenneth F. Walker, "Workers' Attitudes--A Key to the Quality of Working Life?" in The Quality of Working Life, Volume One, ed. by Louis E. Davis and Albert B. Cherns (New York: The Free Press, 1975), p. 1.

[2]J.G. Goodale, D.T. Hall, R.J. Burke, and R.C. Joyner, "Some Significant Contexts and Components of Individual Quality of Life," in The Quality of Working Life, Volume One, ed. by Louis E. Davis and Albert B. Cherns (New York: The Free Press, 1975), p. 150.

[3]Calvin S. Hall and Gardner Lindzey, Theories of Personality (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1978), p. 24.

individual's personal sense of well being and general life satisfaction cannot be segmented from job satisfaction.

In a study by Brayfield and Wells, the point is made that if job satisfaction is dependent on life satisfaction, then the employer may be "stymied" in an attempt to improve attitude on the job because it would be unlikely he could influence general life satisfaction.[1]

Roe contends it is impossible to separate occupational satisfaction from satisfaction with life. Concurring with other researchers, Roe states that "one is a measure of the other, neither is prior to nor independent of the other and both are indications of the person in the world."[2] Therefore, fulfillment of the individual comes from a combination of life spheres--job, family, friends, and other interests.

An examination of the literature reveals studies of job satisfaction and life satisfaction in non-academic settings suggest a spillover effect. The spillover effect predicts a positive relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction. There is still some controversy as to the direction of the relationship, but there is general agreement that a positive correlation exists.

Gardell, studying white-collar and blue-collar workers in Sweden, speculates that as long as work constitutes a central life interest for the individual, the satisfaction of his ego-related needs bound up with the job, will also carry over to his other life roles.

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[1]Arthur H. Brayfield, Richard V. Wells, and Marvin W. Strate, "Interrelationships Among Measures of Job Satisfaction and General Satisfaction," Journal of Applied Psychology, XLI (August, 1957), p. 201.

[2]Anne Roe, The Psychology of Occupations, (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1956), p. 285.

Individuals who have enriched jobs that offer limited opportunities for decision making, interpersonal relations and self-actualization will have similar nonwork experiences, which instills feelings of inferior abilities and lower satisfaction of life in general.[1]

The point is further emphasized by Walker, who states:

> The elements of relevance to the worker's quality of working life involve the task, the physical work environment and the social environment within the plant, the administrative system of the enterprise, and the relationship between life on and off the job . . . Any effective approach to the enhancement of the quality of working life, therefore, must explore the weight of these factors on the worker's attitudes toward all the elements that make up his working life.[2]

Consequently, a better understanding of why a faculty member behaves as he does at work may possibly be gained by investigating not only certain aspects of job satisfaction, but also certain aspects of life satisfaction.

Statement of the Problem

The need for enhancing job satisfaction seems to be well established, but the delimma of what affects job satisfaction still persists. Orpen, concurring with other researchers, notes:

> Human resource developers being preoccupied with the twin variables of job satisfaction and performance, have tended to neglect the possible interactions between employee reactions to the job and their attitudes toward life outside the work situation.[3]

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[1]Bertel Gardell, "Reactions at Work and Their Influence on Nonwork Activities: An Analysis of a Sociopolitical Problem in Affluent Societies," Human Relations, XXIX (September, 1976), pp. 885-904.

[2]Walker, "Worker's Attitudes," p. 2.

[3]Christopher Orpen, "Work and Nonwork Satisfaction: A Causal-Correlational Analysis," Journal of Applied Psychology, LXIII, (August, 1978), p. 530.

Administrators, also, in attempting to enhance job satisfaction, have neglected to view the job as a part of the individual's overall life. Walker insists that because an individual's total life situation affects his working life, two questions should be considered: (1) To what extent is working a central life interest and (2) How does work life affect a worker's outside life and vice versa.[1]

An extensive search of available literature in education indicates no research has been reported dealing with the quality of the working life and how it relates to the quality of life as a whole. This study, therefore, seeks to determine if there is a relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction of faculty members in selected Oklahoma junior colleges.

Objectives of the Study

Because there is no indication that research has been conducted on the relationship of job satisfaction and life satisfaction of junior college faculty members in Oklahoma, the objectives of this study are to examine (1) dimensions of job satisfaction, (2) dimensions of life satisfaction, and (3) specific biographical and developmental factors in the faculty ranks in selected junior colleges in Oklahoma.

Need for the Study

In its short 75-year history, the junior college has demonstrated its ability to change in order to meet new demands. The junior college has become not only a college preparatory institution, but one offering occupational training, continuing and adult education, and

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[1]Walker, "Worker's Attitudes," p. 2.

community services. Because of these new educational programs as well as changes in student population, faculty sometimes find it difficult to maintain a practical view of the purpose of the institution.

As Cohen and Brawer point out, many faculty members were hired to teach academic courses, but found themselves becoming coordinators of special programs, student recruiters, or even media developers. They were hired in one kind of institution which soon developed new goals and objectives and became another kind of institution.[1] In many instances the faculty member's own personal philosophy of education did not coincide with the overall philosophy of the institution.

Because instructor roles have been affected, dissatisfaction has become more crucial in faculty ranks, even so far as opening the way for collective bargaining, which has been expanding rapidly in recent years. In 1972-73, 194 public junior colleges had bargaining units and by 1974-75 that number had increased to 224.[2] This fact in itself points to a need for concern of job satisfaction.

Davis and Cherns further emphasized this point when they wrote:

> . . . white-collar unionism is growing rapidly often at the expense of "staff associations" or other "professional" groups. White-collar workers see themselves on the opposite side of the fence to "management" in an unprecedented way and to an unprecedented degree.[3]

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[1] Cohen and Brawer, College Instructor, p. 2.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Louis E. Davis and Albert B. Cherns, "Assessment of the State of the Art," The Quality of Working Life, Volume One, ed. by Louis E. Davis and Albert B. Cherns (New York: The Free Press, 1975), p. 33.

Since both faculty and administrators are involved in effective performance, a clarification of factors affecting job satisfaction might prove helpful in faculty renewal and development. Such a clarification is dependent in part upon knowledge about the nature and extent of job satisfaction and its relation to life satisfaction.

Hypotheses to be Tested

The rationale underlying the hypothesis of this study evolved from a consideration of the spillover effect of job satisfaction to other areas of life. The essentiality of this model was first explained by Kornhauser in his historical study of industrial workers in an automobile plant.[1] A spillover relationship was seen between job attitudes and attitudes toward life away from work. By accepting the thesis of Kornhauser, Brayfield and Wells,[2] Orpen,[3] and others, as a general premise, it is hypothesized that a spillover effect depicts a framework which accurately represents the factors associated with job satisfaction and life satisfaction of faculty members in junior colleges as it has done for individuals in other occupations.

Specifically, the hypotheses tested as part of this study were:

Hypotheses 1: There is a significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction among faculty members in selected Oklahoma junior colleges.

Hypotheses 1a: The strength of the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction is greater for women than for men.

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[1]Arthur Kornhauser, Mental Health of the Industrial Worker (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1965), p. 205.

[2]Brayfield, Wells, and Strate, "Measures of Job Satisfaction," pp. 201-205.

[3]Orpen, "Work and Nonwork Satisfaction," pp. 530-532.

Hypothesis 1b: The strength of the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction increases with age.

Hypothesis 1c: The strength of the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction increases as educational level increases.

Hypothesis 1d: The strength of the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction is greater for married than for nonmarried faculty.

Hypothesis 1e: The strength of the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction increases as family income increases.

Hypothesis 1f: The strength of the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction is greater for tenured than for nontenured faculty.

Hypothesis 1g: The strength of the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction is greater for faculty teaching in urban rather than rural areas.

Assumptions

An assumption on which this study is based is that the faculty members responded to the questionnaire with their true feelings and that the respondents related the Job Descriptive Index to their academic environment as directed.

A further assumption is that a sampling of faculty members in the state supported junior colleges in Oklahoma is representative of the attitudes of all junior college faculty throughout the state.

Limitations

The faculty used in the sample were full-time employees of the 14 state supported junior colleges in the Oklahoma State System of Higher Education.

The Job Descriptive Index measured five categories of job satisfaction upon which there has been substantial agreement. Since

the JDI was developed specifically for business and industry, other categories of job satisfaction in the junior college could have been used.

The life satisfaction portion of the questionnaire measured six categories of life satisfaction upon which there has been substantial agreement. While these values were taken as fundamental by the researcher, other life values may be as important.

Operational Definitions

For the purpose of this study, the following terms are defined:

Junior College - Institution of higher education in Oklahoma, specifically designed for two years of study, concentrating on university parallel courses and vocational/occupational programs.

Full-time Faculty - Personnel in the Oklahoma junior colleges who are permanently employed teaching half-time or more.

Job Satisfaction - An employee's general attitude toward his job, to the extent that a person's job fulfills his dominant needs and is consistent with his expectations and values.[1]

Life Satisfaction - An employee's general attitude toward his life as a whole, in terms of extent of automony, opportunity for creativity, and recognition for achievement.[2]

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[1]Kenneth N. Wexley and Gary A. Yukl, Organizational Behavior and Industrial Psychology (New York: Oxford University Press, 1975), p. 103.

[2]William A. Faunce and Robert Dubin, "Individual Investment in Working and Living," The Quality of Working Life, Volume One, ed. by Louis E. Davis and Albert B. Cherns (New York: The Free Press, 1975), p. 313.

Organization of the Study

Following Chapter I are four additional chapters. Chapter II reviews the literature which is pertinent to develop an understanding of the models of the work and nonwork relationship in regard to satisfaction. Included in the review are studies pertaining to various moderators affecting the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction.

The design of the study and the methods used in conducting the research are discussed in Chapter III. The results of the study are reported in Chapter IV; and lastly, in Chapter V conclusions are reached and recommendations are suggested from the analysis of the data.

Summary

Job satisfaction has been an issue of concern by both industrialists and educators for many years. While the literature abounds in studies concerning job satisfaction, very little exists concerning its relationship to life satisfaction, particularly among college faculty. The purpose of this chapter has been to establish a need for testing the existence of such a relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction.

Also set forth in this chapter are the hypotheses which were tested and the assumptions held when the research was undertaken. The existing limitations were also noted. Operational definitions and the organization of the study conclude the chapter.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

According to Hillestad, a review of the literature serves two purposes: (1) to explain the theoretical base for the research and (2) to set the current research into perspective to show "the state of the art."[1] The focus of this study was on the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction among faculty in Oklahoma junior colleges. Volumes of research have been conducted on job satisfaction, but very few studies have been directly concerned with the problem of how job satisfaction relates to an individual's overall life satisfaction. Specifically, the literature reviewed revealed no studies correlating work and nonwork in the field of higher education, although several studies and publications in other areas do relate to the problem. A secondary purpose of this research was to test various moderators and their effects upon the work-nonwork relationship; therefore, studies investigating the moderating effects of age, gender, marital status, and various other factors were reviewed.

Thus, the literature reviewed in this chapter was selected on the basis of its relevance to the problem under study and was classified

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[1]Mildred Hillestad, Research: Process and Product, Service Bulletin No. 1 (St. Peter, Minn: Delta Pi Epsilon, 1976), p. 104.

into three major categories: Theoretical Background, Models Predicting the Relationship Between Job Satisfaction and Life Satisfaction, and Moderators Affecting the Relationship Between Job Satisfaction and Life Satisfaction. A summary finalizes the chapter.

Theoretical Background

Organizational psychology generally looks at man as a working individual without an existence off the job. This viewpoint assumes that a person's nonwork experiences do not affect his activities and attitudes at work. This may or may not be a valid assumption, but theories have been advanced to prove the relatedness of a person's work experiences to his nonwork experiences.

Glenn L. Bryan, of the Office of Naval Research, in discussing today's work, points out that the concept of the job is common in modern organizations. Personnel departments rely heavily on job descriptions, job evaluations, on-the-job training, and other developmental procedures of human resources. He further states that the "trouble with the job approach is that it deals with the work done as if it were independent of the workers who do it."[1] Individuals are seen on the job as merely instruments generating a valuable commodity called "work." Therefore, in assessing job satisfaction, it is not surprising that employees resent having their work valued highly while negating their value as individuals.[2] Administrators in higher

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[1]Glenn L. Bryan, "Introduction," Work and Nonwork in the Year 2001, ed. by Marvin D. Dunnette (Monterey, California: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company, 1973), p. 2.

[2]Ibid.

education, as well as personnel managers in business and industry, tend to view individuals only in their working roles, neglecting to consider extra work spheres as having any significance upon the worker's attitudes and behavior on the job.

From a societal point of view, Katz and Kahn write that "the organization is a subsystem of one or more larger systems, and its linkage or integration with these systems affects its mode of operation and its level of activity."[1] Thus, work experience is integrated as a subset of life experience and cannot be regarded as an entity in itself.

Parsons further illustrates this point by looking at the human action system as four primary subsystems: the social system, behavioral organism, personality of the individual, and the cultural system. His concept projects the social system as the integrative subsystem of action in general, and the other three primary systems of action are the principal environments.[2] "Many social systems such as local communities, schools, business firms, and kinship units are not societies but rather subsystems of a society."[3]

In viewing work as a subsystem of life experience, the concept of life satisfaction has grown out of research designed to develop social indicators of well-being. Historically, these indicators were objective measures of life's circumstances, or material aspects, such

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[1]Daniel Katz and Robert L. Kahn, The Social Psychology of Organizations (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1966), p. 58.

[2]Talcott Parsons, Societies, (New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1966), pp. 1-7.

[3]Ibid., p. 1.

as the gross national product, employment rate, crime rate, population growth or available housing. More recently, researchers such as Bradburn,[1] Campbell,[2] and Andrews and Withey[3] have attempted to assess the quality of life in terms of how the individual experiences life directly.

Campbell writes:

> If we believe that the quality of life lies in the objective circumstances of life, these measures will tell us all we need to know; but if we believe, as I assume most psychologists do, that the quality of life lies in the experience of life, then these are surrogate indicators. They describe the conditions of life that might be assumed to influence life experience, but they do not assess that experience directly.[4]

Therefore, by assessing the relationship between work and nonwork experiences, researchers have been able to observe and have found the individual to be an integrated whole in life experience domains.

Hall and Lindzey further emphasize this point in describing the organismic theory of personality.

> . . . there is great stress upon the interrelatedness of everything the individual does, upon the fact that each act can be understood only against the background provided by the person's other acts.[5]

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[1]Norman M. Bradburn, The Structure of Psychological Well-Being, (Chicago: Aldine Publishing Company, 1969), p. 318.

[2]Angus Campbell, "Subjective Measures of Well-Being," American Psychologist, XXXI (February, 1976), p. 117.

[3]Frank M. Andrews and Stephen B. Withey, Social Indicators of Well-Being, (New York: Plenum Press, 1976), p. 455.

[4]Campbell, "Subjective Measures," p. 118.

[5]Hall and Lindzey, Theories of Personality, p. 24.

Consequently, it may be advantageous to take more of an organismic approach to the study of man and work, which emphasizes that individuals function as integrated units, rather than as parts systems. In order to be understood, all of a person's behavior and biological functioning make up an organic whole and cannot be segmented.

Models Predicting the Relationship Between Job Satisfaction and Life Satisfaction

In studies of the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction, three models have been used to describe the relationship: the Spillover Satisfaction Model (positive correlation), the Compensatory Satisfaction Model (negative correlation), and the Segmentation Satisfaction Model (zero correlation).

Segmentation Satisfaction Model

The Segmentation Satisfaction Model, the least developed of the three models, posits no relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction. Individuals deal with different life settings as relatively independent segments. The assumption is made that the individual can compartmentalize his or her life and what that individual does in one segment has no bearing or relation to the other. Attitudes that develop in one setting have no effect on attitudes in other settings.[1]

London, Crandall, and Seals, in 1977, attempted to integrate the research on quality of work life and general quality of life.

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[1]Paul Joseph Bamundo, "The Relationship Between Job Satisfaction and Life Satisfaction: An Empirical Test of Three Models on a National Sample," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, The City University of New York, 1977), p. 1.

Specifically, they examined the contributions of job satisfaction and leisure satisfaction to quality of life among American adults. They found that job satisfaction and satisfaction with leisure activities contributed independently to individuals' assessments of their quality of life.[1]

Even though the results were limited to those leisure and job items included in the survey, the study supports a segmentation hypothesis, suggesting that job and leisure attitudes are relatively independent.

Compensatory Satisfaction Model

The Compensatory Satisfaction Model holds that there is a negative relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction. The main assumption of this model is that individuals compensate in one setting of life for dissatisfaction in another setting. People who have routine or socially isolated jobs with little autonomy might compensate off the job by choosing activities with a high degree of social interaction.

Faunce and Dubin describe the compensatory effect.

> An alternative to the spillover model is the compensatory model, in which the individual's adjustment in a central institutional setting, like work, is so salient that it compensates for poor adjustments in other institutional areas. Individuals who find work challenging, satisfying, and rewarding may show a considerably lower investment of self in other settings, simply because the high level of reward achieved at work is sufficient to compensate for less rewarding behavior outside of work. On the other hand, for

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[1]Manuel London, Rick Crandall, and Gary W. Seals, "The Contribution of Job and Leisure Satisfaction to Quality of Life," Journal of Applied Psychology, LXII (June, 1977), p. 328.

> the individual who finds work unrewarding, there may be very significant compensatory adjustments with a high level of self-investment in nonwork institutional settings.[1]

Ginsberg suggests that if workers find their jobs oppressive or uninteresting, they seek alternative satisfactions elsewhere. He further points out that even though an individual seeks satisfaction through an alternative outside the workplace, this does not necessarily add to the enhancement of the quality of the working life.[2]

After questioning male heads of families in Annecy, France, in 1962, Dumazedier and Latouche found that a compensatory relationship was indicated between socio-occupational status and patterns of leisure activity. The results of the interviews showed a tendency for workers who expressed satisfaction with their job to attach less importance to certain semi-leisure activities centered in the home.[3]

In addition, it was found that differences in status, environment, and attitudes linked to work were related to disparities in the cultural and social levels of leisure. Even though the results were indicative of a compensatory effect, it should be pointed out that environment tended to have some bearing on the outcome.[4]

In 1975, Dowell, attempted to test the relationship between work and nonwork satisfactions with life satisfaction. The sample

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[1]Faunce and Dubin, "Individual Investment," p. 303.

[2]Eli Ginsberg, "Work Structuring and Manpower Realities," The Quality of Working Life, Volume One, ed. by Louis E. Davis and Albert B. Cherns (New York: The Free Press, 1975), p. 376.

[3]J. Dumazedier and N. Latouche, "Work and Leisure in French Sociology," Industrial Relations, I (February, 1962), p. 16.

[4]Ibid.

consisted of 286 workers in two catalogue order plants, of which three levels of employment were examined: (1) managers, (2) supervisors, and (3) nonsupervisory personnel. The results indicated that at the managerial level, work satisfaction contributed more to life satisfaction than nonwork satisfaction. At the supervisory and nonsupervisory levels, the opposite was found to be true; nonwork satisfaction contributed more to life satisfaction than work satisfaction.[1]

In summary, the results of the studies noting a compensatory effect indicated that occupational level may be a moderating factor in the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction. Therefore, as Dumazedier and Latouche, and Dowell suggest, the compensatory model may apply to lower levels of employment, while a spillover effect sets in at higher levels of employment.

Spillover Satisfaction Model

The Spillover Satisfaction Model assumes a positive relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction. In describing the spillover effect Rousseau states:

> The spillover model suggests that experiences characterizing work will be positively related to nonwork experiences. Individuals who have unenriched jobs (for example, those jobs low on variety, interpersonal relations, and decision making) will have similar nonwork experiences if the spillover model is supported.[2]

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[1]Ben Evans Dowell, "The Relationship Between the Importance and Satisfaction of Desires in Work, Non-Work, and Life," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Minnesota, 1975), p. 106-119.

[2]Denise M. Rousseau, "Relationship of Work to Nonwork," Journal of Applied Psychology, LXIII (August, 1978), p. 513.

A number of scholars agree with Rousseau and believe that work is the central aspect of a worker's life with its effects spilling over into other life spheres.

Faunce and Dubin illustrate this point when they write:

> Assume a model in which the individual adjusts in approximately the same way to all his social environments. If, from this stand-point, the work organization is considered as a central environment in an industrial society, then this model would predict that the individual has a spillover form of adjustment from work to nonwork settings. Thus, if the work environment maximizes his opportunities for personality expression, he will operate in the same way in nonwork environments and there will be a spillover of his work adjustment into other institutional areas of behavior. Essentially, the spillover model views the individual as having certain constants in his personality structure such that, whatever his adjustment is in a central setting, it will be comparable in other institutional settings.[1]

Faunce and Dubin also accept the possibility that the central life interest may not be the job, yet a positive relationship still exists.

One of the first studies to test the spillover model was conducted in 1954 by Kornhauser. The relation of life satisfaction to mental health was considered in his broad study of 407 blue collar workers in the automobile industry.[2]

One of the key questions of the study was:

> Do men with negative work feelings tend also to have negative attitudes toward activities and relationships off the job or are they the more likely to seek compensatory enjoyments to find their satisfactions outside the plant instead of at work?[3]

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[1]Faunce and Dubin, "Individual Investment," p. 303.

[2]Kornhauser, Mental Health, p. 18.

[3]Ibid., p. 205.

Kornhauser found that a positive relationship existed and concluded:

> Job satisfaction is part of this system of interdependent feelings; it is positively linked, though to a moderate degree, with each of the other measures of satisfaction. The relationships are thus consistent with an interpretation that conceives favorable or unfavorable job feelings as carrying over to produce corresponding feelings in other sectors of life . . . it still remains significant that the correlational evidence is congruent with a "spillover" interpretation as opposed to a "compensatory" interpretation of job feelings in relation to nonwork aspects of life.[1]

Even though Kornhauser cautioned that personality factors or background environment might affect feelings in all life spheres, the findings are viewed as supporting the spillover hypothesis, with an implied directionality of the workplace to the nonwork place.

Friedlander, in 1966, attempted to determine whether workers from different groupings would place difference values on various facets of both their work and nonwork environments. The study was conducted on 1,468 Civil Service employees of a government community. These subjects were categorized into white-collar and blue-collar occupational groups and high, medium, and low-status groups. The relative values that those members of each group held toward the following environmental factors were examined: education, church, recreation, work content, and work environment.[2]

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[1] Ibid., p. 207.

[2] Frank Friedlander, "Importance of Work Versus Nonwork Among Socially and Occupationally Stratified Groups," Journal of Applied Psychology, L (December, 1966), p. 438.

Friedlander concluded that the value hierarchy, in terms of increasing importance, was recreation, education, church, work-context and work content factors. Results also indicated that work environment factors were more important to blue-collar workers, while work-content factors were more important to the white-collar workers, with the exception of low status white-collar workers. In general, work factors appeared to be more important to life satisfaction than nonwork factors.[1]

Friedlander's study supported the spillover effect with implications of directionality from work satisfaction to life satisfaction.

Bradburn, in 1969, conducted an interview study in four waves in the suburbs and inner-city of Detroit and Chicago, a suburb of Washington, D.C. and ten other metropolitan areas. A three-item index of general life satisfaction was used, dealing with general happiness, perceived success in getting the things out of life one wants, and the extent of desire to change one's life. The purpose of his measuring life satisfaction was to assist in validating an overall measure of psychological well-being.[2]

The study revealed that poor mental health was associated with negative measures and that social participation was associated with positive measures. In regard to work, Bradburn found that work satisfaction and feelings of inadequacies in one's work role has a consistent relationship with negative affect for individuals at all

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[1]Ibid.

[2]Bradburn, Psychological Well-Being, pp. 18-20.

job-status levels. Work continues to be a major element in the social life of individuals, especially for men and becoming more so for women.[1]

According to Meissner, in 1971, who studied 206 industrial workers on Vancouver Island, a spillover effect was found, suggesting that workers choose leisure activities whose characteristics are similar to those of their jobs. Specifically, Meissner concluded that when work is socially isolating, workers reduce their exposure to situations in which they have to talk, and also spend less time in organized and purpose-directed activities.[2]

Even though it would be difficult to generalize results of this study because of the relatively small sample and rather specific geographic population, it was unique in testing the spillover model of work and nonwork leisure activities.

Mansfield, in 1971, conducted a study to measure the relationship of need satisfaction and need importance in work and nonwork desires--security, social esteem, autonomy and self-actualization. The data were gathered by means of an anonymous questionnaire completed by 52 managers attending a one-week course at the London Business School.[3]

Mansfield hypothesized that the importance attached to needs in an area at work would be positively related to need importance in

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[1]Ibid., pp. 20-28.

[2]Martin Meissner, "The Long Arm of the Job: A Study of Work and Leisure," Industrial Relations, X (October, 1971), p. 241.

[3]Roger Mansfield, "Need Satisfaction and Need Importance In and Out of Work," Studies in Personnel Psychology, IV (October, 1972), p. 22.

the same area out of work. He found strong positive relations between need importance in the work and nonwork realms. His study supports the spillover model in viewing that people "integrate" their working and nonworking lives.[1]

A preliminary study conducted by Willmott, in 1971, examined the interrelationship among work, family life and leisure. Leisure was defined for the study as nonwork and covered other non-family aspects outside the job.[2]

The subjects were a selected random sample from an electronics plant a few miles outside Greater London and a glue factor in the heart of London's working class area. All subjects were married males aged 30 and over. Ninety-two men were interviewed on the job; seventy-nine were interviewed at home. The distinction was made between three status categories: Senior Staff (including executives), Junior Staff, and Works (manual laborers).[3]

Some of the preliminary conclusions found by Willmott were as follows:

1. Most of the Senior Staff reported getting satisfaction from their work alone or their work and leisure combined, but these satisfactions were at the price of feeling "pressed" at work. (72 percent compared with 39 percent of other men)

2. The Senior Staff people carried pressures over into their life at home which would suggest that the tension between work and family would be greatest for this group.

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[1]Ibid., p. 22.

[2]Peter Willmott, "Family, Work and Leisure Conflicts Among Male Employees," Human Relations, XXIV (December, 1971), p. 576.

[3]Ibid.

3. The conflict or tension was least for Junior Staff, who were mostly foremen or junior engineers.

4. The conflict or tension for Works people seem to be in terms of long working hours or shift work.

5. Higher-status people were more "active" in their leisure, at least in a sense of doing a greater variety of things. More time was spent by higher-status people on "active" leisure, more time by lower-status on "passive" leisure.

6. In all classes most nonwork time was spent at home and with the family. The family itself figured in much of the leisure activities. The home was the focus for much nonwork--home decorating, gardening, listening to records, reading or car maintainence.

7. The Senior Staff were more involved in their work, and some of this involvement spilled over into their life at home.[1]

In summary, Willmott concluded that man, rather than being "work-centered," "family-centered," or "leisure-centered" could rank high on involvement in all three or low in all three. Thus, this study supports the spillover model of satisfaction.

In 1973, Winters, attempted to determine the relationship between job satisfaction and leisure among 438 adult full-time employees in business and industry in the western area of New York State. These subjects represented six institutions and five general work categories.[2]

Winters selected the Hoppock Job Satisfaction Scale and the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire, which was administered to 217 females and 221 males.

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[1]Ibid., pp. 583-584.

[2]Robert Arthur Winters, "Relationships Between Job Satisfaction and Leisure Satisfaction," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, State University of New York at Buffalo, 1973), p. 33.

The specific relationships investigated by Winters were:

1. Is there a positive relationship between job and leisure satisfaction whereas the particular satisfactions gained from leisure activities are the same as those gained from the job. Example: creativity, achievement, or variety.

2. Is there a positive relationship between the source of greatest satisfaction in the job and the source of greatest satisfaction in leisure activity?

3. Is there a positive relationship between general (overall) job satisfaction and general leisure satisfaction?[1]

Following a series of statistical tests including multivariate of analyses of variance, multiple regression, and pooled within correlation, Winters concluded the following:

1. Workers who gain particular satisfactions from their jobs are likely to gain the same satisfaction from their leisure.

2. Positive relationships exist between particular job items and particular leisure items--social service, social status, and friends.

3. Those individuals who are highly satisfied with their jobs from a general long-range point of view, are likely to be highly satisfied with their leisure activities.[2]

Even though leisure was the only nonwork setting tested against the job setting, the study indicates support for the spillover effect.

In a study conducted on fifty-four school teachers, in 1975, Gechman and Wiener investigated the relationship between job involvement, job satisfaction, and mental health. The teachers kept a week-long daily record and self-report of the amount of personal time devoted to work-related activities beyond the required working day.

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[1]Ibid., pp. 31-32.

[2]Ibid., pp. 95-99.

They were also measured on their mental health by a written adaptation of Kornhauser's structured interview procedure.[1]

The following conclusions were found:

1. Personal time devoted to work was positively correlated to job involvement, but was unrelated to job satisfaction.

2. Positive mental health was positively related to job satisfaction but not significantly related to job involvement.[2]

Gresham and Wiener reported that the conclusions were in line with previous research findings. Thus, the relationship suggests a possible spillover effect with regard to job satisfaction, that positive feelings toward the work role may reach out and carry over into other sectors of life.

The sample used in this study may be a limitation in projecting the overall findings, and the time period of one week in keeping the report may not accurately reflect time spent on certain duties. Regardless of the possible limitations, the results were consistent with an earlier study of Kornhauser.

A study was conducted by Orpen, in 1977, to determine if life satisfaction could cause differences in job satisfaction.

Two specific questions were investigated:

1. Does work satisfaction have a greater effect on nonwork satisfaction or is the opposite direction of causality stronger?

2. To what extent are the relationships reciprocal?[3]

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[1]Arthur S. Gechman and Yoash Wiener, "Job Involvement and Satisfaction as Related to Mental Health and Personal Time Devoted to Work," Journal of Applied Psychology, LX (August, 1975), p. 522.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Orpen, "Work and Nonwork Satisfaction," p. 531.

The subjects in the study consisted of 76 white first-line managers in five different South African industrial and commercial firms. Data were obtained at two different points in time at one year intervals. Three types of correlations were computed: static, crossed-lagged, and dynamic. The static correlations tested the relationship between work satisfaction and life satisfaction; the cross-lagged, between life satisfaction and work satisfaction; the dynamic correlation, between the differences in work satisfaction scores from the first set of data to the second set of data and the differences in life satisfaction scores from test one to test two.

Orpen concluded the following:

1. Job satisfaction and life satisfaction were causally related.
2. Causality can be inferred and the relationships should not be regarded as essentially reciprocal.
3. Work satisfaction has a stronger effect on nonwork satisfaction than nonwork has on work.
4. Although the dynamic collection was significant ($p<.01$), it is of insufficient magnitude to rule out the possibility that "other variables had strong effects on the work satisfaction-nonwork satisfaction relationship.[1]

The results of the investigation offer more support for the argument that differences in job satisfaction cause variations in life satisfaction, than for the argument that differences in nonwork or life experiences produce variations in job satisfaction. Orpen's study showed a positive relationship between job and life satisfaction, which is consistent with the spillover model of satisfaction.

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[1]Ibid., pp. 531-532.

In an analysis to explore the link between work and nonwork experiences among employees in an electronics firm and a radio station, Rousseau found that work and nonwork measures were positively related. The short form of the Job Diagnostic Survey was used to measure characteristics of work, which included feedback, autonomy, skill variety, task significance, task identity, and dealing with others. The dimensions measured in the JDS formed the basis of the measures for the nonwork activities. A score for each measurement was derived and results indicated that the nonwork score was more highly related to nonwork satisfaction than to job satisfaction; the opposite was true for the work index.[1]

Rousseau examined the possibility of a nonlinear relationship between work and nonwork activities by squaring correlation ratios. A positive linear relationship was found between the work and nonwork measures; thus, substantiating a spillover effect between work and nonwork.

In summary, the Spillover Satisfaction Model appears to be more strongly supported than either the Compensatory Satisfaction Model or the Segmentation Satisfaction Model.

Bamundo, in 1977, tested the three models which have been proposed to predict the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction. The predictions made were a positive correlation (Spillover Model), a negative correlation (Compensatory Model) and a zero correlation (Segmentation Model).[2] Questionnaires were sent to

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[1]Rousseau, "Relationship of Work to Nonwork," p. 513.

[2]Bamundo, "Three Models," p. 64.

a nation-wide sample of 2,200 potential subjects with a return of 911 usable questionnaires. Overall job satisfaction was measured by a global question and specific facets of the job was measured by the Job Descriptive Index, developed by Smith, Kendall and Hulin.[1] The life domain measures of a global nature included overall life satisfaction, happiness, marital adjustment, health and alcohol consumption.

The study provided support for the spillover effect, with virtually no support shown for the compensatory or segmentation models, for the entire sample or any subgroup of the same sample. Bamundo's results were consistent with prior research.

In general, the spillover model appears to be more strongly supported, but as Rousseau points out, support for this model comes from research in diverse occupations such as manufacturing, logging, and professional work. The compensatory model is supported by research in stressful occupations such as mining and fishing.[2] The spillover model tends to support jobs varying in content requirements with high levels of responsibility, whereas the compensatory model supports jobs much more routine in nature.

The real issue may be the circumstances under which each model receives support.[3] Bartolome'and Evans, in 1978, studied a group of European managers and speculated that there are certain stages in a manager's life which causes his relation between work and nonwork

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[1]Patricia Cain Smith, Lorne M. Kendall, and Charles L. Hulin, The Measurement of Satisfaction in Work and Retirement (Chicago, Illinois: Rand McNally & Company, 1969), p. 83.

[2]Rousseau, "Relationship of Work to Nonwork," p. 513.

[3]Faunce and Dubin, "Individual Investment," p. 303.

to change. Younger men were found to be more preoccupied with their profession, placing most of their time and energy on the job. The next life stage would probably be an integration of their work and nonwork investment time with a final stage being the maintenance stage, where family and leisure command more interest, and thus, more investment time.[1]

With the previous studies providing background for a spillover model of satisfaction, along with the compensatory and segmentation models, a review was then made to determine what circumstances or moderators, if any, affect the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction.

Moderators Affecting the Relationship Between Job Satisfaction and Life Satisfaction

Personal Factors

Researchers have found that certain personal factors, such as gender and age can have a moderating effect on the relationship between work and nonwork. Brayfield, Wells, and Strate, in 1957, were three of the first researchers to test the effect of gender on job and life satisfaction. The primary purpose of the study was to investigate the magnitude of the relationship toward the job with attitude toward life in general.[2]

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[1]Fernando Bartolome'and Paul A. Lee Evans, "Professional Lives Versus Private Lives--Shifting Patterns of Managerial Commitment," Organizational Dynamics, VII (Spring, 1979), pp. 3-26.

[2]Brayfield, Wells, and Strate, "Job Satisfaction," p. 202.

The results of a correlational analysis indicated a strong positive relationship between job and life items for men but no significant relationship for women. Work was a less important factor in the attitudes toward life for the women than for the men. The men included in this study were predominately in higher level job classifications entailing some independent thought and higher salaries than were the women. Thus, the men may have perceived their jobs more important because they actually were higher in the job classification hierarchy. The present study will test men and women in equal job levels earning basically the same salary.[1]

In effect, Brayfield et al's study indicates that gender appears to be a factor of the strength of the relationship between work and nonwork.

In 1971, Haavio-Mannila analyzed data collected for a study on roles of men and women in urban and rural Finland. The object of the analysis was to study the gender differences in satisfaction of family, work, leisure, and life, while controlling factors such as marital status, place of residence, employment status, and social strata.[2]

This study included randomly selected men and women age 15 to 64 years living in Helsinki, the capital of Finland, and in five Finnish rural communities. Satisfaction was measured on a four-point scale ranging from "very satisfied" to "very unsatisfied." The

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Elina Haavio-Mannila, "Satisfaction and Family, Leisure and Life Among Men and Women," Human Relations, XXIV (December, 1971), p. 586.

questions were of a global nature, simply asking how satisfied the subjects were with different aspects of their lives: status at work, work in general, family life in general, relationship to spouse, possibilities for leisure time use, and overall life.[1]

The proportion of subjects in this study who were openly dissatisfied was small; therefore, the author used "very satisfied" as the indicator for satisfaction. The present study will use a seven-point scale on the global questions, thus allowing for a wider range of choice.

In general, the author reported that women are a little more satisfied than men, whether married, single, or divorced. The only exception was that women in Helsinki were more dissatisfied with family life than men, but the author posited the explanation that this was apparently due to the large proportion of unmarried women in the sample. The gender difference disappeared when only married persons were taken into account. When job satisfaction of only employed persons and farmers was measured, there was still a slight trend showing women being more satisfied than men.[2]

Sheppard and Herrick[3] in studying blue-collar workers in 1970 found women significantly more likely to report dissatisfaction than men, but in a later study of general hospital employees conducted by Lifter, in 1973, measures revealed that women, in general, were

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[1]Ibid.

[2]Ibid., pp. 586-588.

[3]Harold L. Sheppard and Neal Q. Herrick. Where Have All the Robots Gone?, (New York: The Free Press, 1972), pp. 8-9.

more satisfied than men.[1] The difference might be explained by job level. The women employed in the hospital were professionals or semi-professionals in nature as opposed to the women studied in Sheppard and Herrick's investigation who were skilled or semi-skilled workers.

In 1977, Kavanagh and Halpern, attempted to replicate the earlier work of Brayfield et al (1957), investigating the relationship between life satisfaction and job satisfaction for males and females. The measures used were the same, but occupational levels were considered along with gender as a moderator on life and job satisfaction.[2]

The Kavanagh and Halpern study of 411 university employees grouped into three job levels, reported a strong positive correlation between job satisfaction and life satisfaction for men (r=.27) and women (r=.34). These findings contradict the previous study of 20 years ago which showed no significant relationship between job and life satisfaction for women. The authors suggest that in today's society the changing work roles for women are more closely approximating the traditional roles of men.[3] The stronger correlation for women might be indicative of a conscious effort on the part of women to be successful at work and to make work a major aspect of their lives.

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[1]Mark Louis Lifter, "Relationship of Job Content Characteristics to Organizational Satisfaction and Life Satisfaction," (Ph.D. dissertation, Wayne State University, 1973), p. 96.

[2]Michael J. Kavanagh and Michael Halpern, "The Impact of Job Level and Sex Differences on the Relationship Between Life and Job Satisfaction," Academy of Management Journal, XX (March, 1977), p. 66.

[3]Ibid., p. 69.

Another explanation might be in terms of environment, whereas the university climate would tend to be more supportive for the women's movement than other organizations.

In regard to occupational level, the authors found no support for a positive relationship. The findings rejected the hypothesis that an increase in occupational level would increase the relationship between job and life satisfaction. In fact, their study revealed the opposite; as one increased in occupational level in the organization, strength of the relationship decreased for both male and female. One explanation, posited by Kavanagh and Halpern, may be that as an individual rises in the hierarchy of the organization, the amount of pressures and stress increases. In order to deal with the added stress, one might disengage himself from the work role and seek satisfaction in nonwork experiences.[1]

Using a national sample, Bamundo, in 1977, tested the hypothesis that the strength of the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction would be greater for men than for women. Using a one-tailed test of the standardized (z-transformation) correlation coefficients, the study revealed a significant difference in the strength of the relationship for men (r=.40) and women (r=.29).[2]

Bamundo's conclusions were directly at odds with Kavanagh and Halpern's, whose study was conducted in a university setting. As noted earlier, the academic climate being more liberal than most business concerns would probably be more reactive to changes in social

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[1]Ibid., p. 71.

[2]Bamundo, "Three Models," p. 51.

norms and values; thus further advancing the women's job opportunities and level of responsibility.

Another moderator which affects the relationship of work and nonwork satisfaction is that of age. A few studies were found investigating directly or indirectly age as a moderator on work and nonwork. In 1972, Sheppard and Herrick's study of 371 blue-collar union workers indicated that younger workers have a higher level of job dissatisfaction than older workers. One of every four workers under age 20 was found to be dissatisfied; whereas, only 13 percent of the workers aged 33-44 expressed dissatisfaction.[1]

An interview technique was used in which Sheppard and Herrick concluded that younger workers were less authoritarian and, therefore, more alienated than older, more authoritarian workers. In effect, Sheppard and Herrick posited that younger workers are more dissatisfied because of higher expectations than those of the older workers.[2]

In 1972 an investigation was conducted by Iris and Barrett involving two groups of foremen in a southern chemical plant. The relationship among employee job satisfaction, life satisfaction, and the importance of job factors was examined. Iris and Barrett utilized the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) to measure specific facets of the job, along with a separate questionnaire upon which each respondent indicated the degree of importance of each job facet on a seven-point scale. For

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[1]Sheppard and Herrick, Where Have Robots Gone?, pp. 5-6.

[2]Ibid., p. 7.

the life satisfaction measurement, global questions were asked concerning satisfaction with life in general, family, leisure, and job.[1]

The first group of foremen (N-35) who were characterized *a priori* as being relatively satisfied with their job were four years older, had four years more tenure, and earned $130 more per month than the second group of foremen (N-34) who were characterized *a priori* as being dissatisfied. Correlational analyses confirmed the assessment was supported. As age, income, and tenure increase, so does the relationship between life and job satisfaction.[2]

Lifter, in 1973, analyzed questionnaires completed by 548 hospital employees of a Detroit general hospital. The questionnaire included measurements of variety, autonomy, task identity, evaluative feedback, friendship opportunities, and informal interaction. Correlations were tested between available personal data to organizational and life satisfaction and the results were as follows:

1. There was a high correlation of age with organization satisfaction.
2. There was weaker, though significant, correlation that existed between age and life satisfaction.[3]

In addition, Lifter found that employees who were more satisfied with their organization, tended to see their present job as their permanent occupation. The same employees were also more satisfied

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[1]Benjamin Iris and Gerald V. Barrett, "Some Relations Between Job and Life Satisfaction and Job Importance," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, LVI (August, 1972), pp. 301-304.

[2]Ibid., p. 301.

[3]Lifter, "Relationships of Job Content," p. 82.

with their supervisor and felt that work was a relatively central part of their lives.

Gresham and Werner,[1] and Near, Rice, and Hunt[2] supported previous investigations by reporting that age was directly related to job satisfaction and life satisfaction.

On the other hand, Bamundo's hypothesis that the strength of the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction increases with age was weakly supported.

> . . . although one might interpret a general movement in the direction predicted critical irregularities exist. It can be noted that the relationship is virtually the same for all people under forty years of age, it tends to peak between the ages of forth to forty-nine, takes a sharp drop for the next age grouping and rises again as one nears retirement age. . . there is a significant difference in the strength of the relationship between the largest and smallest correlation coefficient ($p<.05$) . . . the middle age group (forty - forty-nine years) exhibited the greatest relationship. It may be that people who are in the middle years view work as a major life role and that this in turn affects their life roles.[3]

In summary, the literature revealing a stronger positive relationship between job and life satisfaction for men over women depended somewhat upon the job level. Women in the same job hierarchy as men maintained a relatively positive relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction. The studies in the late 70's also revealed women to be significantly more satisfied, possibly due to the women's liberation movement along with the more progressive

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[1]Gresham and Werner, "Job Involvement and Satisfaction," p. 523.

[2]Janet P. Near, Robert W. Rice, and Raymond G. Hunt, "Work and Extra Work Correlates of Life and Job Satisfaction," Academy of Management Journal XXI (June, 1978), pp. 248-264.

[3]Bamundo, "Three Models," p. 55.

attitude of society in accepting women in higher level jobs. In regard to age, the literature overall supported the hypothesis that as age increases, so does the relationship of satisfaction between work and nonwork.

Interpersonal Factors

Educational attainment and marital status have been found to moderate the effect of the relationship between work and nonwork satisfaction. Kornhauser found that education does not seem to be related to mental health, yet mental health was found to be directly related to job level, i.e., the higher the occupational level, the better the mental health.[1]

Bradburn reported a consistent relationship between education and the probability that one is "very happy."[2] On the other hand, Near et al found that education was weakly related to job satisfaction and life satisfaction, but strongly and positively related to health.[3]

According to Bamundo, the strength of the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction increases significantly as educational level increases. In his sample of a broad populace of subjects across the United States, Bamundo found those with graduate degrees were significantly different ($p<.01$) than those with grammar school education as shown by the following correlations between job satisfaction and life satisfaction.[4]

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[1]Kornhauser, Mental Health, p. 261.

[2]Bradburn, Psychological Well-Being, pp. 44-46.

[3]Near, Rice, and Hunt, "Work and Extra Work Correlates," p. 260.

[4]Bamundo, "Three Models," p. 56.

Education	Correlation Coefficient
Grammar School	.07
High School	.32
College Degree	.44
Graduate Degree	.58

Bamundo posited that "when a person spends more time preparing for a career, he may view this work as central life interest and it may, therefore, have a strong effect on other life endeavors and attitudes."[1] An interesting note in Bamundo's study was revealed when the same general pattern developed for the spouse's educational attainment. People tend to marry those who are educationally compatible.

Another moderator that seems to have some effect upon the relationship of work and nonwork satisfaction is marital status. A few studies were found investigating directly or indirectly marital status as a moderator on work and nonwork.

Bradburn in his study on the measurement of psychological well-being reported that unmarried people have a strong decreased sense of overall life satisfaction, particularly if they have been previously married. He found that not being married even had a greater impact for men.[2]

Investigating blue-collar workers, Sheppard and Herrick also reported single people more dissatisfied than married people, but in contrast to Bradburn's findings, reported women as being more dissatisfied than men.[3] The reason for this may be in the subjects

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Bradburn, Psychological Well-Being, p. 157.

[3] Sheppard and Herrick, Where Have Robots Gone?, pp. 8-9.

sample. Bradburn sampled a broad-based population, including women who were not employed; whereas, Sheppard and Herrick's sample was restricted to blue-collar union workers.

Near et al concluded that among the divorced and separated, satisfaction and health were rated quite low. Widowed respondents also indicated low satisfaction over a long period of time and reported themselves to be in poorer health, but the job satisfaction of widows was the highest of any other group.[1]

Haavio-Mannila's Finnish study revealed that married subjects appeared to have a happier family life than unmarried ones; and in conforming with previous studies, the unmarried men were, in most respects, the most dissatisfied group. The expressed high satisfaction only with their possibilities for leisure use. The married men, too, were more dissatisfied than the married women, especially in the rural communities.[2]

Haavio-Mannila concluded that family satisfaction had the highest correlation with overall life satisfaction. Family seemed to be a more important determiner of general happiness than work or leisure. For the working wives, general family satisfaction was more important to overall life satisfaction than their relationship to the husband; whereas, for nonworking wives a satisfactory husband-wife relationship was as important as family life in general.[3]

Bamundo found that the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction was strengthened for married people. His

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[1]Near, Rice, and Hunt, "Work and Extra Work Correlates," p. 257.

[2]Haavio-Mannila, "Satisfaction and Family," p. 586.

[3]Haavio-Mannila, "Satisfaction and Family," p. 589.

hypothesis was strongly supported when married people (r=.37) were compared to widowed subjects (r=.19) and weakly supported when compared with single subjects (r=.33).[1] This finding is consistent with the earlier research of Bradburn and Near, et al, who found that unmarried people have a lower sense of well-being, particularly if they have once been married.

In summary, the literature supported the hypothesis that married people are generally more satisfied with their job and life in general. Of the nonmarried group, women seem to adapt better than men and are more satisfied with their overall lives. In regard to education, the strength of the relationship between job and life satisfaction seems to increase significantly as educational level rises. A point revealed in the literature should be made--as educational level increases and assuming the occupational level also increases, more pressures come to bear on individuals both on the job and off the job, which might account for a decrease in satisfaction at the higher occupational levels.

Environmental Factors

Researchers have investigated directly or indirectly the effects that various environmental factors have upon the relationship of job satisfaction and life satisfaction. In regard to income, the assumption has been held that as income increases, the satisfaction an individual has with work and nonwork experiences also increases.

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[1] Bamundo, "Three Models," p. 57.

Iris and Barrett[1] in their study of two groups of foremen, and Lifter[2] in his study of hospital employees found that those workers earning more income were relatively more satisfied with their lives as a whole. Kornhauser concurred and also reported that "mental health is directly related to the worker's economic situation--people in financial straits tend to suffer more mental stress."[3]

Emphasizing this point further, Bradburn's measurement showed that "people with below average incomes, and specifically those with added family responsibilities, experience a low sense of well-being."[4]

Bamundo in testing the strength of the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction as income level rises, found the differences in the strength of the relationship significant ($p<.01$) for the highest ($r=.51$) and the lowest ($r=.13$) family income groups. He also reported that the same pattern prevailed when one considered individual income groups; whereas, the highest income group ($r=.55$) and the lowest income group ($r=.09$) was significant at a high level ($p<.01$).[5]

Near et al found that combined family income was positively related to life satisfaction and health, but not to job satisfaction.[6]

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[1]Iris and Barrett, "Relations Between Job and Life," p. 303.

[2]Lifter, "Relations of Job Content," p. 82.

[3]Kornhauser, Mental Health, p. 126.

[4]Bradburn, Psychological Well-Being, p. 105.

[5]Bamundo, "Three Models," p. 58.

[6]Near, Rice, and Hunt, "Work and Extra Work Correlates," p. 256.

In contradiction to Near et al, Sheppard and Herrick found that more additional earners in the family seemed to increase the dissatisfaction of the head of the family. The explanation might be the subjects surveyed. Whereas Near et al looked at a broad-based section of the public, Sheppard and Herrick were sampling only blue-collar workers. Sheppard and Herrick posited that "perhaps the working class still favors the 'macho' factor--that such men don't feel they have really succeeded if, all by themselves they can't provide their families with the necessary income to pay for the level of living to which they aspire."[1]

In 1979, Michaelsen, Weitzel, and Jones, investigated work and extra work sources of life satisfaction for 1,167 employed adults in Oklahoma. Their objective was to observe similarities and differences among four income/occupation subsamples regarding contributors to life satisfaction; primarily, marriage and family, spare time, standard of living, job, and health. Demographic data for the occupation and income grouping used in the study were (1) low income professional and administrative; (2) high income professional and administrative; (3) low income non-supervisory workers; and (4) high income non-supervisory workers.[2]

The major findings of the study were:

1. Satisfaction with one's standard of living was the greatest source of dissatisfaction for the total sample.

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[1]Sheppard and Herrick, Where Have Robots Gone?, p. 28.

[2]Larry K. Michaelsen, William Weitzel, and Coy A. Jones, "Work and Extra-Work Sources of Life Satisfaction: A Model and a Comparative Analysis of Four Income/Occupation Groups," Unpublished paper, The University of Oklahoma, 1979, p. 29.

2. Satisfaction with marriage and family was the single best predictor of life satisfaction for the total sample and three of the four groups and a close second for low income workers.

3. Satisfaction with one's job was a major contributor to life satisfaction for both low- and high-income professionals and administrators and for high income workers but was not a major contributor to life satisfaction for low income workers.

4. Friendships were more important to the high income group than the lower income group.

5. In the low income group, it was found that the usefullness of their education contributed significantly to life satisfaction.

6. Spare time was less important to the professional and administrators than to the workers.

7. Work was found to be somewhat more central to the lives for professional and administrators than for workers.

In summary, Michaelsen et al concluded that satisfaction with the job appeared to be more central to life satisfaction for the higher income and occupational groups, specifically, for professionals and administrators.

A second environmental factor that was found to moderate the relationship of work and nonwork was tenure. Even though tenure has somewhat of a different connotation in academia as compared to other occupations, it is deemed worthwhile to review the few studies that regarded tenure as a moderator.

Iris and Barrett found that tenure did have some bearing on satisfaction. The group of foremen who were classified a priori as more satisfied actually had an average of four years more tenure than the less satisfied group.[2]

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[1]Ibid.

[2]Iris and Barrett, "Relations Between Job and Life," pp. 301-303.

Near et al reported that tenure was directly related to job satisfaction, but had no bearing on life satisfaction.[1] This was in contrast to Lifter's findings where respondents reported more satisfaction with work along with their nonwork experiences, but these subjects also viewed their jobs as permanent, rather than temporary.[2]

Paralleling the analysis of age as a moderator, the tenure pattern reported by Bamundo was a U shaped curve, low correlation with less than one year on the job (r=.22), increasing to the highest correlation between 6 and 10 years (r=.49), and then decreasing again after 10 years (r=.36). Bamundo offers the explanation of the U shaped curve as a result of an "adjustment process, whereby the individual devotes himself to his job but beyond a certain number of years, his focus changes."[3]

In looking at the community environment as a moderator, few studies were found. One such investigation was conducted by Hulin in 1969, who analyzed the relationship of job satisfaction to the social system. Hulin factor-analyzed various community characteristics in two "company" towns; these included medical facilities, school facilities, dental availability, shopping facilities, and cost of living. Factor analysis yielded five dimensions: medical facilities economic factors, physical setting, recreational facilities, and educational facilities. These factors correlated more positively

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[1]Near, Rice, and Hunt, "Work and Extra-Work Correlates," p. 254.

[2]Lifter, "Relations of Job Content," p. 81.

[3]Bamundo, "Three Models," p. 59.

with job satisfaction than with life satisfaction. Thus, the study demonstrates the importance of environmental aspects to job satisfaction.[1]

Hulin also reported that satisfaction and higher pay were positively related in prospering communities. This would indicate that there may be an interaction between the resources a community offers to the individual and the means to these resources from the work itself.

Haavio-Mannila found both men and women were more satisfied in the urban area than in rural areas (40 percent of urban and 25 percent of rural subjects were very satisfied with work and family, about 30 percent and 15 percent with leisure and overall life).[2]

In summary, the literature supported the assumption that income level has a direct bearing on job and life satisfaction. As income increases, the strength of the relationship between job and life satisfaction increases. In regard to tenure, the strength of the relationship between job and life satisfaction seems to increase as tenure on the job increases. Satisfaction seems to be stronger for those who think of their job as permanent rather than temporary.

Summary

Because an understanding was necessary concerning the various patterns of relationship between job and life satisfaction, studies

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[1] C.L. Hulin, "Sources of Variation in Job and Life Satisfaction: The Role of the Community and Job Related Variables," Journal of Applied Psychology, LIII (August, 1966), pp. 271-291.

[2] Haavio-Mannila, "Satisfaction and Family," p. 586.

testing three models (spillover, compensatory, and segmentation) were reviewed. A majority of the studies found support for the spillover effect; whereas, man's experiences in his work spheres affect his experiences in his nonwork spheres and vice versa.

Realizing, however, that various factors affect this work-nonwork relationship, studies testing directly or indirectly such moderators as age, marital status, gender, income, and education were examined. The review of the literature indicated that the job and life satisfaction relationship is affected by certain moderators or circumstances.

With these studies providing background information, an attempt was made to determine if a positive relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction among junior college faculty in Oklahoma exists. The methods used to accomplish this purpose are set forth in the following chapter.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

The present study was designed to determine if a positive relationship exists between job satisfaction and life satisfaction of faculty in selected Oklahoma junior colleges. The purpose of this chapter is to describe the methods used in choosing the population, the procedure used in determining a sample of that population to be surveyed, the method of designing the survey instrument, the method of data collection, and the statistical procedures used in analyzing the data.

Selection of the Population

The population on which the study was based consisted of full-time faculty members in the 14 accredited state-supported junior colleges in the Oklahoma State System for Higher Education. Full-time faculty were defined as those faculty teaching half time or more. Rosters obtained from each school revealed that in the fall of 1979 there were a total of 912 full-time faculty members.

Selection of the Sample

The design of the research called for the drawing of a systematic random sample of 300 full-time faculty from the population which has been described. Kerlinger defines sampling as:

> . . . taking any portion of a population, or universe, as representative of that population or universe. This definition does not say that the portion or sample taken. . . is representative. It says, rather, taking a portion of a population and *considering* it to be representative.[1]

Kerlinger further states that a sample is really representative if it has been drawn randomly, defined as ". . . that method of drawing a portion (or sample) of a population or universe so that each member of the population or universe has an equal chance of being selected."[2]

One modification of random sampling is systematic selection. This, according to Warwick and Lininger, is:

> . . . *a method of selecting units from a list through the application of a selection interval, I, so that every Ith unit on the list, following a random start, is included in the sample.* The interval, *I*, is readily determined by dividing the population size (*N*) by the desired sample size (*n*). The result is the inverse of the sampling franction, *f*.
>
> $$I = \frac{N}{n} = \frac{1}{f}$$ [3]

Warwick and Lininger further state that the main advantage of systematic selection is simplicity and ease of administration.

In order to meet the specifications of the research design, systematic random selection was utilized for the study. The subjects were drawn from faculty rosters by choosing every *Ith* name. Beginning with the second name that was randomly selected from the first

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[1]Fred N. Kerlinger, Foundations of Behavioral Research (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1965), p. 52.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Donald P. Warwick and Charles A. Lininger, The Sample Survey: Theory and Practice (New York: McGraw-Hill Inc., 1975), p. 101.

three names, every third name was chosen. Three hundred six questionnaires were sent, representing 33.5 percent of the population.

In October, 1979, letters were sent to the presidents of each of the 14 selected junior colleges. Included with the letter were an explanation of the purpose of the study, a form on which willingness or unwillingness to participate could be indicated, and a self-addressed envelope. Copies of these materials are included in Appendix A. If willing to participate, the president was asked for permission to contact the administrator responsible for faculty to act as campus facilitator. If the administrator was not available, the president was requested to indicate on the return form the person designated to act as facilitator. The presidents were assured that the replies of their faculty members would be held in the strictest confidence. After two weeks, those colleges not responding were contacted by telephone. All 14 presidents agreed to the participation of the institutions they represented. All granted permission for the administrator responsible for faculty to be contacted as campus facilitator.

Each designated administrator was then contacted by telephone to confirm his or her willingness to act as the campus coordinator for the study. A request was made at this time for a copy of the school's current faculty roster. During this initial contact, a schedule of the school's spring semester faculty in-service week was obtained. The decision was made to personally deliver the questionnaires to each college during faculty in-service week. Delivery of the survey instrument was completed the second week in January of

1980. Included in Table 1 are the colleges which participated in the study, and the administrative officer in charge of instructional personnel who served as campus facilitator. Table 2 includes the number of full-time faculty reported in the fall of 1979 and the number of faculty contacted to participate in the study.

Collection of Data

In order to obtain the information desired from the sample of faculty, the survey method of research was determined to be appropriate. Kerlinger notes concerning survey research:

> Survey research is that branch of social scientific investigation that studies large and small populations (or universes) by selecting and studying samples from the population to discover the relative incidence, distribution and interrelations of sociological and psychological variables . . . the survey characteristics of whole populations of people. Only rarely, however, do survey researchers study whole populations; they study samples drawn from populations. From these samples they infer the characteristics of the defined population or universe. The study of samples from which inferences about populations can be drawn are needed because of the difficulties of attempting to study whole populations.
>
> The social scientific nature of survey research is revealed by the nature of its variables, which can be classified as sociological facts and opinions and attitudes. Sociological facts are attributes of individuals that spring from their membership in social groups or sets: sex, income, political and religious affiliation, socio-economic status, education, age, living expenses, occupation, race, and so on.[1]

As a device for gathering information from the selected participants, a survey instrument (Appendix B) was prepared. The questionnaire was divided into three sections: (1) background information, (2) job satisfaction, and (3) general life satisfaction.

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[1]Kerlinger, Behavioral Research, pp. 395-396.

TABLE 1

OKLAHOMA JUNIOR COLLEGES PARTICIPATING IN STUDY

Institution and Location	College Facilitator
Carl Albert Junior College Poteau	Mr. Joe Hemphill V.P. for Instruction
Claremore College Claremore	Ms. Betty Jackson V.P. for Teaching
Conners State College Warner	Mr. Harry Jackson Academic Dean
Eastern Oklahoma State College Wilburton	Dr. Hobart Means Dean of Academic Affairs
El Reno Junior College El Reno	Dr. Ron Garner Dean of Instruction
Murray State College Tishomingo	Dr. Phil Traughber Dean of College
Northeastern Oklahoma A & M College Miami	Dr. Charles Angle Dean of Instruction
Northern Oklahoma College Tonkawa	Dr. Gerald Burson Dean of Instruction
Oscar Rose Junior College Midwest City	Dr. John Davis V.P. for Academic Affairs
Sayre Junior College Sayre	Mr. Paul Conner Academic Dean
Seminole Junior College Seminole	Dr. Jim Colclazier Vice President
South Oklahoma City Junior College Oklahoma City	Dr. Robert Todd Dean of Instruction
Tulsa Junior College Tulsa Northeast Campus Tulsa	Mr. Bill Sutterfield Ms. Brenda Martin Deans of Instruction
Western Oklahoma State College Altus	Mr. Cecil Chesser Academic Dean

TABLE 2

NUMBER OF FACULTY PARTICIPATING IN STUDY

Institution	Full-time Faculty Fall, 1979*	Percent	Number of Faculty Contacted
Carl Albert Junior College	28	3	9
Claremore College	48	5	16
Conners State College	62	7	21
Eastern Oklahoma State College	67	7	22
El Reno Junior College	27	3	9
Murray State College	37	4	13
Northeastern Oklahoma A & M College	96	11	32
Northern Oklahoma College	58	6	20
Oscar Rose Junior College	153	17	51
Seminole Junior College	50	5	17
South Oklahoma City Junior College	92	10	31
Tulsa Junior College	142	16	48
Western Oklahoma State College	43	5	14
Sayre Junior College	9	1	3
Total	912	100%	306

*Source: 1979 Faculty Rosters from Individual Institutions

The section on background information included demographic data which might possibly have a moderating effect on both job satisfaction and/or life satisfaction. Information sought included educational background, age, gender, income, tenure status, and highest degree obtained. Additional information requested pertained to number of course preparations, number of years' experience other than junior college, minimum number of hours expected on campus per week, number of hours considered as a regular teaching load, and extent of night teaching obligations.

The information solicited for the job domain, made use of both a global overall measure of job satisfaction as well as facet-specific measures of job satisfaction. The global measure chosen was: "All things considered, how satisfied are you with your job?" The overall measure of job satisfaction was a 7-point scale question ranging from "completely satisfied" (1) to "completely dissatisfied" (7).

The facet-specific measure of job satisfaction was the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) developed by Smith, Kendall and Hulin.[1] Vroom stated that ". . . the JDI is without doubt the most carefully constructed measure of job satisfaction in existence today."[2] In comparing this measure with others, Gillo stated that "the JDI clearly represents the highest level of psychometric sophistication,

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[1]Smith, Kendall, and Hulin, Measurement of Satisfaction, p. 186.

[2]Victor H. Vroom, Work and Motivation, (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1964), p. 100.

and the results of its use have been favorable."[1] Corrected split-half reliabilities for the five dimensions of the JDI were reported by Bamundo and all scales were deemed to have acceptable levels of reliability. Internal consistency/reliability (KR 20) for these scales exceeded .80.[2]

The JDI consisted of five sub-scales: pay, supervision, co-workers, promotion, and work. The respondent was asked to evaluate his job by indicating which adjectives described that job. This was done by checking "Yes" if the work described the particular aspect of the job, "No" if the word did not describe that aspect, or "?" if he or she could not decide. The questionnaire was scored by the key developed by Smith et al. Those items that agreed with the key received three points; those items that did not agree received zero points; and question marks received one point.

The scales used to assess the life domain included one facet-specific measure on general life satisfaction and eight global measures on work, health, friendships, family, marriage, standard of living, and life as a whole. The formats were treated in the same manner as the following question exemplifies:

> All things considered, how satisfied are you with your family life, the time you spend and the things you do with the members of your family?

The respondents indicated on a 7-point scale whether they were "completely satisfied" (1), "neutral" (4), or "completely

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[1]Martin W. Gillo, "Studies on the Nature of the Relationship Between Job and Life Satisfaction: Towards a Comprehensive Model," (Ph.D. dissertation, University of Kansas, 1973), p. 14.

[2]Bamundo, "Three Models," p. 44-46.

dissatisfied" (7). The questions used were developed by Michaelsen, Weitzel and Jones for a statewide survey of Oklahoma conducted in 1979.[1]

Upon completion, the survey instrument was examined by a jury of five individuals. Refinement and revisions of the survey instrument were made in accordance with suggestions from the jury. Following these revisions, the instrument was printed and distributed to the defined sample. The materials provided to the participants were the materials in Appendix C--a letter inviting participation, the survey instrument (Appendix B), a form by which the participant could request a copy of the results of the study, and an envelope marked "Confidential" in which the questionnaire was returned to the campus facilitator.

The total number of subjects contacted for participation in the study was 306 faculty. Of this number 231 returned completed usable survey instruments, constituting a 75.4 percent return.

Method of Statistical Analysis

In order to statistically analyze the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction of junior college faculty, Pearson's Product-Moment Correlation was selected. This test is a parametric procedure measuring the degree of association between two quantitative variables.[2]

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[1]Michaelsen, Weitzel, and Jones, "Work and Extra-Work", 22 pp.

[2]Edward W. Minium, Statistical Reasoning in Psychology and Education, (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1970), p. 130.

According to Minium:

> . . . the degree of association shared by two variables is indicated by the coefficient of correlation; its symbol is r_{xy}, although it is often written without the subscripts . . . The coefficient is, in fact, a constant in the equation of Pearson's straight line of best fit, and it has properties expressing degree of relationship. When no relationship exists, its value is one . . . The sign of the coefficient may be positive or negative. A positive value of r indicates that there is a tendency for high values of one variable (X) to be associated with high values of the other variable (Y), and low values of the one to be associated with low values of the other . . . The sign of the coefficient indicates the direction of the association; it has nothing to do with its strength.[1]

For the purpose of this study, the .05 level of confidence was chosen. This means that a significant correlation obtained might appear by chance only five percent of the time. Research statisticians consider this to be neither too high nor too low for predictability in research such as this study.

An analysis of subsamples was undertaken to investigate possible third variable effects on the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction. The subsamples consisted of various income groups, age groups, and other demographic variables. Correlations were computed for all job and life domains within these various subsamples.

In addition, overall job satisfaction and overall life satisfaction among subgroups was analyzed by correlating a JOB score with a LIFE score. To compute the JOB score, the global measure (7-point scale) on job satisfaction and the facet-specific measure,

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[1]Ibid., pp. 132-133.

JDI work, (54 maximum points) were transformed to standard z scores and added together. The LIFE score was computed by summing transformed standard z scores of the global measure (7-point scale) on life as a whole and the facet-specific measure, general life satisfaction (54 maximum points). Consistency coefficient alphas for the scores JOB and LIFE were .70 and .78, respectively.[1]

In order to statistically test the difference between correlation coefficients of the various subgroups regarding the JOB and LIFE scores, Fisher's z_r transformation was utilized.

According to Ferguson:

> Consider a situation where two correlations coefficients, r_1 and r_2, are obtained on two independent samples . . . We wish to test whether r_1 is significantly different from r_2, that is, whether the two samples can be considered random samples from a common population. . . The significance of the difference between r_1 and r_2 can be readily tested using Fisher's z_r transformation.[2]

The formula for calculating the Fisher's z_r transformation significance test is:

$$z = \frac{z_{r1} - z_{r2}}{\sqrt{1/(N_1 - 3) + 1/(N_2 - 3)}}$$

The Statistical Analysis System (SAS) was used to perform all data analyses related to the present study.[3] Fisher's z_r

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[1]Lee J. Cronbach, "Coefficient Alpha and the Internal Structure of Tests," Psychometrika, XVI (September, 1951), pp. 297-333.

[2]George A. Ferguson, Statistical Analysis in Psychology and Education, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1966), pp. 187-188.

[3]Anthony J. Barr, James H. Goodnight, John P. Sall, and Jane T. Helwig, A User's Guide to SAS, (Raleigh, North Carolina: SAS Institute, Helwig Inc., 1976), p. 329.

transformation was computed by a hand calculator. Frequencies were obtained for all scales and demographic items. In addition, means, modes, medians, standard errors, standard deviations, minimums, maximum, ranges, and variances were computed and analyzed for all variables. An examination indicated that a normal distribution was approximated for the sample.

The results of the applications of Pearson's r and Fisher's z_r in the objective analysis of the research data are presented in the following chapter.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

The purpose of Chapter IV is to present the data collected through a survey of full-time junior college faculty in selected institutions in the state of Oklahoma. Two hundred thirty-one faculty members participated in the study. The data were studied and analyzed to determine if a positive relationship exists between job satisfaction and life satisfaction of junior college faculty.

In order to give an organized and concise presentation of the findings resulting from an analysis and interpretation of the information contained in the survey responses, this chapter is divided into the following major sections.

1. Profile of junior college faculty.
2. Results of spillover versus compensatory models of satisfaction between job and life.
3. Results of moderator effects on the job and life satisfaction relationship.

Profile of Junior College Faculty

The personal data presented in this section were secured from the questionnaire returns of the survey respondents.

Age by Gender

Almost three-fouths, 169 (73.1 percent), of the respondents were between the ages of 25 and 44. This compared with one (.4 percent) respondent below 25 years of age and 21 (9 percent) respondents 55 years and older. The sample included 86 (37.2 percent) females and 145 (62.7 percent) males. Details of age by gender are shown in Table 3.

TABLE 3

AGE BY GENDER

Age	Female	%	Male	%	Total	%
20 - 24			1	.4	1	.4
25 - 34	28	12.1	52	22.5	80	34.6
35 - 44	31	13.4	58	25.1	89	38.5
45 - 54	18	7.8	22	9.5	40	17.3
55 - 64	9	3.9	12	5.2	21	9.0
TOTAL	86	37.2	145	62.7	231	100.00

Educational Level

The majority, 165 (71.4 percent), of the respondents had obtained a master's degree. Twenty (8.7 percent) male respondents held earned doctorates while four (1.7 percent) of the female respondents held doctorate degrees. Only eight (3.4 percent) of the faculty held less than a bachelor's degree. Details of the educational attainment of faculty are shown in Table 4.

TABLE 4

EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

Highest Degree Obtained	Female	%	Male	%	Total	%
High School Diploma			4	1.0	4	1.7
Associate's Degree	2	.9	2	.9	4	1.7
Bachelor's Degree	15	6.5	18	7.8	33	14.3
Master's Degree	65	28.1	100	43.3	165	71.4
Doctorate Degree	4	1.7	20	8.7	24	10.4
Other	0	-	1	.4	1	.4
TOTAL	86	37.2	145	62.8	231	100.0

Marital Status

The majority, 185 (80.1 percent), of the respondents were married. Forty-two (18.2 percent) of the faculty reported nonmarried status, including 25 (9.5 percent) women and 21 (8.6 percent) men. Four (1 percent) respondents indicated they were widowed. Details of marital status of faculty are shown in Table 5.

Income

Family income of the respondents was fairly evenly distributed between $15,000 and $40,000. The greatest concentration appeared at the $15,000 to $19,999 income level with 49 (21.7 percent) respondents. Of those faculty reporting combined family income, 75 percent (106 respondents) of the males clustered between the $15,000 and $35,000 range. Family income reported for women, 71 percent (60 respondents), on the other hand, clustered between the $20,000 to

TABLE 5

MARITAL STATUS

	Female	%	Male	%	Total	%
Married	61	26.4	124	53.7	185	80.1
Single	13	5.6	13	5.6	26	11.2
Separated			1	.4	1	.4
Divorced	9	3.9	6	2.6	15	6.6
Widowed	3	1.3	1	.4	4	1.7
TOTAL	86	37.2	145	62.8	231	100.0

$45,000 range. Only 17 (7.5 percent) of the total faculty reported combined family income below $15,000 and only 8 (3.5 percent) of the respondents reported family income to be $50,000 and over. Details of family income are shown in Table 6.

TABLE 6

FAMILY INCOME

	Female	%	Male	%	Total	%
Below $15,000	6	2.6	11	4.9	17	7.5
$15,000-19,999	13	5.7	36	16.0	49	21.7
$20,000-24,999	11	4.9	24	10.6	35	15.5
$25,000-29,999	8	3.5	29	12.9	37	16.4
$30,000-34,999	19	8.4	17	7.5	36	15.9
$35,000-39,999	12	5.3	12	5.3	24	10.6
$40,000-44,999	10	4.4	6	2.7	16	7.1
$45,000-49,999	1	.4	3	1.3	4	1.7
$50,000 and over	4	1.8	4	1.8	8	3.6
TOTAL	84	37.0	143	62.7	227	100.0

In reporting individual income for the 1979-80 school year, the greatest concentration for the total faculty, 148 (64.0 percent), appeared between $14,000 and $18,000. Twenty-eight percent (40 respondents) of the male faculty reported a basic income of $18,000 or above; whereas, 8.2 percent (19 respondents) of the women reported $18,000 or above. This was in contrast to combined income; whereas, the majority of the women were reporting a greater combined income than the men.

Seventeen (7.3 percent) female respondents reported earning below $14,000 compared to seven (3 percent) male respondents. Overall, 81.7 percent of the faculty respondents reported an annual income within the range of $14,000 to $20,000. Details of individual income for faculty are shown in Table 7.

TABLE 7

INDIVIDUAL INCOME

Income	Female	%	Male	%	Total	%
Below $10,000	3	1.3			3	1.3
$10,000-11,999	1	.4	1	.4	2	.9
$12,000-13,999	13	5.6	6	2.6	19	8.2
$14,000-15,999	27	11.7	46	19.9	73	31.6
$16,000-17,999	23	10.0	52	22.5	75	32.5
$18,000-19,999	15	6.4	26	11.3	41	17.7
$20,000-21,999	2	.9	12	5.2	14	6.0
$22,000-24,999	2	.9	2	.9	4	1.7
TOTAL	86	37.3	145	62.8	231	100.0

Tenure Status

In reporting tenure status of faculty, 87 (37.6 percent) respondents indicated they were tenured as compared to 76 (32.9 percent) respondents who indicated they were nontenured. Sixty-eight (29.4 percent) of the respondents reported that formal tenure was not awarded at their institution. Details regarding tenure status are shown in Table 8.

TABLE 8

TENURE STATUS

Status	Female	%	Male	%	Total	%
Tenured	32	19.9	55	33.7	87	53.3
Nontenured	24	14.7	52	31.9	76	46.7
TOTAL	56	34.3	107	65.6	163	100.0

Community

The three largest metropolitan junior colleges in Oklahoma were considered to be urban: Oscar Rose Junior College, South Oklahoma City Junior College, and Tulsa Junior College. The remaining 11 junior college institutions were located in communities of 25,000 population or less and were considered rural.

One hundred thirty-nine (60 percent) respondents taught in institutions located in rural areas; whereas, 92 (40 percent) respondents taught in institutions located in urban areas. Table 9 displays the distribution of faculty according to location of institution.

TABLE 9

COMMUNITY

Community	Female	%	Male	%	Total	%
Rural	43	18.6	96	41.6	139	60.2
Urban	43	18.6	49	21.2	92	39.8
TOTAL	86	37.2	145	62.8	231	100.0

Summary

In summary, a profile of a typical Oklahoma junior college faculty member can be depicted as a married male between the age of 25 and 45 with a master's degree. This hypothetical male faculty member has tenure status, is teaching in an institution located in a rural area, and earns a basic salary of $14,000 to $18,000.

Results of Spillover Versus Compensatory Models of Satisfaction Between Job and Life

The first hypothesis to be tested and the results were as follows:

> Hypothesis 1: There is a significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction among faculty members in selected Oklahoma Junior Colleges.

Pearson product-moment correlations were computed for all measures of job and life domains. The results of the analysis are shown in Table 10.

Although most correlation coefficients are relatively small in magnitude, a majority are significant at the .05 level of confidence (27 out of 42). Of the 42 coefficients, 41 indicate a positive

TABLE 10

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MEASURES OF JOB SATISFACTION AND LIFE SATISFACTION (N-231)

	GENLIF	HEALTH	FRIENDS	FAMILY	MARRIAGE	STNDLV	LIFSAT
JOBSAT	.33**	.10	.14*	.13*	.12	.29**	.41**
JDIWORK	.35**	.18**	.13*	.17**	.18**	.21**	.32**
JDISAL	.12**	.01	.17**	.08	-.04	.45**	.15**
JDIPROM	.22**	.04	.12*	.10	.06	.16**	.20**
JDISUPVR	.23**	.09	.07	.10	.04	.10	.12
JDICOWK	.40**	.09	.18**	.15*	.20**	.19**	.20**

* .05 level of significance
** .01 level of significance

relationship. These positive correlations confirm the prediction that the spillover model exists between job satisfaction and life satisfaction among junior college faculty. Only one correlation coefficient is in the direction of a compensatory effect. The correlation between JDI salary and marital satisfaction is in the negative direction, but is not significant at the .05 level. The conclusion may be drawn, therefore, that Hypothesis 1 is supported for the entire sample.

The specific job scales which appear to be most highly related to the life dimensions are overall job satisfaction, JDI work, and JDI coworkers. These three job dimensions are most highly related to the life scales overall life satisfaction, general life satisfaction and standard of living. As might be expected, the job scale of JDI salary is highly related to the life scale of standard of living.

The weakest relations are between the six job items and the life items health, family satisfaction, and marital satisfaction. In Appendix D an expanded correlational table is shown for all job and life scales for the entire sample.

Subgrouping of the Sample to Test for Interactive Effects

To determine if any effect on a variable was being masked by opposing directionality within the entire sample, correlation coefficients were recomputed on subsamples. The subsamples consisted of various income groups, age groups, and other demographic variables. The total sample was split into different subsamples to investigate third variable explanations.

In analyzing the subgroups, the overall pattern of predicted relationships found for the entire sample was repeated for the subgroups. Of the 924 correlations computed for the subsamples, 867 (94 percent) were in the positive direction. Of the 867 positive coefficients, 276 (30 percent) were significant at the .05 level of confidence. These positive correlation coefficients support prior analysis for the spillover model of satisfaction.

Two negative correlations in the subsets were found significant at the .05 level. Thus, only these two negative coefficients indicated a compensatory effect. The first significant negative coefficient (r=-.54, n=21) was found in the subsample of age groups. The correlation was between marital satisfaction and JDI supervisor at the fifty-five to sixty-four year age level (Table 25, Appendix D). A second negative correlation appeared among faculty teaching in the

urban areas. A compensatory relationship between marital satisfaction for urban faculty and JDI salary (r=-.34, n=92) was significant at the .01 level (Table 45, Appendix D). All correlation tables for job and life scales of the various subsamples are reported in Appendix D.

The correlational analysis of the subgroups further supported the spillover model of satisfaction for the entire sample. The conclusions may be drawn, therefore, that Hypothesis 1 can be supported. A significant positive relationship exists between job satisfaction and life satisfaction among junior college faculty.

Results of Moderator Effects on the Job and Life Satisfaction Relationship

Although overall support for the spillover model of satisfaction was found in the correlational analysis for the entire sample and subsamples, the strength of the predicted relationships varied within subgroups. To test the strength of the interactive effects within the subgroups, various moderator variables were examined: gender, age, educational level, martial status, income levels, tenure status, and community.

To investigate the significant probability of the moderator effects, correlation coefficients were computed on a JOB score and LIFE score for each moderator. These scores were derived from measures of overall satisfaction from each domain. The difference in the strength of the correlations between the JOB score and LIFE score was tested by utilizing Fisher's z_r transformation. Values of 1.96 and 2.58 are required for significance at the .05 and .01 level

of confidence. A more detailed description of this statistical procedure was given in Chapter III. The hypothesis regarding each moderator and the results of the statistical tests are given below:

Gender

The hypothesis and the results for gender as a moderator are as follows:

> Hypothesis 1a: The strength of the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction is greater for women than for men.

As shown in Table 11, the correlation coefficient between the JOB score and the LIFE score for men (r=.50, n=145) was stronger than the correlation for women (r=.37, n=86). Yet, when utilizing Fisher's z_r, the difference between coefficients was not significant since the value was less than 1.96 (z_r=1.168). On the basis of the analysis, Hypothesis 1a cannot be supported. The data show that there is no significant difference regarding the strength of the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction between men and women in the junior college.

TABLE 11

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN OVERALL JOB SATISFACTION AND OVERALL LIFE SATISFACTION FOR MALES AND FEMALES

Gender	*N*	*r*	z_r
Male	145	.50	1.168
Female	86	.37	

Age

The hypothesis and the results for age as a moderator are as follows:

Hypothesis 1b: The strength of the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction increases with age.

On the basis of the correlations presented in Table 12, a general movement in the predicted direction appears to exist. The strength of the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction increases with age. The relationship is virtually the same for all respondents under forty-five years of age (r=.42, r=.43, n= 169). The relationship tends to increase sharply between the ages of forty-five to fifty-four (r=.53, n=.21). Although the correlations show an upward trend in strength, none of the coefficients were significantly different (1.96 was needed for significance).

TABLE 12

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN OVERALL JOB SATISFACTION AND OVERALL LIFE SATISFACTION FOR VARIOUS AGE GROUPS

Age	N	r	z_r
25 - 34	80	.43	
			.076
35 - 44	89	.42	
			.726
45 - 54	40	.53	
			.30
55 - 64	21	.59	

In conclusion, the data do not support Hypothesis 1b. Therefore, the strength of the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction is not significantly different at various age levels among junior college faculty.

Educational Level

The hypothesis and the results for educational level as a moderator are as follows:

> Hypothesis 1c: The strength of the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction increases as educational level increases.

The hypothesis was supported by the data. The correlation coefficient of the junior college faculty respondents with master's degrees (r=.57, n=165) was significantly different ($p < .01$) than the coefficient of those faculty respondents who had obtained a bachelor's degree or less (r=.15, n=41). Interestingly, as noted in Table 13, there was a decrease in the correlation value for those faculty respondents with doctorate degrees (r=.26, n=21). However, this decrease is not significant at the .05 level (z_r=1.72). Therefore, it may be concluded, that Hypothesis 1c can be supported. The strength of the relationship between job and life satisfaction increases as educational level increases.

TABLE 13

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN OVERALL JOB SATISFACTION AND OVERALL LIFE SATISFACTION FOR VARIOUS EDUCATIONAL LEVELS

Educational Level	*N*	*r*	z_r
Bachelor's Degree or Less	41	.15	
			2.86*
Master's Degree	165	.57	
			1.72
Doctorate Degree	21	.26	

* .01 level of significance

Marital Status

The hypothesis and the results for marital status as a moderator are as follows:

> Hypothesis 1d: The strength of the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction is greater for married than for nonmarried faculty.

Correlation coefficients as shown in Table 14 computed for married faculty (r=.45, n=185) and nonmarried faculty (r=.48, n=42) had positive values but were not significantly different (z_r=.147). Therefore, Hypothesis 1d cannot be supported for junior college faculty. The strength of the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction is no greater for married faculty than for nonmarried faculty.

TABLE 14

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN OVERALL JOB SATISFACTION AND OVERALL LIFE SATISFACTION FOR MARRIED AND NONMARRIED FACULTY

Marital Status	*N*	*r*	z_r
Married	185	.46	.147
Nonmarried	42	.48	

Family Income

The hypothesis and the results for family income as a moderator are as follows:

> Hypothesis 1e: The strength of the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction increases as family income increases.

The data do not support the hypothesis. Table 15 records the results. The trend develops an up and down movement, and the strength of the differences among correlation coefficients is not significant when utilizing Fisher's z_r. Concern of the study was stated in terms of family income, but the data showed cause to investigate individual income.

TABLE 15

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN OVERALL JOB SATISFACTION AND OVERALL LIFE SATISFACTION FOR VARIOUS FAMILY INCOME LEVELS

Income	*N*	*r*	z_r
Below $20,000	71	.50	
			.583
$20,000 - $24,999	35	.40	
			.564
$25,000 - $29,999	37	.51	
			.372
$30,000 - $34,999	36	.44	
			.551
$35,000 - $39,999	24	.55	
			.804
$40,000 and Over	28	.37	

The general up and down pattern also prevails when considering individual income. (See Table 16). The faculty respondents in the $16,000-$17,999 income range had the strongest relationship (r=.64, n=75) between job satisfaction and life satisfaction. The relationship for this group was significantly stronger ($p < .05$) than the relationship for faculty respondents in the $14,000-$15,999 range.

Therefore, on the basis of the findings, Hypothesis 1e cannot be supported. There is no significant difference among various levels

TABLE 16

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN OVERALL JOB SATISFACTION AND OVERALL LIFE SATISFACTION FOR VARIOUS INDIVIDUAL INCOME LEVELS

Income	*N*	*r*	z_r
Below $14,000	23	.46	
			.533
$14,000 - $15,999	73	.35	
			2.375*
$16,000 - $17,999	75	.64	
			1.84
$18,000 - $19,999	41	.37	
			.66
$20,000 and Over	18	.53	

* .05 level of significance

of family income regarding the strength of the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction among junior college faculty.

Tenure

The hypothesis and the results for tenure status as a moderator are as follows:

> Hypothesis 1f: The strength of the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction is greater for tenured faculty than for nontenured faculty.

The hypothesis was not confirmed by the data (See Table 17). The correlation between job and life satisfaction for tenured faculty (r=.59, n=87) was stronger than the correlation for nontenured faculty (r=.39, n=76). Nevertheless, in utilizing Fisher's z_r, the strength of the correlations was not significant. Hypothesis 1f cannot be supported. Thus, there is no significant difference in the strength

TABLE 17

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN OVERALL JOB SATISFACTION AND OVERALL LIFE SATISFACTION FOR TENURED AND NONTENURED FACULTY

Tenure Status	*N*	*r*	z_r
Tenured	87	.59	1.66
Nontenured	76	.39	

of the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction among tenured and nontenured faculty.

Community

The hypothesis and the results for community as a moderator are as follows:

> Hypothesis 1g: The strength of the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction is greater for faculty teaching in urban areas rather than rural areas.

The results of the test of this hypothesis show no support. (See Table 18). Contrary to the hypothesis, the faculty teaching in the rural areas (r=.55, n=139) reported a significantly stronger relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction ($p<.05$) than the faculty teaching in the urban areas (r=.34, n=92). Thus, on the basis of the findings, Hypothesis 1g cannot be supported. The strength of the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction is greater for faculty teaching in the rural areas than for faculty teaching in the urban areas.

TABLE 18

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN OVERALL JOB SATISFACTION AND OVERALL LIFE SATISFACTION FOR FACULTY TEACHING IN RURAL AND URBAN AREAS

Community	*N*	*r*	z_r
Urban	92	.34	1.99*
Rural	139	.55	

* .05 level of significance

Summary

Chapter IV has presented the results of the study, which were collected by a survey of full-time faculty in selected Oklahoma junior colleges. Statistical analyses of the data collected were presented in this chapter, as well as the demographic characteristics of the survey respondents.

Statistical testing utilizing Pearson product-moment correlations revealed significant coefficients regarding the strength of the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction for the entire sample. Correlations performed on subsamples and Fisher's z_r transformation test of significance did reveal that the strength of the relationship between job and life satisfaction was affected by certain moderators.

Conclusions were drawn from the results of the statistical analyses. These conclusions and their implications are presented in the following chapter. Also included in Chapter V are a summary of the study and recommendations for further research regarding job satisfaction and its relationship to life satisfaction.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The following summary, conclusions, and recommendations resulted from a study to determine if a positive relationship exists between job satisfaction and life satisfaction of junior college faculty. The intent of the study was to provide guidance to junior college personnel charged with the task of increasing productivity of the faculty by attempting to enhance job satisfaction.

Summary

Organizations in business and industry, as well as education, have realized for decades that while improved technology and efficiency seem to be key factors in generating human productivity, the attitude of the work staff plays an equal or greater role in releasing human potential.

In more recent years, business and industry have become aware of the interplay of job satisfaction and life satisfaction and its effect on worker attitude. At the same time, administrators in higher education in their attempts to enhance job satisfaction, have generally overlooked this subtle interplay of the work and nonwork spheres of the faculty members.

Because of the dynamic growth and changing objectives occurring over the past decade in the junior colleges, administrators charged with faculty development have of necessity become increasingly concerned with faculty attitude on the job. Nevertheless, their concern as pointed up through faculty development programs has been conducted with apparently little or no regard for faculty attitude with life as a whole.

Therefore, the purpose of this study was to determine if a positive relationship exists between job satisfaction and life satisfaction among junior college faculty in Oklahoma. Secondary objectives were to determine what effect various moderators might have on the work and nonwork relationship. These moderators included age, gender, educational level, marital status, income, tenure, and community.

An extensive search of the literature revealed studies pertaining to job satisfaction in all areas of employment. Studies investigating job satisfaction and its relationship to life satisfaction were found in business and industry, but none were revealed in higher education.

Procedure

In order to determine if a positive relationship exists between job satisfaction and life satisfaction among faculty in Oklahoma junior colleges, the attitudes of current full-time faculty were sought. For this purpose, a survey instrument assessing job satisfaction and life satisfaction was developed.

The faculty of 14 junior colleges were surveyed for the project. The population included three urban and eleven rural institutions. All the institutions were accredited state-supported junior colleges in the Oklahoma State System for Higher Education. Permission for participation was received from the presidents of these institutions.

Systematic random sampling was considered appropriate for this study. Three hundred six randomly selected faculty from the 14 junior colleges were asked to complete the survey instrument. The design of the survey instrument required a response on a 7-point scale ranging from "very satisfied" (1) to "very unsatisfied" (7) to assess life satisfaction. To assess job satisfaction, a facet-specific measure was utilized requiring a response to indicate descriptions of various aspects of the job, including the work itself, pay, supervisor, coworkers, and promotion.

In order to test Hypothesis 1, analyzing the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction, the statistical test chosen was Pearson Product-Moment Correlation. The Pearson r identified 42 correlations between the job domain and life domain. In testing the remaining seven hypotheses, which examined various moderator effects on the relationship between job and life satisfaction, statistical tests utilized were the Pearson r and Fisher's z_r transformation. The correlations for the subsamples were computed on overall job satisfaction and overall life satisfaction. The significance level of probability for all tests was .05.

Conclusions and Discussion

An analysis of the data collected for this study has provided a basis for the following conclusions to the eight hypotheses stated in Chapter I.

Hypothesis 1 was designed to determine if a positive relationship exists between job satisfaction and life satisfaction among junior college faculty in Oklahoma. The remaining seven hypotheses (1a - 1g) were designed to determine the extent various moderators influenced the strength of the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction.

1. A positive relationship exists between job satisfaction and life satisfaction among junior college faculty in Oklahoma. Even though the correlations between the job domain scales and the life domain scales for the entire sample were relatively small in magnitude, 98 percent of the 42 correlations were found to be in a positive direction, with 64 percent showing significance at the .05 level. The strength of these positive correlations provide support for the spillover model of satisfaction, which assumes that an individual's satisfaction in one segment of life spills over into another segment. There was no support shown for the compensatory model for the entire sample or any subsample. The compensatory effect assumes that individuals compensate in one setting of life for dissatisfaction in another setting.

The general implication may be drawn that a faculty member's personal sense of well being and general life satisfaction cannot be segmented from job satisfaction. This finding concurs with other

studies. Kornhauser found that a positive relationship existed among automobile workers, with an implied directionality from job to life.[1] Orpen, in a study on white first-line managers in South African industrial and business firms, concluded that job satisfaction and life satisfaction were casually related, with work satisfaction having a stronger effect on nonwork satisfaction.[2] Bamundo, in testing three satisfaction models on a national sample, found overall support for the spillover model with no support for either the compensatory model or segmentation model.[3]

In regard to the moderators within the framework of the spillover effect, the following conclusions were found.

1b. Gender has no effect upon the strength of the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction among junior college faculty in Oklahoma. Although the correlation coefficients were not statistically significant, the stronger relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction for men over women as indicated in this study might be indicative that work is still a more central part of a man's life; whereas, women are more likely to divide their energies between work and the home. This implication was further attested on the subsamples. Note that men had 26 significant positive correlations compared to 10 significant positive correlations for women. (Table 20 and 21, Appendix D).

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[1]Kornhauser, Mental Health, p. 207.

[2]Orpen, "Work and Nonwork Satisfaction," p. 531.

[3]Bamundo, "Three Models," p. 65.

The conclusion reached in this study is at odds with Bamundo, who reported the strength of the relationship for men significantly stronger than for women.[1] A possible explanation of this finding might be the sample selected. Bamundo used a national sample that included women who did not work outside the home. Sheppard and Herrick in studying blue-collar workers also found women significantly more likely to report dissatisfaction with both work and life than men.[2]

Concurring with the present study, however, Kavanagh and Halpern in their survey of university employees, reported no difference between groups of men and women.[3] Perhaps the agreement in findings lies with the studies both being conducted in a more progressive environment.

1c. Age has no effect upon the strength of the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction among junior college faculty in Oklahoma. Although the difference is not significant, note should be made that the relationship is virtually the same for all faculty under forty years of age. The strength of the relationship tends to increase sharply for faculty age forty-five and older.

Disagreeing with the present study, Near, Rice, and Hunt reported age directly related to job satisfaction and life satisfaction.[4] Lifter found a high correlation of age with the job and a

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[1] Ibid., p. 55.

[2] Sheppard and Herrick, Where Have Robots Gone?, p. 586.

[3] Kavanagh and Halpern, "The Impact of Job Level," p. 69.

[4] Near, Rice, and Hunt, "Work and Extra Work Correlates," p. 259.

weaker, though significant, correlation with life satisfaction.[1] Bamundo's national sample survey tended to agree with the present study. An up and down movement of correlation coefficients was reported by Bamundo with only one significant relationship.[2]

1d. The strength of the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction increases as educational level increases among junior college faculty in Oklahoma. In the present study, there was a significant increase in the relationship for faculty with bachelor's degrees or less and faculty with master's degrees. The data possibly implies that the more time spent preparing for a career, the more likely one will view work as the central life interest. This strong work interest may, therefore, have a correspondingly strong effect upon attitudes in other life spheres. Although the difference was not significant, the strength of the relationship decreased for faculty holding doctorate degrees. The decrease might be indicative that junior college faculty with doctorate degrees look upon the junior college as only a step toward their future career objective.

1e. Marital status has no effect upon the strength of the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction among junior college faculty in Oklahoma. This finding is contrary to those of similar studies. Bradburn in a study on measurement of psychological well being reported that unmarried people have a stronger decreased

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[1] Lifter, "Relations of Job Content," p. 83.

[2] Bamundo, "Three Models," p. 55.

sense of overall life satisfaction than married people.[1] Investigating blue-collar workers, Sheppard and Herrick also reported nonmarried people more dissatisfied with their lives and their jobs than married people.[2]

Again, however, the findings of Bamundo tend to support the data found in this study. Bamundo reported no significant difference between groups of married and nonmarried subjects, although a significant difference between married people and widows was reported.[3] The sample of widows in the present study was not large enough to test this subject area.

1f. Family income has no effect upon the strength of the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction among junior college faculty in Oklahoma. Although the correlation coefficients of family income were not significant, the trend of the strength of the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction appeared in an up and down movement. The same general patterns also prevailed when individual income was considered. No logical explanation for this up and down movement is forthcoming at this time.

Iris and Barrett[4] in their study of two groups of foremen and Lifter[5] in his study of hospital employees, found that as income

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[1]Bradburn, Psychological Well-Being, p. 157.

[2]Sheppard and Herrick, Where Have Robots Gone?, p. 8.

[3]Bamundo, "Three Models," p. 57.

[4]Iris and Barrett, "Relations Between Job and Life," p. 303.

[5]Lifter, "Relations of Job Content," p. 82.

increased, workers were relatively more satisfied with their lives as a whole. Bamundo reported a significant difference only between the lowest income level (under $4,000) and the highest income level ($25,000 and up).[1] Between this income range, the same up and down movement was reported with no significant differences. The unstable relationship reported by Bamundo tends to support the data in this study.

1g. Tenure status has no effect upon the strength of the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction among junior college faculty in Oklahoma. Although the difference is not significant, the strength of the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction was stronger for faculty with tenure status. One implication of this difference might be that those faculty who have tenure status view their job as more permanent and may feel a greater sense of security on the job. Lifter, in his study on employees in hospitals, reported that respondents who were more satisfied with work along with their nonwork experiences, viewed their job as permanent rather than temporary.[2]

The point should be made that studies reviewed in the literature regarded tenure as number of years on the job rather than as a reward to be earned after a certain number of years' teaching. Thus, any real comparison with other studies are useless.

However, as a point of interest, Iris and Barrett in their study of plant foremen reported that foremen who were generally more

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[1]Bamundo, "Three Models," p. 58.

[2]Lifter, "Relations of Job Content," p. 81.

satisfied with their job and their lives as a whole had four years' more tenure than the less satisfied group of foremen.[1] Bamundo, reported a U shaped curve, low correlation with less than one year on the job, increasing to the highest correlation between six and ten years, and decreasing again after ten years.[2]

1h. The strength of the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction is stronger for those junior college faculty in Oklahoma teaching in the rural rather than urban areas. The finding of the present study was at odds with Haavio-Mannila who reported that both men and women were more satisfied with their lives as a whole in the urban area rather than in rural areas.[3] Hulin reported that community environment was more important to job satisfaction than to life satisfaction. He also found an interaction between satisfaction of community resources and salary.[4]

Recommendations for Further Research

From this study the following recommendations for further research emerge.

1. Based on the data gathered from faculty members who participated in this study, the findings were generally supportive of the spillover model of satisfaction between work and nonwork. However, when the data were stratified according to selected

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[1]Iris and Barrett, "Relations Between Job and Life," pp.301-303.

[2]Bamundo, "Three Models," p. 59.

[3]Haavio-Mannila, "Satisfaction and Family," p. 590.

[4]Hulin, "The Role of Community," p. 272.

demographic variables, the sample size was substantially reduced. For example, although there was no significant difference between tenured faculty and nontenured faculty relative to their strength of satisfaction between work and nonwork, the obtained critical value closely approached the .05 level of significance. Limited sample size may have been responsible for this lack of significance. A larger sample size in a future study might yield a more significant finding in the subsample.

2. The sample for this study was made up of faculty members. A replication of this study which would include administrators in institutions at the junior college level would determine whether or not there is a significant difference between two populations, that is, between administrators and faculty members within the same organizational structure.

3. When the data gathered in this study were analyzed to determine if educational level moderated the strength of the relationship between job and life satisfaction, the findings showed a decrease in the strength of the relationship for faculty with doctorate degrees from those faculty with master's degrees. The implication underlying this decrease suggests that junior college faculty with doctorate degrees may be on a career ladder toward a university teaching position. Therefore, a replication of this study which would include faculty from institutions at the university level might determine whether or not there is a significant difference between faculty holding doctorate degrees in two different organizational structures of higher education.

4. One basic question has not been answered, "Do nonwork activities influence work behaviors?" This research focused on the relationship between work and nonwork attitudes, not behaviors. Future research might possibly investigate nonwork variables and their effect on the predictability of such work criteria as performance, absenteeism, or turnover.

5. Further studies might test other variables unique to junior colleges, which may have a bearing on the job and life satisfaction relationship. These variables could include class teaching load, night teaching obligations, non-teaching responsibilities, and other various work loads or responsibilities.

This study was intended to clarify the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction and its effect on the release of human potential on the job. If this research can help focus attention on the importance of the relationship between work and nonwork satisfaction, then it will have achieved its primary purpose.

Bartolomé and Evans have written that "the sun is setting on the era when professional and private life were regarded as separate worlds--by all but the individual himself."[1] Thus, it behooves those responsible for faculty development to focus their concern on the quality of the work life, which includes a balanced role of work and nonwork activities. Faculty development programs should center on the self-renewal of the individual, fostered through processes of role clarification, opportunities for self-identity and learning, and linking of work and life goals for the individual.

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[1]Bartolomé and Evans, "Professional Lives," p. 28-29.

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APPENDIX A

MATERIALS SENT TO JUNIOR COLLEGES INVITING THEIR PARTICIPATION IN THE STUDY

Letter Inviting Participation
Purpose of Study

The University of Oklahoma at Norman

College of Education

October 29, 1979

At the present time, I am engaged in research concerning the relationship between job satisfaction and general life satisfaction of faculty in Oklahoma junior colleges. A description of the study and information being sought are enclosed.

The desired information is needed from 300 faculty members in the 14 state supported junior colleges in Oklahoma.

If you are willing to participate, I should appreciate receiving from you permission to contact_____, academic dean, to solicit his help in this project. If the academic dean is not available, I would appreciate receiving from your office the name of a campus facilitator whom you feel would be willing to help. I will then contact the facilitator by a personal visit to your campus and will work through him/her in distributing to each faculty member in the sample a description of the study, a questionnaire, and a confidentially marked envelope to be returned to me. All information will be held in confidence; there will be no way of identifying the respondent by the questionnaire that he or she returns to me.

This study is a partial requirement for my doctoral degree here at the University of Oklahoma in business education, but I think the results of the study will be of interest to both administrators and faculty in the junior colleges. I have been a junior college faculty member and division chairperson in Oklahoma for nine years, six at Oscar Rose and three at El Reno. I also served as secretary of OACJC for two years.

If you are interested in the results of this study, I will be very happy to make them available to you as well as to all who participate in the study. I will appreciate very much your indicating your willingness to participate on the enclosed form. Thank you for your assistance in this project.

Sincerely,

Anita Bednar
Instructor

Enclosures

820 Van Vleet Oval, Norman, Oklahoma 73019

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION
AND GENERAL LIFE SATISFACTION
AMONG FACULTY IN SELECTED OKLAHOMA JUNIOR COLLEGES

Purpose of Study

To determine from an attitude survey of full-time faculty in the junior college if a positive relationship exists between their satisfaction on the job and their satisfaction with life as a whole.

The objectives of the study are:

1. *To examine dimensions of job satisfaction which will include specifically the scales of co-workers, supervision, salary, promotion, and the job itself.*

2. *To examine dimensions of life satisfaction which will include specifically the scales of health, leisure, standard of living, marriage and family, job, and life as a whole.*

3. *To examine specific biographical and developmental factors in the faculty ranks.*

Method of Gathering Data

This project is designed to gather information from full-time faculty in the 14 state supported junior colleges. Five job satisfaction domains have been placed on a questionnaire described by adjectives and faculty will be asked to check each adjective as Yes, No, or ?, depending on how it describes their feeling about their work. Five life satisfaction domains have been placed on the questionnaire and faculty will be asked to rate these as Completely Satisfied, Well Satisfied, Neutral, A Little Dissatisfied, and Very Dissatisfied. Approximately 300 faculty members from the junior colleges will be contacted to participate. Participation should require no more than 15 to 20 minutes of the faculty member's time.

Please return to: *Ms. Anita Bednar*
The University of Oklahoma
820 Van Vleet Oval, Room 320
Norman, OK 73019

*Date*_____

*Name of Junior College*_____

( ) *We will participate in the junior college study. Our academic dean* _____*can be contacted to assist you in this project.*

( ) *We will participate in the junior college study. The name of our campus facilitator is* _____*/being sent later.*

( ) *We will not participate in the junior college study.*

( ) *I would like to receive a copy of the results of the study.*

*Signed*_____

APPENDIX B

SURVEY INSTRUMENT

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND GENERAL LIFE SATISFACTION AMONG FACULTY IN SELECTED OKLAHOMA JUNIOR COLLEGES

Research Questionnaire

Instructions: To ensure your confidentiality, I have provided you with two envelopes. Please seal the completed questionnaire in the small envelope marked "CONFIDENTIAL." Place this back in the larger manila envelope which is addressed to the project facilitator on your campus and return it to him or her. After collecting all the forms from your colleagues, the facilitator will remove the outer manila envelopes and discard them, returning to me only your sealed confidential survey forms.

Definition: Full-time Faculty - a person that is employed permanently within an institution who teaches half time or more.

PART I: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. Are you considered a full-time faculty member?

_____(1) Yes
_____(2) No

(NOTE: Since the survey is concerned with faculty members who teach half time or more of a normal class load, if you answered NO to this question, please do not complete the questionnaire, but place it in the envelope marked "CONFIDENTIAL" and return to your campus facilitator in the manila envelope.

2. Your department or division of teaching appointment?_____

3. Your principal teaching field?_____

_____

4. Are you:

_____(1) Tenured
_____(2) Non-tenured

5. Highest degree obtained? (Check one)

_____(1) High School Diploma
_____(2) Associate's Degree
_____(3) Bachelor's Degree
_____(4) Master's Degree
_____(5) Doctorate Degree
_____(6) Other_____

6. Your sex:

_____(1) Female
_____(2) Male

7. Your age:

_____(1) 20 - 24
_____(2) 25 - 34
_____(3) 35 - 44
_____(4) 45 - 54
_____(5) 55 - 64
_____(6) 65 and over

8. Are you:

_____(1) Married
_____(2) Single
_____(3) Separated
_____(4) Divorced
_____(5) Widowed

9. Your basic salary for academic year:

_____(1) Below $10,000
_____(2) $10,000 - $11,999
_____(3) $12,000 - $13,999
_____(4) $14,000 - $15,999
_____(5) $16,000 - $17,999
_____(6) $18,000 - $19,999
_____(7) $20,000 - $21,999
_____(8) $22,000 - $24,999
_____(9) $25,000 and over

10. Your combined family income:

_____(1) Below $15,000
_____(2) $15,000 - $19,999
_____(3) $20,000 - $24,999
_____(4) $25,000 - $29,999
_____(5) $30,000 - $34,999
_____(6) $35,000 - $39,999
_____(7) $40,000 - $44,999
_____(8) $45,000 - $49,999
_____(9) $50,000 and over

11. Are evening classes normally a part of your regular teaching load?

_____(1) Yes
_____(2) No

12. How long have you taught at this institution?_____

13. How many minimum hours per week are expected to be on campus?

_____(1) 30 hours
_____(2) 35 hours
_____(3) 40 hours
_____(4) Other_____

14. How many different courses (preparations) are you teaching this semester as your regular load?_____

15. How many hours are considered a regular or normal load at your college?_____

16. Please indicate the number of years you served in any of the following occupations:

_____(1) Teacher in primary or secondary school

_____(2) Administrator in public school

_____(3) Prof. in junior/community college

_____(4) Prof. in 4 year college

_____(5) Prof. in a university

_____(6) Administrator in higher education

_____(7) Business employee, or manager

_____(8) Government employee (excluding military)

_____(9) Military service

_____(10) Other_____

17. In which of the following types of educational institutions would you most prefer to teach:

_____(1) Junior/community college
_____(2) Four-year college
_____(3) University
_____(4) Other_____

On the following questions you are asked to think about your job, your college, and your life in general. Different people have different feelings at various times in their lives, and I am asking you to give your present attitudes and views frankly and honestly. The value of this type of research depends largely on the accuracy of the information on each questionnaire.

PART II: JOB SATISFACTION

These questions will concern your job at the college. Some of the adjectives are very simple, but these have measured various job facets from manual laborers to college presidents. Place an X under the "Yes" column if the item describes your job most of the time, an X under the "No" column if it does not describe your job, and an X under the "?" column if you cannot decide.

*1. Think of your present work. What is it like most of the time?

	YES	NO	?		YES	NO	?
Fascinating	( )	( )	( )	Useful	( )	( )	( )
Routine	( )	( )	( )	Tiresome	( )	( )	( )
Satisfying	( )	( )	( )	Healthful	( )	( )	( )
Boring	( )	( )	( )	Challenging	( )	( )	( )
Good	( )	( )	( )	On your feet	( )	( )	( )
Creative	( )	( )	( )	Frustrating	( )	( )	( )
Respected	( )	( )	( )	Simple	( )	( )	( )
Hot	( )	( )	( )	Endless	( )	( )	( )
Pleasant	( )	( )	( )	Give sense of Accomplishment	( )	( )	( )

*2. Think of the salary you get now. How well does each of the following words describe your present salary?

	YES	NO	?
Income adequate for normal expenses	( )	( )	( )
Satisfactory fringe benefits	( )	( )	( )
Barely live on income	( )	( )	( )
Bad	( )	( )	( )
Income provides luxuries	( )	( )	( )
Insecure	( )	( )	( )
Less than I deserve	( )	( )	( )
Highly paid	( )	( )	( )
Underpaid	( )	( )	( )

*3. Think of the opportunities for promotion that you have now. How well does each of the following words describe these?

	YES	NO	?
Good opportunity for advancement	( )	( )	( )
Opportunity somewhat limited	( )	( )	( )
Promotion on ability	( )	( )	( )
Dead-end job	( )	( )	( )
Good chance for promotion	( )	( )	( )
Unfair chance for promotion	( )	( )	( )
Infrequent promotion	( )	( )	( )
Regular promotion	( )	( )	( )

*4. Think of the kind of supervision that you get on your job. How well does each of the following words describe this supervision?

	YES	NO	?		YES	NO	?
Asks my advice	( )	( )	( )	Tells me where I stand	( )	( )	( )
Hard to please	( )	( )	( )	Annoying	( )	( )	( )
Impolite	( )	( )	( )	Stubborn	( )	( )	( )
Praises good work	( )	( )	( )	Knows job well	( )	( )	( )
Tactful	( )	( )	( )	Bad	( )	( )	( )
Influential	( )	( )	( )	Intelligent	( )	( )	( )
Up to date	( )	( )	( )	Leaves me on my own	( )	( )	( )
Doesn't supervise enough	( )	( )	( )	Around when needed	( )	( )	( )
Quick tempered	( )	( )	( )	Lazy	( )	( )	( )

*5. Think of the majority of the people you work with now. How well does each of the following words describe these people?

	YES	NO	?		YES	NO	?
Stimulating	( )	( )	( )	Talks too much	( )	( )	( )
Boring	( )	( )	( )	Smart	( )	( )	( )
Slow	( )	( )	( )	Lazy	( )	( )	( )
Ambitious	( )	( )	( )	Unpleasant	( )	( )	( )
Stupid	( )	( )	( )	No privacy	( )	( )	( )
Responsible	( )	( )	( )	Active	( )	( )	( )
Fast	( )	( )	( )	Narrow interest	( )	( )	( )
Intelligent	( )	( )	( )	Loyal	( )	( )	( )
Easy to make enemies	( )	( )	( )	Hard to meet	( )	( )	( )

PART III: GENERAL LIFE SATISFACTION

*1. Think of your life in general, considering all aspects important to you. What is it like most of the time?

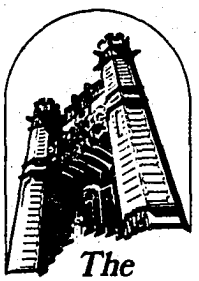
	YES	NO	?		YES	NO	?
Brings out the best in me	( )	( )	( )	Disappointing	( )	( )	( )
Secure	( )	( )	( )	Full of gripes	( )	( )	( )
Content	( )	( )	( )	Miserable	( )	( )	( )
Satisfying	( )	( )	( )	Would like to relive my life differently	( )	( )	( )
Meaningful	( )	( )	( )	Feel loved	( )	( )	( )
Got a raw deal from life	( )	( )	( )	I feel goo about myself	( )	( )	( )
Pleasant	( )	( )	( )	Depressed	( )	( )	( )
Happy	( )	( )	( )	Discouraged	( )	( )	( )
Full	( )	( )	( )	Boring	( )	( )	( )

(Circle one number)	Completely Satisfied			Neutral			Completely Dissatisfied
2. All things considered, how satisfied are you with your job?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Of course many people get sick now and then, but overall, how satisfied are you with your own health?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. All things considered, how satisfied are you with your friendships, with the time you can spend with friends, the things you do together, the number of friends you have, as well as the particular people who are your friends?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. All things considered, how satisfied are you with your family life, the time you spend and the things you do with the members of your family?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. All things considered, how satisfied are you with your marriage? (married only)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Overall, how satisfied are you with your standard of living?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. How satisfied are you with your life as a whole these days?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX C

MATERIALS SET TO PARTICIPANTS IN STUDY

Letter Inviting Participation
Survey Instrument (Appendix B)
Request for Results of Study



The University of Oklahoma at Norman

College of Education

January, 1979

You have been selected as a representative of college faculty to participate in research being conducted among the fourteen state supported junior colleges in Oklahoma. The purpose of the research is to determine if a relationship exists between job satisfaction and general life satisfaction. Your participation in this study will assist in clarifying factors affecting job satisfaction, which might prove helpful in increasing teaching efficiency and effectiveness. The study will also show how organizational policies affect our lives as a whole.

Specifically, the objectives of the study are:

1. To examine dimensions of job satisfaction which will include the scales of co-workers, supervision, salary, promotion, and the job itself.

2. To examine dimensions of life satisfaction which will include the scales of health, leisure, standards of living, marriage, and family, friendships, job, and life as a whole.

3. To examine specific moderators which may have effects on both job saitsfaction and general life satisfaction and the relationship between the two.

The survey asks a variety of questions concerning your background, experiences, and attitudes. All information is treated as confidential and at no time will your answers be singled out. Any reports generated by the research will contain only aggregate data.

Recognizing that some of the survey items cannot readily be answered "Yes" or "No," please respond according to your own best judgment. Since any questionnaire may be time consuming, I appreciate your taking time to complete it. If you would like a copy of the results, just fill out the appropriate form attached and return it to your campus facilitator.

Thank you very much for your efforts!

Sincerely,

Anita Bednar
Instructor

820 Van Vleet Oval, Norman, Oklahoma 73019

I would like a copy of the results of the study concerning job satisfaction and general life satisfaction among faculty in Oklahoma junior colleges.

Name _____

College _____

APPENDIX D

CORRELATION TABLES

TABLE 19

INTERCORRELATIONS BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND LIFE SATISFACTION VARIABLES

VARIABLES	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. JDIWORK	--											
2. JDISAL	.14*	--										
3. JDIPROM	.22**	.15**	--									
4. JDISUPR	.49**	.15*	.30**	--								
5. JDICOWK	.34**	.09	.21**	.27**	--							
6. GENLIF	.35**	.12*	.22**	.23**	.40**	--						
7. JOBSAT	.54**	.15**	.26**	.40**	.22**	.33**	--					
8. HEALTH	.18**	.01	.04	.09	.09	.07	.10	--				
9. FRIENDS	.13*	.17**	.12*	.07	.18**	.35**	.14*	.07	--			
10. FAMILY	.17**	.08	.10	.10	.15*	.39**	.13*	.08	.44**	--		
11. MARRIAGE	.18**	-.04	.06	.04	.20**	.43**	.12	.07	.27**	.77**	--	
12. STNDLV	.21**	.45**	.16**	.10	.19**	.40**	.29**	.09	.36**	.41**	.38**	
13. LIFSAT	.32**	.15**	.20**	.12	.20**	.62**	.41**	.16**	.44**	.56**	.50**	--

* .05 level of significance

** .01 level of significance

TABLE 20

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MEASURES OF JOB SATISFACTION AND LIFE SATISFACTION FOR MEN

(N=145)

	GENLIF	HEALTH	FRIENDS	FAMILY	MARRIAGE	STNDLV	LIFSAT
JOBSAT	.41**	.13	.18*	.21**	.18*	.42**	.42**
JDIWORK	.46**	.21**	.20**	.24**	.18*	.30**	.33**
JDISAL	.19**	.02	.17*	.10	-.08	.47**	.20*
JDIPROM	.22**	.09	.11	.12	.05	.15	.20**
JDISUPR	.18*	.09	.04	.11	.04	.13	.07
JDICOWK	.33**	.13	.22*	.18*	.19*	.17*	.22*

* .05 level of significance
** .01 level of significance

TABLE 21

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MEASURES OF JOB SATISFACTION AND LIFE SATISFACTION FOR WOMEN

(N=86)

	GENLIF	HEALTH	FRIENDS	FAMILY	MARRIAGE	STNDLV	LIFSAT
JOBSAT	.21*	.07	.07	-.02	.02	.04	.44**
JDIWORK	.19	.12	.02	.00	.19	-.02	.30*
JDISAL	.00	.00	.15	.04	.01	.30**	.03
JDIPROM	.22*	-.04	.15	.06	.10	.08	.20
JDISUPR	.32*	.10	.12	.10	.03	-.02	.24*
JDICOWK	.51**	.04	.13	.09	.26*	.25*	.13

* .05 level of significance
** .01 level of significance

TABLE 22

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MEASURES OF JOB SATISFACTION AND LIFE SATISFACTION FOR AGES 25-34

(N=81)

	GENLIF	HEALTH	FRIENDS	FAMILY	MARRIAGE	STNDLV	LIFSAT
JOBSAT	.24*	.13	.17	.17	.03	.26**	.43**
JDIWORK	.29**	.25*	.14	.27**	.20	.26	.17
JDISAL	.21	.10	.10	.96	.14	.35**	.39**
JDIPROM	.28**	.07	.25*	.16	.13	.18	.28**
JDISUPR	.30**	.13	.28**	.23*	.00	.10	.20
JDICOWK	.50**	.09	.32**	.28**	.21	.33**	.30**

* ,05 level of significance
** .01 level of significance

TABLE 23

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MEASURES OF JOB SATISFACTION AND LIFE SATISFACTION FOR AGES 35-44

(N=89)

	GENLIF	HEALTH	FRIENDS	FAMILY	MARRIAGE	STNDLV	LIFSAT
JOBSAT	.37**	.22*	-.01	.02	.14	.27**	.37**
JDIWORK	.34**	.29**	.08	.12	.20	.10	.26**
JDISAL	.09	.04	.22*	.09	-.04	.55**	.15
JDIPROM	.20*	.13	.12	.12	.03	.18	.22*
JDISUPR	.08	.19	.09	.11	.21	.09	.10
JDICOWK	.33	.20	-.04	.00	.21	.06	.14

* .05 level of significance
** .01 level of significance

TABLE 24

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MEASURES OF JOB SATISFACTION AND LIFE SATISFACTION FOR AGES 45-54

(N=40)

	GENLIF	HEALTH	FRIENDS	FAMILY	MARRIAGE	STNDLV	LIFSAT
JOBSAT	.43**	.00	.20	.02	.03	.27	.44**
JDIWORK	.47**	.02	.12	-.08	-.11	.27	.32*
JDISAL	.16	.12	.17	.23	-.01	.35*	.02
JDIPROM	.18	.18	.20	-.01	-.10	.27	.03
JDISUPVR	.35*	-.06	-.01	.01	-.09	.21	.23
JDICOWKS	.35*	-.08	.24	.04	.04	.20	.05

* .05 level of significance
** .01 level of significance

TABLE 25

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MEASURES OF JOB SATISFACTION AND LIFE SATISFACTION FOR AGES 55-64

(N=21)

	GENLIF	HEALTH	FRIENDS	FAMILY	MARRIAGE	STNDLV	LIFSAT
JOBSAT	.38	.11	-.31	.10	.16	.14	.28
JDIWORK	.55**	-.13	.24	.36	.00	.19	.28
JDISAL	.94	-.32	.00	.37	.08	.23	.08
JDIPROM	.11	.04	.32	.06	.30	.23	.15
JDISUPVR	.63**	-.16	.13	.25	-.54*	.01	.03
JDICOWKS	.32	.57**	.51**	.06	-.02	.02	.04

* .05 level of significance
** .01 level of significance

TABLE 26

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MEASURES OF JOB SATISFACTION AND LIFE SATISFACTION FOR FACULTY WITH A BACHELOR'S DEGREE OR LESS

(N=41)

	GENLIF	HEALTH	FRIENDS	FAMILY	MARRIAGE	STNDL	LIFSAT
JOBSAT	-.03	.09	.30*	.11	-.17	.10	.44**
JDIWORK	.00	.30*	-.09	.00	-.09	-.02	.02
JDISAL	.05	.03	.11	-.14	-.24	.14	.05
JDIPROM	.10	-.04	.13	.08	-.16	-.04	-.07
JDISUPVR	.10	.05	-.02	.02	-.24	.00	-.12
JDICOWKS	.63**	.19	.35	.33*	.17	.19	-.13

* .05 level of significance
** .01 level of significance

TABLE 27

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MEASURES OF JOB SATISFACTION AND LIFE SATISFACTION FOR FACULTY WITH A MASTER'S DEGREE

(N=165)

	GENLIF	HEALTH	FRIENDS	FAMILY	MARRIAGE	STNDL	LIFSAT
JOBSAT	.45**	.08	.10	.22*	.32**	.32**	.44**
JDIWORK	.47**	.18	.24**	.28**	.34**	.26**	.46**
JDISAL	.13	-.01	.17*	.18*	.03	.50**	.16*
JDIPROM	.22*	.30	.12	.11	.10	.21*	.25**
JDISUPVR	.27**	.38	.08	.13	.12	.08	.21*
JDICOWKS	.34**	-.14	.23*	.19*	.29**	.22*	.23*

* .05 level of significance
** .01 level of significance

TABLE 28

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MEASURES OF JOB SATISFACTION AND LIFE SATISFACTION FOR FACULTY WITH A DOCTORATE DEGREE

(N=21)

	GENLIF	HEALTH	FRIENDS	FAMILY	MARRIAGE	STNDLV	LIFSAT
JOBSAT	.25	.08	-.14	.33	.52*	.35	.20
JDIWORK	.28	.18	.09	-.20	-.36	.24	.13
JDISAL	.32	-.01	.35	-.24	-.30	.58**	.44*
JDIPROMS	.41*	.30	.18	.08	.02	.17	.35
JDISUPRV	.33	.38	.20	.13	.11	.50	.24
JDICOWKS	.27	-.14	-.19	-.25	-.20	-.06	.13

* .05 level of significance
** .01 level of significance

TABLE 29

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MEASURES OF JOB SATISFACTION AND LIFE SATISFACTION FOR MARRIED FACULTY

(N=185)

	GENLIF	HEALTH	FRIENDS	FAMILY	MARRIAGE	STNDLV	LIFSAT
JOBSAT	.33**	.10	.16*	.18**	.10	.31**	.39**
JDIWORK	.41**	.21**	.16*	.22**	.20**	.29**	.35**
JDISAL	.13	.02	.15*	.12	-.03	.47**	.18**
JDIPROM	.19**	.03	.05	.10	.06	.13	.17**
JDISUPRV	.26**	.13	.05	.11	.07	.12	.15**
JDICOWKS	.39**	.11	.17**	.17*	.21**	.23**	.25**

* .05 level of significance
** .01 level of significance

TABLE 30

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MEASURES OF JOB SATISFACTION AND LIFE SATISFACTION FOR NONMARRIED FACULTY

(N=42)

	GENLIF	HEALTH	FRIENDS	FAMILY	MARRIAGE	STNDLV	LIFSAT
JOBSAT	.50**	-.15	.00	.08		.20	.53**
JDIWORK	.19	.01	.03	.04		.09	.17
JDISAL	.20	-.02	.28	.04		.48**	.04
JDIPROMS	.34*	.09	.36	.16		.30*	.31*
JDISUPRV	.18	.10	.18	.13		.06	.00
JDICOWKS	.44**	.03	.24	.12		.06	.04

* .05 level of significance
** .01 level of significance

TABLE 31

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MEASURES OF JOB SATISFACTION AND LIFE SATISFACTION FOR FAMILY INCOME BELOW $20,000

(N=66)

	GENLIF	HEALTH	FRIENDS	FAMILY	MARRIAGE	STNDLV	LIFSAT
JOBSAT	.36**	.12	.06	.22	.32*	.39**	.53**
JDIWORK	.31**	.18	-.01	.17	.21	.02	.26*
JDISAL	.19	-.04	.23*	.10	-.15	.51**	.24*
JDIPROMS	.26*	.00	.30**	.11	-.01	.17	.19
JDISUPRV	.23*	.03	.04	.13	-.12	.09	-.12
JDICOWKS	.47**	-.11	.22	.06	-.08	.08	.03

* .05 level of significance
** .01 level of significance

TABLE 32

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MEASURES OF JOB SATISFACTION AND LIFE SATISFACTION FOR FAMILY INCOME LEVEL $20,000-$24,999

(N=35)

	GENLIF	HEALTH	FRIENDS	FAMILY	MARRIAGE	STNDLV	LIFSAT
JOBSAT	.60**	.11	-.12	-.11	.08	.30	.38*
JDIWORK	.22	.19	.15	.03	.04	.49**	.09
JDISAL	.13	.17	.33*	.07	.08	.63**	.13
JDIPROM	.29	-.02	-.03	.12	-.01	.20	.18
JDISUPRV	.51**	.00	-.01	.23	.25	.21	.14
JDICOWKS	-.05	.16	.16	.39*	.40*	.32	.10

* .05 level of significance
** .01 level of significance

TABLE 33

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MEASURES OF JOB SATISFACTION AND LIFE SATISFACTION FOR FAMILY INCOME LEVEL $25,000-$29,999

(N=37)

	GENLIF	HEALTH	FRIENDS	FAMILY	MARRIAGE	STNDLV	LIFSAT
JOBSAT	.36*	.33*	.29	.12	.03	.49**	.32*
JDIWORK	.57**	.36*	.20	.20	.16	.28	.49**
JDISAL	.22	.07	.29	.21	.18	.56**	.28
JDIPROM	.28	.17	.26	.04	.09	.25	.22
JDISUPRV	.37*	.24	.48**	.25	.33*	.03	.40**
JDICOWKS	.44**	.38*	.01	.08	.16	.12	.35**

* .05 level of significance
** .01 level of significance

TABLE 34

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MEASURES OF JOB SATISFACTION AND LIFE SATISFACTION FOR FAMILY INCOME LEVEL $30,000-$34,999

(N=36)

	GENLIF	HEALTH	FRIENDS	FAMILY	MARRIAGE	STNDLV	LIFSAT
JOBSAT	.24	-.12	-.03	-.11	-.02	.19	.33*
JDIWORK	.46**	.24	.17	.23	.07	.29	.40**
JDISAL	.07	.12	.16	.22	.05	.44**	.30
JDIPROM	.30	.12	.07	.28	.24	.28	.42**
JDISUPRV	.23	.16	.06	.00	-.07	.01	.30
JDICOWKS	.79**	.16	.03	.14	.24	.48**	.55**

* .05 level of significance
** .01 level of significance

TABLE 35

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MEASURES OF JOB SATISFACTION AND LIFE SATISFACTION FOR FAMILY INCOME LEVEL $35,000-$39,999

(N=24)

	GENLIF	HEALTH	FRIENDS	FAMILY	MARRIAGE	STNDLV	LIFSAT
JOBSAT	.32	.00	.25	.07	.12	.47**	.40*
JDIWORK	.52**	.04	.34	.50**	.58**	.52**	.68**
JDISAL	.05	-.14	-.03	-.02	-.28	.27	.07
JDIPROM	.00	-.14	-.09	-.03	-.08	.32	.12
JDISUPRV	.05	-.03	-.03	.00	.02	.49**	.18
JDICOWKS	.52**	.12	.22	.37	.48*	.29	.37

* .05 level of significance
** .01 level of significance

TABLE 36

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MEASURES OF JOB SATISFACTION AND LIFE SATISFACTION FOR FAMILY INCOME LEVEL $40,000 AND ABOVE

(N=28)

	GENLIF	HEALTH	FRIENDS	FAMILY	MARRIAGE	STNDLV	LIFSAT
JOBSAT	.20	-.08	.42*	.31	.18	.06	.48**
JDIWORK	.21	.10	.14	.00	.03	.16	.26
JDISAL	-.04	-.05	-.12	-.18	-.15	.11	-.22
JDIPROM	.06	-.02	-.08	-.10	.13	.07	.25
JDISUPRV	.04	.20	-.06	.06	.03	.15	.18
JDICOWKS	.20	.17	.45**	.06	.13	.04	.16

* .05 level of significance
** .01 level of significance

TABLE 37

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MEASURES OF JOB SATISFACTION AND LIFE SATISFACTION FOR INDIVIDUAL INCOME BELOW $14,000

(N=24)

	GENLIF	HEALTH	FRIENDS	FAMILY	MARRIAGE	STNDLV	LIFSAT
JOBSAT	.68**	-.04	.03	-.03	.00	.51**	.12
JDIWORK	.26	.32	-.13	-.42*	-.09	.05	-.02
JDISAL	.27	-.19	.13	.02	.29	.29	-.12
JDIPROM	.01	.00	.06	.03	.02	.14	.14
JDISUPRV	.39*	.04	.18	.10	-.13	.29	.29
JDICOWKS	-.01	.15	-.12	-.31	-.28	.29	.07

* .05 level of significance
** .01 level of significance

TABLE 38

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MEASURES OF JOB SATISFACTION AND LIFE SATISFACTION FOR INDIVIDUAL INCOME $14,000-$15,999

(N=73)

	GENLIF	HEALTH	FRIENDS	FAMILY	MARRIAGE	STNDLV	LIFSAT
JOBSAT	.16	.12	.19	.22	.14	.11	.43**
JDIWORK	.28**	.16	.15	.30**	.23	.00	.27
JDISAL	-.05	.13	.17	.11	.04	.42**	.08
JDIPROM	.20	.03	.18	.05	-.01	.14	.15
JDISUPRV	.13	.08	.14	.30**	.15	-.11	.16
JDICOWKS	.39**	.15	.22*	.26*	.44**	.11	.28**

* .05 level of significance
** .01 level of significance

TABLE 39

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MEASURES OF JOB SATISFACTION AND LIFE SATISFACTION FOR INDIVIDUAL INCOME $16,000-$17,999

(N=75)

	GENLIF	HEALTH	FRIENDS	FAMILY	MARRIAGE	STNDLV	LIFSAT
JOBSAT	.42**	.23*	.17	.10	.09	.31**	.62**
JDIWORK	.43**	.31**	.24*	.16	.20	.36**	.47**
JDISAL	.27**	-.03	.03	.13	.05	.47**	.33**
JDIPROM	.27**	.05	.23	.27*	.17	.10	.34**
JDISUPRV	.27**	.20	.11	.07	-.05	.09	.12
JDICOWKS	.68**	.05	.34**	.22*	.13	.33**	.33**

* .05 level of significance
** .01 level of significance

TABLE 40

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MEASURES OF JOB SATISFACTION AND LIFE SATISFACTION FOR INDIVIDUAL INCOME $18,000-$19,999

(N=41)

	GENLIF	HEALTH	FRIENDS	FAMILY	MARRIAGE	STNDLV	LIFSAT
JOBSAT	.21	.11	.00	.00	.02	.52**	.06
JDIWORK	.37	.01	-.06	.15	.24	.39	.22
JDISAL	.00	.23	.66**	-.22	-.36	.60**	.08
JDIPROM	.36	-.02	.10	.07	.23	.34	.22
JDISUPRV	.44	-.12	.19	.20	.52	.45	.25
JDICOWKS	-.22	.06	.17	.05	.06	-.20	-.29

* .05 level of significance
** .01 level of significance

TABLE 41

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MEASURES OF JOB SATISFACTION AND LIFE SATISFACTION FOR INDIVIDUAL INCOME $20,000 AND ABOVE

(N=18)

	GENLIF	HEALTH	FRIENDS	FAMILY	MARRIAGE	STNDLV	LIFSAT
JOBSAT	.71**	.04	.20	.16	.39	.50	.55**
JDIWORK	.37	.01	-.06	.15	.24	.39	.22
JDISAL	.00	.23	.66**	-.22	-.36	.60**	.08
JDIPROM	.36	-.02	.10	.07	.23	.34	.22
JDISUPRV	.44	-.12	.19	.20	.52	.45	.25
JDICOWKS	-.22	.06	.17	.05	.06	-.20	-.29

* .05 level of significance
** .01 level of significance

TABLE 42

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MEASURES OF JOB SATISFACTION AND LIFE SATISFACTION FOR TENURED FACULTY

(N=87)

	GENLIF	HEALTH	FRIENDS	FAMILY	MARRIAGE	STNDLV	LIFSAT
JOBSAT	.37**	.18	.13	.23*	.24*	.33**	.50**
JDIWORK	.44*	.18	.29**	.38**	.36**	.37**	.55**
JDISAL	.15	.05	.18	.20	.12	.57**	.32**
JDIPROM	.30**	.16	.27**	.29**	.27*	.33**	.38**
JDISUPRV	.11	.13	-.08	.00	.00	.00	.07
JDICOWKS	.49**	.18	.23*	.16	.33**	.23*	.26**

* .05 level of significance
** .01 level of significance

TABLE 43

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MEASURES OF JOB SATISFACTION AND LIFE SATISFACTION FOR NONTENURED FACULTY

(N=76)

	GENLIF	HEALTH	FRIENDS	FAMILY	MARRIAGE	STNDLV	LIFSAT
JOBSAT	.27**	.06	.17	-.01	-.06	.12	.38**
JDIWORK	.32**	.09	.17	.13	.01	.11	.28**
JDISAL	.10	-.02	.15	.07	-.03	.46**	.01
JDIPROM	.29**	.10	.15	.04	.16	.15	.20
JDISUPRV	.40**	.08	.36**	.28**	.08	.11	.29**
JDICOWKS	.30**	.00	.22	.17	.23	.06	.20

* .05 level of significance
** .01 level of significance

TABLE 44

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MEASURES OF JOB SATISFACTION AND LIFE SATISFACTION FOR FACULTY TEACHING IN RURAL AREAS

(N=139)

	GENLIF	HEALTH	FRIENDS	FAMILY	MARRIAGE	STNDLV	LIFSAT
JOBSAT	.35**	.11	.13	.17*	.12	.26**	.50**
JDIWORK	.43**	.16	.15	.21**	.18*	.20**	.41**
JDISAL	.21**	.00	.17*	.21**	.14	.58**	.24**
JDIPROM	.25**	.02	.13	.11	.06	.17*	.23**
JDISUPRV	.30**	.09	.11	.12	.03	.02	.20**
JDICOWKS	.42**	.16*	.27**	.20**	.23**	.26**	.24**

* .05 level of significance
** .01 level of significance

TABLE 45

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MEASURES OF JOB SATISFACTION AND LIFE SATISFACTION FOR FACULTY TEACHING IN URBAN AREAS

(N=92)

	GENLIF	HEALTH	FRIENDS	FAMILY	MARRIAGE	STNDLV	LIFSAT
JOBSAT	.33**	.10	.15	.09	.12	.34**	.33**
JDIWORK	.26**	.21*	.14	.13	.18	.25**	.23*
JDISAL	.02	.03	.19	-.09	-.31**	.25**	.05
JDIPROM	.18	.08	.13	.10	.06	.14	.18
JDISUPRV	.11	.10	.01	.09	.07	.24*	.01
JDICOWKS	.37**	-.01	.07	.07	.16	.09	.16

* .05 level of significance
** .01 level of significance