

Theses and Dissertations

2010

Job satisfaction and locus of control in an academic setting

Bonni J. Stachowiak

Follow this and additional works at: <https://digitalcommons.pepperdine.edu/etd>

Recommended Citation

Stachowiak, Bonni J., "Job satisfaction and locus of control in an academic setting" (2010). *Theses and Dissertations*. 53.

<https://digitalcommons.pepperdine.edu/etd/53>

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by Pepperdine Digital Commons. It has been accepted for inclusion in Theses and Dissertations by an authorized administrator of Pepperdine Digital Commons. For more information, please contact bailey.berry@pepperdine.edu.

Pepperdine University
Graduate School of Education and Psychology

JOB SATISFACTION AND LOCUS OF CONTROL IN AN ACADEMIC SETTING

A dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership

by

Bonni J. Stachowiak

May, 2010

Kent Rhodes, Ed.D.—Dissertation Chairperson

This dissertation, written by

Bonni J. Stachowiak

under the guidance of a Faculty Committee and approved by its members, has been submitted to and accepted by the Graduate Faculty in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

Kent Rhodes, Ed.D., Chairperson

Doug Leigh, Ph.D., Member

David Alford, Ed.D., Member

Eric R. Hamilton, Ph.D.
Associate Dean

Margaret Weber, Ph.D.
Dean

© Copyright by Bonni J. Stachowiak (2010)

All Rights Reserved

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
LIST OF TABLES	viii
LIST OF FIGURES	ix
DEDICATION	x
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	xi
VITA	xii
ABSTRACT	xiv
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND	1
Background	3
Problem Statement	4
Purpose of the Study	5
Research Questions	5
Importance of the Study	6
Study Limitations	7
Definition of Terms	8
Social Learning Theory	8
Expectancy-Value Framework	8
Attribution	9
Perception of Control	9
Locus of Control	9
Internal Locus of Control	9
External Locus of Control	10
Job Satisfaction	10
Years Teaching in Higher Education	10
Tenure	10
Organization of the Study	11
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW	13
Human Motivation	13
Need Reduction Theories	14
Freud’s Psychoanalytic Theory of Motivation	15
Hull’s Drive Theory	15
Expectancy-Value Theories	15
Kurt Lewin’s Field Theory	16
Achievement Theory	16

	Page
Social Learning Theory	17
Mastery and Growth Theories	18
Attribution Theory	18
Humanistic Theory	19
Locus of Control	19
Key Locus of Control Terms	23
Self-Esteem and Self-Efficacy.....	23
Internal locus of control.....	23
External Locus of Control	24
Measuring Locus of Control	24
Multidimensional Locus of Control.....	26
Duttweiler’s Internal Control Index (ICI).....	28
The University Environment and Locus of Control	29
Locus of Control Studies	30
Health and Well-Being Studies.....	30
Higher Education Studies	33
Belief Studies	34
Job Satisfaction	34
Key Job Satisfaction Terms	35
Job Satisfaction.....	35
Morale.....	36
Happiness.....	36
Contributors to Job Satisfaction or Dissatisfaction.....	37
Job and Work Design.....	38
Pay	42
Degree of Challenge and the Individual’s Ability	42
Variations in Individual Motives	44
The Carryover Effect of Overall Life Satisfaction	44
Measuring Job Satisfaction	50
Multifaceted Measures.....	50
Global Measures	51
Single-Item Measures	51
The University Environment and Job Satisfaction	52
Job Satisfaction Studies	55
Relationship to Productivity and Performance	55
Methods for Exploring the Potential Relationship Between Job Satisfaction and Performance.....	56
Participation’s Effect	60
Relationship to Happiness.....	62
Relationship to Turnover and Absenteeism.....	63
Relationship of Job Satisfaction to Locus of Control	64

	Page
CHAPTER THREE: METHODS	66
Restatement of the Research Questions	66
Research Design.....	66
Population, Research Subjects, and Analysis Unit	67
Characteristics Studied.....	68
Definition of Characteristics	69
Instrumentation	70
Locus of Control Instrument: Duttweiler’s ICI	70
Scoring of the ICI	71
Reliability of the ICI.....	72
Validity of the ICI.....	72
Job Satisfaction: Job in General Scale	73
Scoring of the JIG Scale	75
Reliability of the JIG Scale.....	76
Validity of the JIG Scale.....	76
Survey Variables and Scales	77
Data Collection Procedures.....	77
Protection of Human Subjects	79
Data Analysis	80
Summary	82
CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS	83
Characteristics of Survey Respondents.....	83
Analysis of Survey Data	84
Findings.....	85
Research Question One.....	85
Research Question Two	88
Research Question Three	92
Research Question Four.....	94
CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION.....	98
Summary of Key Findings	98
Past Research That Concurs With Study Findings	100
Past Research That Does Not Concur With Study Findings.....	101
Synthesis of Literature Review as it Relates to Study Findings	102
Potential Implications for Leadership in Higher Education	103
The Influence on Future Generations	104
Predictors Toward Greater Job Satisfaction	104
Study Limitations.....	105
Suggestions for Future Research	106
Aspirations and Productivity.....	106
Gender.....	107

	Page
Teaching Effectiveness	107
Faith and Locus of Control	108
Practitioner Recommendations	108
Explore Ways to Increase Autonomy	109
Provide Continual and Meaningful Feedback.....	110
Conclusion	111
REFERENCES	112
APPENDIX A: Demographic Data and Questions.....	132
APPENDIX B: Sample E-mail Invitation.....	133
APPENDIX C: Follow Up E-mail.....	134
APPENDIX D: Online Consent for Research Study	135
APPENDIX E: Duttweiler’s Internal Control Index	137
APPENDIX F: Job in General Scale	139
APPENDIX F: Permission to Use Duttweiler’s Internal Control Index.....	140
APPENDIX G: Order Confirmation of Job in General Scale.....	141
APPENDIX H: Human Subjects Training Certificate.....	142

LIST OF TABLES

	Page
Table 1: Study Variable Name and Types	69
Table 2: Moderators as Applied to the Conceptual Frameworks of Job Satisfaction and Locus of Control.....	70
Table 3: JIG Scale Items.....	75
Table 4: Survey Variables and Scales	77
Table 5: Data Analysis	81
Table 6: Frequency Counts for Selected Variables ($N = 61$).....	84
Table 7: Psychometric Characteristics for Summated Scale Scores ($N = 61$).....	85
Table 8: Spearman Correlations for the Relationship Between the Job in General Scale and Locus of Control Items ($N = 61$).....	87
Table 9: Spearman Rank-Ordered Correlations for Job Satisfaction Scale and Locus of Control Items With Job Satisfaction Years of Teaching and Tenure Status ($N = 61$).....	89
Table 10: Partial Correlations for the Relationship Between the Job in General Scale and Locus of Control Items, Controlling for Years of Teaching and Tenure Status ($N = 61$).....	93
Table 11: Spearman Correlations for the Relationship Between the Locus of Control Items and Years Teaching in Higher Education Demographic Variable ($N = 61$)	96
Table 12: Spearman Correlations for the Relationship Between the Locus of Control Items and Tenure Status Demographic Variable ($N = 61$)	97

LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
Figure 1: Graphic Illustration of the Relationship Between Motivation and Probability of Success.....	43
Figure 2: The Relationship Between Job Satisfaction and Job Performance Relationship Models	57

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my partner in learning and in life: Dave Stachowiak. I am grateful to be walking through life with you and that we met while embarking on a path to be servant leaders. Thank you for being such a support during what for both of us has been quite an adventure in a multitude of ways.

This dissertation is also dedicated to our parents: Harriet and Gene Stachowiak, as well as Jan and Jim Frazee. Harriet and Gene, my gratitude is immense for how you have enabled us both to pursue this academic accomplishment through your generosity and encouragement. Mom and Dad, you have always expressed how proud you are of me, yet have done so without ever pressuring me to do anything other than what I was created to do. Thank you all for helping me be a more effective teacher and learner.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Thank you to my dissertation chair and committee members for helping me achieve this accomplishment. Dr. Rhodes and Dr. Leigh, Pepperdine is fortunate to have you among their faculty members. I learned from you and so many of the other wonderful individuals who facilitate learning for Pepperdine's Organizational Leadership program. Dr. Alford, I am proud and grateful to have you as a colleague. Thank you for demonstrating such support for me over these years, both in terms of overcoming the barriers to complete this process and in terms of my vocation.

It is with gratitude that I reflect on the people we had the pleasure of collaborating with as a part of our cohort. We had such a diverse group of individuals from whom I learned much, with whom I laughed often, and for whom I will be always thankful for having had this experience together.

I would also like to acknowledge all the people who invest their time and talents in a teaching role. It can be a thankless job at times, yet your reach extends further than you could ever imagine.

VITA

Bonni J. Stachowiak

EDUCATION

Doctor of Education, Organizational Leadership
Pepperdine University, Malibu, California, 2010
Master of Arts, Organizational Leadership
Chapman University, Orange, California, 2004
Graduate Certificate, Human Resources
Chapman University, Orange, California, 2004
Bachelor of Arts, Social Sciences
Chapman University, Orange, California, 1993

EXPERIENCE

Vanguard University of Southern California, School of Business, 2005-present
Associate Professor

Innovate Learning, 2003-present
President

University of California, Irvine, 2004-2006
Director of Organizational Development

New Horizons Computer Learning Centers
Vice President of Human Resources, 2002-2004
Vice President of New Horizons University, 1999-2002
Director of Franchise Support, 1995-1999

PUBLICATIONS AND PRESENTATIONS - PARTIAL LIST

Presented *Human Resources and Organizational Success* at the California State Employee Development Department's (EDD's) Employer Advisory Council of Orange County, on September 17, 2009.

Presented *The Business of Human Trafficking* at an event hosted by The Hudson Institute in Washington, DC on July 10, 2008. Invited to speak by Dr. Laura Lederer, the Senior Advisor on Trafficking for the State Department.

Presented *Employee Retention, Motivation, and Compensation* at the California State Employee Development Department's (EDD's) Employer Advisory Council of Orange County, on May 15, 2008.

Published *Exploring Christian Leadership in Learning Environments* in the proceedings of the Hawaii International Conference on Education, on January 6-9, 2007.

Presented at 2006 Pacific Coast Association of Physical Plant Administrators annual conference on *Growing Your Career and Developing Others* on October 3, 2006.

Presented at 2006 University of California, Irvine Academic and Professional Women monthly meeting on *Organizational Politics* on April 20, 2006.

Presented at 2005 American Society of Training and Development of Orange County monthly meeting on *Leveraging Positive Politics* on October 26, 2005.

Presented at 2005 PowerPoint LIVE conference on *Instructional Design and Rapid eLearning Creation* on September 28, 2005.

Presented at 2005 American Society for Training & Development of Orange County technology meeting on *Creating Effective eLearning Courses* on March 9, 2005.

Published *Cross the Finish Line: Tips for Winning the IT Race* in Certification Magazine, May 2004.

Published *Technology to Enhance the Learning Experience* in Chief Learning Officer, July, 2003.

Published *Corporate Universities: A Powerful Model for Learning* in Chief Learning Officer Magazine, November, 2002.

ABSTRACT

This study explored any relationships that existed between faculty members' locus of control and job satisfaction at a small, private, faith-based university. Two demographic variables were also analyzed in the findings: number of years teaching in higher education and tenure status. The job satisfaction instrument used was the Job in General (JIG) scale (Ironson et al.), which measures global satisfaction. Perceived locus of control was measured by Duttweiler's (1984) Internal Control Index (ICI). A total of 61 faculty members' participated in this survey.

Overall, the findings in this study were somewhat consistent with past research, to the extent that this could be assessed given a lack of reliability demonstrated on the ICI. The importance of the work that faculty perform and the sense of purpose and contentment that it provides could be construed as a reason for why praise for the purpose of completing a challenging task was less important in these faculty members' motivational drives. The importance of autonomy in the work of faculty members' satisfaction was clearly connected with the past findings of this vital component of motivation. No relationship between job satisfaction and locus of control was found, since the Internal Control Index instrument that was used in the study did not demonstrate reliability in the statistical analysis. Other important factors that may help leaders in higher education contribute to higher levels of job satisfaction among faculty were analyzed and discussed.

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

Success in today's competitive business environment requires that an organization focus on a multitude of factors. Institutions of higher education must take on business characteristics in order to achieve their goals and fulfill their missions (Blackburn & Lawrence, 1995). One such success factor is the importance of employee job satisfaction, said to be critical for the success of managers, supervisors, human resource professionals, and individuals (Cranny, Smith, & Stone, 1992). In fact, job satisfaction has been more heavily researched than any other topic in industrial psychology (Dormann & Zapf, 2001; Spector, 1997). Job satisfaction has even been asserted to be the most informative data to have about employees in an organization (Rosnowski & Hulin, 1992), since dissatisfaction is shown to be correlated with employees' intent to leave an organization (Dormann & Zapf,; Mathieson & Miree, 2003) and satisfaction is found to be correlated with increases in employees' level of effort (Azar, 2008).

Despite the quantity of research that has been conducted on satisfaction and job achievement, little has been done to explore what Judge, Locke, and Durham (1997) have called core self-evaluations, which include locus of control, and their relationship to job satisfaction. Scarce research has been conducted to ascertain the link between individuals' perceived locus of control and how motivated they are to perform well in their jobs (Judge, 2001a).

Job satisfaction is correlated with job performance (Judge, 2001b; Spector, 1997) and increasingly higher levels of employee achievement bring greater overall levels of organizational success (Pinder, 2008). When employees are dissatisfied with their jobs, higher levels of absenteeism and turnover are the result (Dormann & Zapf, 2001;

Mathieson & Miree, 2003), as well as increased burnout and employee stress (Spector).

In higher education, job satisfaction is an important gauge. Huston, Norman, and Ambrose (2007) describe three potential negative impacts from having dissatisfied faculty members. First, these individuals often withdraw from the community and refrain from collaborating with colleagues. Second, they can disengage from the decision-making processes of the institution, making shared governance impossible. Finally, they frequently avoid mentoring junior colleagues, contributing to potential dissatisfaction in the ranks of less experienced faculty members.

Hensel (1991) also connects faculty members' job satisfaction with having an impact on a nation's well-being, in that professors influence upcoming generations. "The well being of the university depends on its ability to recruit and retain a talented professoriate. Our national well being depends on our ability to develop a happy, emotionally healthy, and productive next generation" (p. 79).

For many years, debate has occurred in the research community as to the origins of job satisfaction (Pinder, 2008). A primary question involved in the studies is whether job satisfaction is contingent on situational factors (such as leadership styles, reward systems, and organizational culture), or on the individuals' core traits (such as personality types).

While the body of research is growing in terms of job satisfaction and situational versus stable factors, little has been conducted regarding the relationship to locus of control. Rotter (1966) first developed the locus of control construct. As Duttweiler (1981) articulated, "The term 'construct' is used in psychology to refer to something that is not observable" (p. 28). Rotter theorized that in our human tendency to assign a cause to

events that happen to us and to others, we are likely to have two differing perceptions of how the events took place. Internals explain that the event occurred because of some action that they took, while externals ascribe the blame or credit to an outside force. Therefore, Rotter's theory predicts that human behavior is a result of individual values, the expectations of success or failure held by a person, and the given situation.

Lefcourt (1976) argues, "Man must come to be more effective and able to perceive himself as the determiner of his fate if he is to live comfortably with himself" (p. 3). There has been some research to indicate that a person's locus of control will influence his or her job satisfaction, but there are many opportunities to extend the research beyond the little that has been conducted.

This chapter examines the historical and current literature on the relationship between locus of control and job satisfaction. Previous studies on locus of control and job satisfaction are explored. Finally, the researcher describes a study that explored the correlation between locus of control and job satisfaction for the faculty at a small, private university.

Background

Job satisfaction is an important consideration when leading an institution of higher education (Owens, 2008). While job satisfaction is only slightly correlated with job performance, specifically (Pinder, 2008), mitigating factors such as the individual's intentions, self-concept, and level of autonomy have increased the potential to show a causal relationship between employees' fulfillment at work and their overall performance. Job satisfaction is also positively correlated with a person's perception that he or she will be able to use his or her skills and abilities in a given job (Hackman &

Lawler, 1971; Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959; Lawler & Hall, 1970).

Faculty members can sometimes have a false perception that some external source will provide them with greater levels of job satisfaction. One example of this myth is conveyed in the academics' quest to attain tenure. Argyle (2001) writes, "Faculty think they will be happier if they get tenure. It [makes] no difference" (p. 5). Instead, the work is shown to be the biggest contributor to a faculty member's satisfaction (Castillo & Cano, 2004).

Pearson and Seiler (1983) conducted a study of university professors in the United States and found that the most effective way to increase faculty members' satisfaction was to consider their higher order needs. Those professors who had control over what they taught and the content of their research efforts were more likely to be satisfied in their jobs. The research did not extend to whether the faculty members had more influence than they realized in their careers. Pearson and Seiler did report that 6% of the study participants were not even aware of whether their university required research as one of their tenure selection criteria as an example of how some faculty members are not even aware of the effect actions they can take could have on their own careers. While Pearson and Seiler's research did identify factors in faculty job satisfaction, their perceived level of locus of control and how that relates to their job satisfaction was not explored.

Problem Statement

Judge (2001b) stresses that vast research has been conducted since 1939 on the connection between job satisfaction and performance. He writes, "Indeed, interest in the link between workplace attitudes and productivity goes back at least as far as the

Hawthorne studies (Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1939) and the topic continues to be written about to this day” (p. 376). Important work has been done in the area of motivation and success, but compelling data has not been compiled that explores other aspects of human performance as it relates to motivation and one’s perceived ability to influence outcomes.

Purpose of the Study

The aim of this study was to examine the relationship between faculty members’ locus of control (the degree to which they believe they can influence their successes and failures) and their overall job satisfaction. Two demographic variables, years in teaching and tenure status, were explored to determine what, if any, relationship exists between a faculty member’s job satisfaction and his or her locus of control. It is hoped that by studying locus of control and job satisfaction that universities would have more insight in to how these factors impact a faculty member’s overall satisfaction, thereby offering another approach to motivate workers and maximize productivity (Castillo & Cano, 2004). Universities may gain insight from this research into the ways in which job satisfaction of their most important constituency is derived.

Research Questions

This study focused on answering the following research questions:

1. To what extent, if at all, is there a relationship between faculty members’ self-reported job satisfaction and their perceived locus of control?
2. To what extent, if at all, are there differences among faculty members’ self-reported job satisfaction based on demographic variables?
3. What relationship, if any, exists between faculty members’ self-reported job

satisfaction and locus of control after controlling for demographic variables?

4. To what extent, if at all, are there differences between faculty members' self-reported locus of control based on demographic variables?

Importance of the Study

The opportunity for research offers potential insights for businesses, as organizations continually seek to motivate workers and maximize productivity. Faculty salaries make up the largest percentage of a university's budget (Blackburn & Lawrence, 1995), making a focus on this part of the academic workforce important. Judge, Erez, Bono, and Thoresen (2001) studied around 15,000 individuals to assess how locus of control (among three other variables, all included within the four constructs that the researchers collectively refer to as core self-evaluations) may influence an individual's job performance. In their study they found that locus of control is connected with job performance and satisfaction. This research can provide leaders in higher education with input on the drivers of faculty satisfaction. This study explores the potential relationship between locus of control and job satisfaction for faculty at a small, private university, which supports and extends the research already conducted by others in the field.

The factors leading to a person's level of satisfaction in his or her job have been extensively studied, but continue to prompt the need for even more research (Pinder, 2008). Having insight into how the locus of control of faculty members at a private university relate to their levels of satisfaction may reveal important information that would benefit institutions of higher learning. On a broader level, this study contributes to the overall need to continue examining these factors (Judge, Thoreson, Bono, & Patton, 2001). This research seeks to compensate for the lack of data related to job satisfaction

and locus of control (Judge, Locke, & Durham, 1997). Looked at from a micro viewpoint, small, private universities may gain insight into potential ways to identify one of the factors involved in job satisfaction.

This results of this research point toward possible ways to increase an organization's morale by assessing any existing relationship between locus of control and an individual's job satisfaction. Pinder (2008) reports that further research on higher-order traits (such as locus of control) "will help to advance our understanding of work motivation dynamics...[and] that higher-order constructs hold the potential to shed light" (p. 192) on motivation and performance indicators.

Study Limitations

This study focuses on faculty at a small, private educational institution. While this will offer a perspective on universities with similar characteristics, there will still be a need for more research in larger educational institutions, as well as in the for-profit business environment. The intent is to appeal to individuals with an interest in application of the construct and less to psychometricians and theorists.

This research does not attempt to explore the influence of other variables, such as job performance or teaching abilities. Many researchers have examined other factors; however, the goal in conducting this research is to maintain the study's simple structure in order to extend beyond the current findings. Pinder (2008) is among the many researchers who have criticized the ever-expanding number of higher-order constructs and means for assessing job satisfaction. Keeping the study focused and using only a couple of widely used instruments limits the constructs that are evaluated, but increases the specificity of the research.

The study also does not examine the effect that a person's aspiration levels may have on his or her job satisfaction. Bruggermann, Groskurth, and Ulich (1975) coined the phrase *resigned job satisfaction* to describe how individuals cope with a discrepancy between their expectations and the current reality in their jobs. Employees may decide to lower their level of aspiration to lessen the gap between their desired and current reality, resulting in resigned job satisfaction. Recommendations for future research to include this component are made in the final chapter of this dissertation.

Definition of Terms

This section provides definitions for key terms used in the research proposal. The originator of the term is also provided, when most relevant. Finally, support from the literature related to these terms is included.

Social Learning Theory

Rotter's (1954) social learning theory asserts that individuals' actions can be predicted based on their individual expectations of success, how much they value a given outcome, and the specific situation in which they find themselves. Bandura (1977) began referring to this theory as social-cognitive theory to contrast it from strictly behavioral-based theories. Social learning theory emphasizes situational factors, instead of intrapersonal dynamics as stressed in other theories, and uses "carefully documented principles of learning to explain motivated behavior" (Weiner, 1989, p. 229).

Expectancy-Value Framework

Rotter's (1954) interpretation of social learning theory is different than other theorists who subscribe to the same set of principles, primarily because of his adherence with an expectancy-value conception of behavior. The expectancy-value framework

asserts that how much effort an individual puts toward achieving a goal is directly related to his or her perception of the value of the possible outcome, as well as the person's belief about the likelihood of goal attainment.

Attribution

The explanations individuals make for what happens to them or to other people, or how events are interpreted and given meaning, were most prominently first explored by Heider (1958). Deschamps (1997) describes attribution as “a process through which things acquire more meaning” (p. 7).

Perception of Control

The extent to which an individual perceives an ability to shape his or her achievement of a specific outcome is the perception of control. This belief about one's response to events is not unique to human beings and is said to “be a significant determinant of the response to aversive events, regardless of species” (Lefcourt, 1976, p. 14).

Locus of Control

The phrase locus of control is used to describe individuals' perceptions of the extent to which they have control over outcomes in their lives (Lefcourt, Miller, Ware, & Sherk, 1981). Locus of control examines beliefs about causation and whether individuals can have an impact on what occurs in their lives. For the purpose of this study, locus of control is measured by Duttweiler's (1984) Locus of Control Scale.

Internal Locus of Control

When individuals are described as having an internal locus of control, they perceive that their actions will affect their outcomes. A belief in one's capacity to control

an outcome influences a person's perceptions of events (Lefcourt, 1976).

External Locus of Control

People who are said to have an external locus of control believe that outside forces, such as fate, chance, or luck, are dictating their outcomes (Ray, 1980). Those with this perspective feel powerless in affecting a final result or impacting their obtaining a desired reward (Lefcourt, 1976).

Job Satisfaction

The extent to which an individual is content or even pleased with his or her work is referred to as job satisfaction. Most often measured as an attitudinal variable (Spector, 1997), job satisfaction is a gauge of the extent to which a person likes his or her job. It is seen as the perception a person has of his or her desired outcomes with actual outcomes in a work context, or the degree to which the individual's expectations have been met over time (Fields, 2002). Judge (2001b) states, "The potential linkage between [job] satisfaction and performance is nearly as old as the field of industrial-organizational psychology" (p. 393). For the purpose of this study, job satisfaction is measured by Brayfield and Rothe's (1951) Job Satisfaction Index.

Years Teaching in Higher Education

The years spent teaching in higher education is one of two demographic variables collected in this study. For the purpose of this research, years teaching in higher education is measured by a self-reported number of total years teaching full-time in an institution of higher education (college or university).

Tenure

The tenure system was first adopted to protect academic professionals from being

removed from their positions as a result of their political or religious beliefs. Tenure is granted to those who demonstrate that they have met the criteria determined by their institution. It protects individuals from having their position terminated without just cause. There are also nontenure track positions at institutions, whereby an individual works under a contract that specifies the amount of time before which the need for their continued service will be evaluated. For the purpose of this study, tenure status is measured by a self-reported indication of which category best fits their current status: tenured, tenure track, nontenure track.

Organization of the Study

This study utilizes historical and current research to explore the subjects of locus of control and job satisfaction and examines the connection between the two measures for faculty at a small, private university. The first chapter describes the background and problem involved in this research, along with articulating the purpose of the study. The research question is articulated and the importance and limitations of the study are explored. Finally, definitions of key terms are offered. Chapter Two conveys the current and historical literature relating to locus of control, along with the major research in job satisfaction. The connection between locus of control and job satisfaction is communicated in this chapter as revealed in academic research. The third chapter describes the methods that were used to research any correlation between job satisfaction and locus of control for faculty at a small, private university. This chapter includes the nature of the study and its objectives, along with the population and characteristics studied. The data collection methods and the instruments to be used are also communicated in this chapter. The fourth chapter describes the study findings, while

chapter five discusses the findings and makes recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Extensive research has been published concerning an individual's locus of control (Lefcourt, 1976), as well as about job satisfaction factors in the workplace (Dormann & Zapf, 2001; Pinder, 2008). Robbins (2005) stresses the importance of considering personality factors (such as one's locus of control) in maximizing overall employee morale. He writes that in order "to maximize employee performance and satisfaction, individual differences—such as experience, personality, and the work task—should be taken into account" (p. 227). Any examination of factors that contribute to greater levels of satisfaction and motivation is productive and beneficial (Cranny et al., 1992; Judge, Hanisch, & Drankoski, 1995).

This chapter begins with an overview of human motivation. The conceptual support provides a broad description of how job satisfaction and locus of control fit in to theories of human motivation. Next, the literature on locus of control and job satisfaction is explored in depth. Finally, the small body of research that has been conducted on the relationship between the two is discussed.

Human Motivation

While the quest to understand human behavior is ubiquitous, two main methodologies are used in attempting to explain why people think and act the way they do. The experimental research approach stresses the use of precise mathematical theories to explain why we do what we do. The advantage of this exploratory means is the accuracy that the scientific laws provide. However, the downside of the experimental scheme is that it only allows research on a limited range of human conduct. In contrast, psychologists typically use a clinical approach in their research of behavior. This method

provides for a broader spectrum of research and produces valuable insights into why particular human actions occur (Pinder, 2008).

Weiner (1989) explains, “These notions are not really subject to definitive proof or disproof, but they are useful in generating ideas and research and in providing insights about the causes of behavior” (p. 4). The theories and research in this literature review emphasize the clinical study of human motivation, in order to examine more broad phenomena than the experimental approach offers. A few of the more important experimental schemes are examined, though the emphasis is kept on the clinical research.

Weiner (1989) groups his research on human motivation theories into three broad categories: (a) need reduction theories, (b) expectancy-value theories, and (c) mastery and growth theories (pp. vii–ix). Weiner stresses that the order of the theories presented is not indicative of their importance or of the chronological order of their emergence. Human behavior theories can be categorized according to whether they present experimental or clinical research approaches, but they also can differ significantly on other matrices. Following is a brief overview of the three categories as described by Weiner (1989), with particular focus placed on those theories most relevant to the research suggested in this dissertation proposal.

Need Reduction Theories

Much of the study of human motivation has been dominated by Freud’s psychoanalytic theory and Hull’s drive theory (Weiner, 1989). While these two theories are quite different, they have the paradigm in common that they explain human behavior as an individual’s desire to reduce tension and achieve an inner balance. Freud’s research approach was clinical, while Hull used an experimental stratagem.

Freud's Psychoanalytic Theory of Motivation

According to Freud, human beings are motivated to achieve basic needs, with the understanding that the world's resources are limited. Human beings seek a stable internal equilibrium and this desire is referred to as homeostasis. At the most basic level, when people are hungry (and therefore unbalanced), they will seek food (to regain balance). Hedonism suggests that the greatest needs that individuals have are to attain pleasure and happiness. Therefore, homeostasis proposes that human beings will seek to maintain equilibrium by achieving hedonistic goals. Freud asserted that individuals are driven by both conscious and unconscious drives, the most powerful being the unconscious.

Hull's Drive Theory

In contrast to Freud's clinical approach, Hull proposed a mathematical means for determining human behavior. He conceived that since a need typically precedes an action, the unsatisfied need would provide the drive to perform a given task. Hull developed the following mathematical explanation for human behavior (Pinder, 2008):
Behavior = Drive X Habit.

In linking learned behavior (habit) with need achievement (drive), Hull paved the way for future experimental research on why people do what they do. However, Hull was criticized for reducing human beings to machines and the standard beliefs of theorists are that human beings are far more complex (Weiner, 1989).

Expectancy-Value Theories

Instead of seeing human beings as machines, those who advocate an expectancy-value theory incorporate the more complex variables of cognition in their frameworks. Human behavior is explained by expectancy-value theorists by arguing that actions are a

function of how likely individuals believe they are to succeed and how much they value the anticipated result. People are driven to act if they believe they will achieve a given goal and if they value the potential outcome. These theorists pursue an experimental means of describing motivation and behavior (Robbins, 2005).

Kurt Lewin's Field Theory

Lewin asserted that behavior is a function of both the person and his or her given environment, or what he calls an individual's field. His description of the environment takes into account the physical realities, as well as the related psychological factors such as needs, values, motivations, and beliefs. These forces will direct an individual toward and away from a given behavior, based on the amount of valence (value) that the anticipated reward is perceived to possess. A person's proximity to the desired goal also can influence the force's potency, as the closer he or she gets, the more the strength of the force is amplified (Lewin, 1952).

Achievement Theory

Achievement theorists have attempted to predict a narrow spectrum of human behavior, which is similar to the approach taken by the drive theorists discussed previously. Achievement theory also seeks to incorporate the more cognitive aspects of the expectancy-value approaches. As with Hull and Lewin's theories, the amount of effort expended in a given situation is based on how likely success is perceived to be, as well as the value of the anticipated result. However, achievement theorists also incorporate individuals' differences in personality into their assertions. Weiner (1989) writes:

Achievement theory...is built upon the idea of individual differences, and

personality structures are essential determinants of behavior.... Two questions are of special importance: What is the generality (or extensity, or breadth) of the need for achievement? Is this disposition stable, or at least *relatively* enduring? (p. 188)

Social Learning Theory

While the aforementioned theories emphasized widely used explanations of human actions involving intrapersonal dynamics and establishing internal equilibrium, they are linked to facets that are difficult if not impossible to measure (Weiner, 1989). Social learning theory stressed the environment as a key factor in the complex interrelationships among the person, his or her behavior, and the environment as influencers in human behavior and motivation (Bandura, 1986). Theorists who subscribe to a social learning theory believe in the following four tenets described by Weiner:

1. The most important determinants of behavior are learned. Genetic and biological factors merely set limits on possible learning experiences.
2. Behavior is situationally specific. That is, “people behave as they do in response to the demands and characteristics of the particular situation that they are in at the moment” (Liebert & Spiegler, 1950, p. 310).
3. The essential influences on behavior reside in the external world.
4. A theory of motivation should use few constructs, make a minimum number of inferences, and be guided by experimental data. (p. 229)

According to social learning theorists, the human mind and cerebral processes influence behavior, as does learning through imitation. The most widely cited social learning researcher is Rotter (1954), who will be discussed in much greater depth later. His work influenced much of the work being done in the area of personal responsibility

(Weiner, 1989).

Mastery and Growth Theories

Another clinical grouping of theories utilizes the mastery and growth approach to describing behavior and motivation. Attribution theory and humanistic psychology assert that “humans strive to understand themselves and their environment and that growth processes are inherent to human motivation. Thus, these theories most contrast with the Freudian and Hullian approaches” (Weiner, 1989, p. 5).

Attribution Theory

Human beings have a natural tendency to observe what is occurring and to assign a reason for why certain events took place (Schepers, 2005). The perceived causes of human behavior are referred to as attributions. Schepers writes:

The causative attributions that people make, and their interpretation thereof, determine to a large extent their perceptions of the social world. Is it a friendly or a threatening world? Is it a just or unjust world? Is it a predictable or an unpredictable world? Can we exercise control over particular events through our own abilities or are our lives controlled by certain influential people? (p. 2)

Attribution theory, first described by Heider (1958), is similar to Rotter’s locus of control in that causes of events are described as having occurred because of external (outside the individual’s control) or internal factors (based on the individual’s capabilities and level of effort). Managers often describe the performance of their subordinates in terms of the level of effort expended (internal factors) or by circumstances beyond the control of the individuals involved (Pinder, 2008).

Humanistic Theory

In the study of motivation, those who subscribe to a humanistic viewpoint take the whole person into account in their research, that is, people who strive to become fully self-actualized. Carl Rogers and Abraham Maslow are two of the prominent humanistic theorists, each believing that an individual's desire is to maximize his or her potential (Weiner, 1989). This tenet is challenging to subject to research questions and, therefore, both humanists focused on those factors that might inhibit the quest for growth and motivation.

Rogers has published many books and is a central figure in client-centered therapy. He asserts that our self-acceptance is learned in that people are socialized to accept some parts of themselves, while rejecting others (Rogers, 1959). This learned means of self-judgment can inhibit a person's self-actualization. Interactions with others, as well as feedback received, have an impact on self-actualization, making the impact of a person's social environment paramount in their well-being. Rogers also stressed that people are free to choose their own behavior, regardless of their circumstances or the environment in which they are interacting with others.

Maslow is best known for his needs hierarchy, which is divided into lower-order and higher-order needs. The needs from lowest order to highest order are physiological, safety, social, esteem, and self-actualization. Maslow (1943) claimed that the lower-order needs possess greater strength than the higher-order ones and must first be satisfied before an individual can seek to fulfill higher-order needs.

Locus of Control

The exploration of human motivation involves the desire to explain why people

do what they do. The way people explain their own behavior, as well as the actions of others, is known as attribution theory (Heider, 1958). Attribution is a process in which individuals find meaning in what occurs and how they interpret events.

One theory involving the explanation of what happens to people is Rotter's (1966) locus of control. While the development of the locus of control research was conducted independently from the studies on attribution, the distinctions between the two theories are negligent (Deschamps, 1997).

The research concerning locus of control has been rapidly evolving since Rotter's first article on the subject in 1966. Furnham and Steele (1993) state, "Locus of control is conceived of as a belief that a response will, or will not, influence the attainment of reinforcement" (p. 444). An individual's locus of control is thus a measure of one's belief in his or her own behaviors' ability to influence outcomes. A number of instruments have been addressed in the literature in order to measure adequately and explain locus of control.

The locus of control construct is a subset of Rotter's broader theory of social learning (Rotter, 1954, 1960, 1971). "The theory was developed as an attempt to account for human behavior in relatively complex social situations...and provides a tentative set of principles to account for complex human behavior" (Rotter, Chance, & Phares, 1972, p. 1). In social learning theory, a specific behavior is made more or less likely to occur, given an individual's belief in how likely a specific outcome is to occur, how valuable the anticipated reinforcement is, the potential the person has to perform the desired behavior, and the given situation. It can be challenging to isolate various environmental situations from unique human behavior, but Rotter and others have identified broad categories of

external environmental situations to study.

Lefcourt (1976) describes Rotter's theory using a fictitious example of a male college student's flirtatious behavior. His confidence in his attempts to charm exist because of his belief that these courting responses will be reciprocated and the desire he has for young women to engage with him. He has likely perfected his approach through past successes and failures and believes that these women will find him alluring. Lefcourt stresses that this "equal emphasis upon value, expectancy of reinforcement, and situational specificity that makes Rotter's theory unique among learning theories, which, more commonly, accentuate only the value or motive end of predictive formulas" (p. 27).

Rotter's basic theory is as follows: $NP = f(FM \& NV)$. The potential for an individual to perform a behavior that results in some form of need satisfaction is a function of the freedom of movement (the expectancy that these behaviors will result in the desired reinforcement) and the need value (how much the anticipated outcome is appreciated). As Rotter further clarified his model and did more specific research, he developed the locus of control construct out of the freedom of movement described in his general social learning theory.

Rotter (1954, 1960, 1971) and Bandura (1977) rejected the notion that human behavior was predicated solely as a result of a trial-and-error shaping process, as asserted by behavioral theorists. Instead, the given situation, the individual's cognitive process, and the perception held regarding one's ability to influence outcomes were considered in the theory. Rotter (1966) theorized, "The effects of reward or reinforcement on preceding behavior depend in part on whether the person perceives the reward as contingent on his own behavior or independent of it" (p. 1). The strength of reinforcement depends on the

individual's perception that his or her actions are likely to impact the attainment of a desired result or avoidance of a negative outcome. If no reinforcement occurs on the basis of a person's behavior, no learning will occur and the behavior will not likely be strengthened or avoided. Rotter's early work provided a foundation for Vroom's (1964) valence-instrumentality-expectancy theory, which is one the most widely cited theories on human motivation (Pinder, 2008).

Bandura (1977), as does Rotter, stresses the impact of environmental cues and the outcomes related to a specific behavior. Prior to social learning theory (called social cognitive theory), the emphasis tended to be either on "internal personal states (such as needs, values, beliefs, or perceptions) or on external environmental conditions (such as antecedents and/or consequences)" (Pinder, 2008, p. 457). Bandura (1986) describes the interrelated factors of the individual, the behavior, and the environment as factors in the causal relationships.

The didactic interactions that occur within the three factors emphasize that people do have influence over what happens to them, while the situation (environment) can be beyond an individual's ability to control. Past reinforcements will predicate human behavior, as will an individual's perception of his or her ability to impact the ultimate outcome. The three determinants do not have equal authority in human behavior. Instead, the extent to which one of the factors will have a larger influence in this interacting system will depend on the situation (Bandura, 1986).

Rotter (1966) developed his Internal-External (I-E) scale to measure the degree to which an individual perceives outcomes as a result of internal or external factors. Internals are those who believe they can make a difference in what happens to them in

their lives and whether their goals are attained. Externals are those who believe that their circumstances are a result of one of three categories of influencers: powerful others, external variables, or chance (Leung, Siu, and Spector, 2000).

Key Locus of Control Terms

Earlier, the primary definitions in this dissertation were provided. In this section, terms specific to the locus of control construct are given and the previously introduced definitions are expanded. This terminology is critical to convey in order to comprehend the research section.

Self-Esteem and Self-Efficacy

The attitudes and beliefs that one has about one's self, referred to as self-esteem, has long been considered as an important human need (Maslow, 1954). However, more recent studies show that there are both positive and negative ramifications to having high self-esteem (Baumeister, Campbell, Krueger, & Vohs, 2003). In the past 30 years, research on another similar concept called self-efficacy has emerged (Pinder, 2008). Self-efficacy exists based on an individual's level of confidence that he or she can succeed at a given task. Self-esteem has to do with the overall perception a person has about his or her "worth as a person, spanning a wide variety of situations" (p. 190) while self-efficacy is "a judgment about task capability that is not inherently evaluative" (Gist & Mitchell, 1992, p. 185).

Internal locus of control

Internal locus of control is when an individual believes "a reinforcement [is] contingent upon his own behavior" (Rotter, 1966) the result being that "the occurrence of either a positive or negative reinforcement will strengthen or weaken potential for that

behavior to recur in the same or similar situation” (p. 5). Internals fear change less than externals if they perceive that they have some type of control in the process, unless they suspect that the change will damage the organization (Lau & Woodman, 1995). Rotter (1966) described internals as being motivated by and toward high achievement, while possessing a low outer directedness. The desire to meet goals propelled the individual toward higher levels of motivation and greater amounts of effort expended.

External Locus of Control

External locus of control is when the reinforcement is viewed as being outside the individual’s control either to attain or avoid. Rotter (1966) describes that those with this type of expectancy viewed their outcomes as being related to fate, luck, chance, powerful others (such as teachers or doctors [Skinner, 1996]), or unpredictable forces. “In other words, learning under skill conditions is different from learning under chance conditions” (Rotter, p. 5). When experiencing a new situation that is similar to a past event in which reinforcement occurred, those with an external locus of control are unlikely to apply their past learning to this new situation. Externals resist change more than internals, though they may be more likely to accept change if the outside forces they perceive are impacting the outcome will prove to produce fruitful results (Lau & Woodman, 1995).

Measuring Locus of Control

Rotter (1966) first provided a foundation for locus of control theory through his I-E Control scale. This 29-item forced-choice inventory asked participants to choose between general statements that identified with either internal or external locus of control orientation. While many have criticized the resulting statistical results when using Rotter’s I-E scale, the instrument has been used in 69% of the locus of control research

done in the United States (Schepers, 2005).

Rotter (1966) stated that individuals with an internal locus of control tend to believe that their actions are generally responsible for the results they see in their lives. Individuals with an external locus of control tend to consider the external environment far more influential in the results produced. In addition, Rotter suggested that those with a high internal locus of control would quickly learn what actions produced the desired result, making them fast learners. Those with an external locus of control would not connect their actions to outcomes as quickly, thus delaying the learning process or stopping it entirely. This unidimensional inventory quickly became the most popular measure for locus of control.

Since its publication, Rotter's I-E instrument has been validated by many researchers. Zerega, Tseng, and Greever (1976) provide validation to the instrument by administering it to high school students and establishing test-retest reliability as well as concurrent validity. In addition, Hersch and Scheibe (1967) provide extensive validation for the I-E scale through test-retest reliability and correlation with a number of other personality assessments. They also provide evidence of behaviors that are tied to the construct of the instrument. Additionally, they suggest that the internal locus group is far more homogeneous than those who score on the external side of the scale. Hersch and Scheibe also point to other research that provides a foundation of their findings for a valid I-E instrument.

Despite its popularity, critics of Rotter's work are quick to point out the limitations of the I-E scale. While Berndt (1978) does find construct validity in the sociopolitical structure of the instrument, he is unable to do the same for the personal

cluster and advises researchers to investigate further the validity of this aspect of the instrument. Little (1979) suggests that there is limited evidence to support the stability of the scale throughout a longer period of time. Ray (1980) argues that the instrument is structured in such a way as to heavily weight an individual's belief in luck, rather than a true external locus of control. In a later article, Ray (1984) adds, "The forced-choice format of the Rotter scale is a particular problem. It precludes one from testing whether the supposedly 'opposite' choices are in fact perceived by respondents as opposite" (p. 580). In fact, he cites research showing that individuals greatly expand upon these choices when given the opportunity.

Hodgkinson (1992) comments that the scale is beset with problems and Hansen (1984) adds to the debate by showing evidence of those with a high locus of control being more likely to refuse to complete the inventory at all. This raises questions about a potential inherent bias within the instrument. Furthermore, both Lange and Tiggemann (1981) and Marsh and Richards (1987) comment on the limitations of the unidimensional nature of the instrument and encourage researchers to start to look elsewhere. Also critical of the instrument, Duffy, Shiflett, and Downey (1977) present results that suggest that the I-E scale is not primarily unidimensional and instead multidimensional upon a detailed analysis. They call to question the usefulness of the scale and suggest the research continue in order to understand further other options and limitations.

Multidimensional Locus of Control

While Rotter (1966) described control as a belief surrounding internal and external forces, more current researchers have added a dimension to the concept. A person's self-efficacy is viewed as a component of internal control, while the force of fate

or chance, along with the idea that powerful others may influence outcomes, are isolated in this emerging research.

Levenson (1973) added the next dimension to locus of control after citing limitations of Rotter's I-E scale. An earlier study by Levenson indicated that individuals who believed in powerful others in their lives would behave differently than those who merely had an external locus of control. As a result, she measured three key elements in her research. Internal control measured an individual's belief in his or her own abilities to influence outcomes, powerful others measured the individual's belief in the influence of others to keep them from having control over his or her own outcomes, and chance measured the individual's belief in his or her inability to control the external environment at all. With promising results, this precipitated a new scale that first accounted for the multidimensional nature of the external locus of control.

Levenson's work had received praise, including from Ward (1994), who identifies the instrument as having adequate internal consistency. Lindbloom and Faw (1982) offer additional support for multidimensional locus of control in their study and find the instrument to be reliable.

Additional scales have been developed in order to provide further perspective into locus of control. Lefcourt, Martin, Fick, and Saleh (1985) explain that the Multidimensional-Multiattributonal Causality Scale is an effort to show connections among locus of control, social sensitivity, and social skill. Evidence has been found to support their hypothesis that those with more effective social skills would be more likely to see relationships as under their own control. This research provides additional perspective on locus of control pertaining to social relationships, rather than the

achievement orientation limitation that they attribute to Rotter's scale. Results from Witt (1988) show that locus of control for affiliation might indeed play an important role in explaining outcomes for participants.

Duttweiler's Internal Control Index (ICI)

Duttweiler (1984) also recognized weaknesses of the Rotter I-E scale and developed a new scale in order to address criticisms of not only Rotter's scale, but many of the other locus of control instruments in use. She argues that the forced-choice design of Rotter's instrument leads to some unfortunate side effects. These include evidence that shows that less educated individuals have a more difficult time understanding the instrument and that it forces a choice between two items that are not necessarily exact opposites. In addition, Duttweiler speaks to concerns about the unintended multidimensional nature of the Rotter scale, which is difficult to control.

Instead, Duttweiler (1984) introduces the ICI in order to measure the more sensitive subtleties of internal locus of control. Through study testing, she identifies five key areas of internal locus of control: (a) cognitive processing, (b) autonomy, (c) resistance to change, (d) delay of gratification, and (e) self-confidence. Duttweiler concludes that this instrument might be a more reliable measure of internal locus of control, but also cautions her audience that additional validation is still needed. Furnham and Steele (1993) report that the ICI is the locus of control measure with the strongest reliability and validity, considering the weaknesses inherent in all existing instruments.

Brewin and Shapiro (1984) have also contributed to the literature by factoring in the attribution of responsibility for positive and negative outcomes into locus of control. They argue in their research that Rotter's instrument is mainly focused on the control of

positive outcomes for an individual and offer the additional ability to measure negative outcomes. They agree with Lefcourt et al. (1985) that Rotter's instrument is a better measure of goal-oriented or achievement-oriented behavior than negative or undesirable outcomes that an individual would want to avoid.

The University Environment and Locus of Control

Locus of control is a relevant construct for use in researching faculty. Palmer's (1998) introduction to *The Courage to Teach* aptly conveys the inner struggles faculty members face related to locus of control. He writes:

I am a teacher at heart, and there are moments in the classroom when I can hardly hold the joy. When my students and I discover un-charted territory to explore, when the pathway out of a thicket opens up before us, when our experience is illuminated by the lightning-life of the mind—then teaching is the finest work I know.

But at other moments, the classroom is so lifeless or painful or confused—and I am so powerless to do anything about it—that my claim to be a teacher seems a transparent sham. Then the enemy is everywhere: in those students from some alien planet, in that subject I thought I knew, and in the personal pathology that keeps me earning my living this way. What a fool I was to imagine that I had mastered this occult art—harder to divine than tea leaves and impossible for mortals to do even passably well. (p. 1)

This paradox of responsibility bears out in the research on faculty and locus of control. Regardless of which perspective a faculty member holds (internal or external), advantages and disadvantages abound. Among faculty, an external locus of control

orientation has been shown to be highly correlated with lower levels of job satisfaction (Leung et al., 2000). Internals are more likely to have demonstrated higher levels of achievement in their academic endeavors (Millar & Irving, 1995; Weiner, 1979). Finally, externals are also more likely to have an intention to leave their organization's employ (Siu & Cooper, 1998).

Locus of Control Studies

A significant number of studies have been conducted using the instruments detailed above and relating them to a number of human situations and conditions. In particular, locus of control has been used to help us understand our health and well-being, our beliefs, and our effectiveness in both the work and higher education environments. Few work-specific instruments have been developed and most researchers interested in organizations have opted to use general locus of control scales to conduct their studies (Dubois, 1997; Furnham & Steele, 1993). Reviews of selected studies below begin to capture the versatility of the locus of control instruments.

Health and Well-Being Studies

Studies such as the research done by Williams and Stout (1985) tend to support traditional views of internal versus external locus of control. In this study, the researchers examine direct service workers in mental health settings. By using both Rotter's I-E instrument and the Rathus Assertiveness Schedule, they were able to find a strong correlation between high assertiveness and internal locus of control. This result is generally expected, since individuals with a higher internal locus of control are generally more likely to believe that their actions (such as assertiveness) will result in measurable outcomes. Indeed, the individuals involved in the study were further found to experience

far fewer health problems than others who did not show such a high internal locus of control.

However, many examples exist to show that the traditionally expected results are not always the case when considering locus of control. The relationship between locus of control and an individual's mental health has been explored extensively in the literature. Aiken and Baucom (1982) conducted one of these studies in order to explore the relationship between depression and locus of control. The researchers theorized that mood had a far greater correlation with depression than the remainder of Rotter's I-E instrument for locus of control. They used Rotter's I-E instrument with a population of university students and found that depression tended to correlate higher with students who also scored higher on external locus of control. Interestingly, their other hypothesis was also supported: When the mood items were removed from Rotter's instrument, the correlation between depression and external locus of control was no longer statistically significant. As a result, the authors caution researchers to avoid assuming a direct relationship between locus of control and depression, based on their findings and the findings of earlier studies.

Guastello and Guastello (1986) explore a hypothesized relationship between locus of control and involvement in automobile accidents. The researchers theorize that those who have a belief in their abilities to control an accident would also show consistency with an internal locus of control. To test this hypothesis, they used Rotter's I-E scale in order to examine the relationship and surveyed college students, who statistically are likely to be involved in accidents. While the researchers did find that accidents could be explained by an individual's belief about accident control and by the number of self-

reported near-miss accidents they had in the prior week, they did not find a statistically significant relationship to internal or external locus of control, suggesting that other factors should be examined for correlations to accidents.

Mills (1991a) also attempts to correlate Rotter's I-E scale with health issues. In his 1991 study, he examines the past results in the literature, which tended to show that an obese individual would be more closely aligned with an external locus of control. He surveys a group of obese women in a weight reduction program to find support for this hypothesis. Although his hypothesis holds with an adolescent population in the study, the adult women did not tend to correlate with an internal locus of control. Surprisingly, the exact opposite was true. The adult women in the study tended to show a slightly stronger internal locus of control. Mills suggests that this result might be a result of a selection of the study population, since women who are actively taking action to reduce their weight (the population of the study) would be more likely to believe that those actions would result in positive outcomes. Nevertheless, the author believes that a further examination of locus of control in obese individuals is necessary to understand fully all of the critical factors.

In his related study, Mills (1991b) also records similar results when looking at locus of control in relation to obesity and alcoholism in men. While he finds that alcoholic men tend to report an external locus of control on the Rotter instrument, he also finds that obese men tend to report an internal locus of control. Mills suggests that obesity programs might even consider developing methodology in order to support the internal locus of control finding.

Higher Education Studies

Locus of control studies have also been done in school settings with results that support the importance of the locus of control factor. Otten (1977) studied graduate students in order to understand the relation between locus of control and their long-term likelihood of completing a bachelor's or doctoral degree. He found a strong relationship between internal locus of control and the achievement of a degree, especially at the doctoral level. In addition, Otten found that graduate students were also more likely to withdraw from their degree program after 5 years if they had not yet experienced success. He theorizes that this might be because those with an internal locus of control mentality get a degree sooner or leave, while externally influenced students might more easily be influenced by those around them to complete a program.

Soh (1986) shows evidence of the locus of control factor in instruction by demonstrating that instructors who have a higher score on external locus of control also tend to show higher levels of stress. Grimes, Millea, and Woodruff (2004) also show the importance of the student's locus of control in relation to the instructor. Their study finds that students with a high internal locus of control tend to provide higher instructor evaluations than students with an external locus of control. Both studies support the importance of considering locus of control in higher education.

However, Ramanaiah and Adams (1981) remind us in their work that many other factors besides locus of control must be considered when explaining results from those with either internal or external loci of control. In their study, they showed that several hundred undergraduate students had correlations between their expected grade and their course and instructor evaluation. However, they did not find any significance to these

results and their Rotter I-E scores, which were gathered earlier in the semester. The authors mention that this supports prior research, which shows that when other significant factors present might explain results, internal and external loci of control do not tend to play as important a role. However, when other factors are not present, the locus of control tends to play a larger role.

Belief Studies

The distinction between the Rotter and Levenson I-E instruments is apparent in studies such as Sosis, Strickland, and Haley's (1980) work on astrology. The researchers predicted that those with a stronger belief in chance would also likely have a stronger belief in astrology. This turned out to be the case, and was at least partially explained by Levenson's multidimensional scale. Although no distinctions were found in Rotter's I-E instrument results, Levenson's measure of chance did show a higher score for those who were believers in astrology and had knowledge of astrology.

Chebat and Filiatrault (1984) also show a distinction between internal and external loci of control when considering beliefs in political and economic conditions. They used Rotter's I-E scale in order to measure locus of control and then compared the results to an instrument that measured political affiliation. When these two were compared, those with an internal locus of control were shown to accept social and political changes more easily, while those with an external locus of control were more likely to be affected by the external economic conditions.

Job Satisfaction

Argyle stresses that, "Work is satisfying and enjoyed by most people, partly because it leads to rewards and other goal attainment, but also because of intrinsic

satisfaction from doing the work and social satisfaction from relations and work matters” (2001, p. 3). This section begins by defining key job satisfaction terms not defined in the earlier chapters. Next, the literature on what contributes to or detracts from job satisfaction will be discussed. The measurement tools used to assess job satisfaction, as well as the studies that have been conducted on work satisfaction, will be reviewed. Finally, the relationships between job satisfaction and other variables explored in the literature will be explored.

Key Job Satisfaction Terms

Definitions for terms discussed throughout this dissertation were provided in Chapter One. This section explores key terms that are specific to any study of job satisfaction, specifically. These terms are critical in understanding the broad nature of job satisfaction as a variable to examine.

Job Satisfaction

As Fisher describes, “Job satisfaction is a fairly stable evaluative judgment about how well one’s job compares to needs, wants, or expectations” (2003, p. 760). The definition of job satisfaction, according to researchers, typically includes an evaluation of the job in a holistic sense, as well as facets such as the type of work, the compensation, opportunities for advancement, the individual’s manager, and colleagues. Finally, job satisfaction is typically a constant and stable evaluation of these factors, as opposed to being a perception that could change from day to day.

Various implicit and explicit definitions of job satisfaction have been presented to date. Brayfield and Crockett (1955) do not provide a definition. Instead, in their review of the literature of the time, they “found it necessary to assume that the measuring

operations define the variable involved” (p. 397). Job satisfaction, in general, may be understood as the general feelings one has toward his or her job, whether negative or positive (Robbins, 2005). Nelson and Quick (2003) echo this definition with a focus on an emotional assessment of one’s job being the way in which job satisfaction is determined.

Locke (1976) has done extensive research in the area of job satisfaction and stresses that it is an emotional reaction, despite the widely held belief that job satisfaction is an attitude. In Locke’s research, he indicates that job satisfaction “results from the perception that one’s job fulfills or allows the fulfillment of one’s important job values, providing and to the degree that those values are congruent with one’s needs” (p. 1307). The focus in this research will be on the attitudinal aspects of this work-related construct, since the primary researchers who are proponents of the emotion-oriented definition of job satisfaction have yet to agree on the specific emotions involved with both job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction (Pinder, 2008).

Morale

The term morale is often substituted for the phrase job satisfaction, but they are two different concepts. Morale tends to be associated with the attitudes of an entire department or organization (Pinder, 2008), while job satisfaction usually refers to an individual’s attitudes or emotions.

Happiness

Argyle (2001) defines happiness as “being in a state of joy or other positive emotion, or...being satisfied with one’s life” (p. 1). Many researchers are examining the role that happiness plays in a worker’s productivity and performance. This illusive term

suffers from conflicting definitions and obscurity (Hosie, Sevastos, & Cooper, 2006). Happiness is viewed by some thinkers as an emotion, by others as a mental assessment of satisfaction, and by still others as a combination of both of these variables (Argyle, 2001; Argyle & Martin, 1990).

Contributors to Job Satisfaction or Dissatisfaction

In this section, the prominent theories on contributors and detractors of job satisfaction are discussed. Employers have been on a quest to determine the cause of job satisfaction since the father of management, Fredrick Taylor, first proposed that people were not machines. Employees often believe that if they were paid more, they would be more satisfied, but the research has negated this perception. However, the level of challenge in one's work does play a crucial role in satisfaction. According to Robbins (2005), other factors that relate to an employee's job satisfaction include (a) the friendliness of other employees, (b) a sense of fairness for pay and promotional opportunities, and (c) safety in their work environment. Some researchers have also asserted that job satisfaction is more a result of an individual's personality traits than it is to work conditions (Arvey, Bouchard, Segal, & Abraham, 1989; Dormann & Zapf, 2001; Staw, Bell, & Clausen, 1986; Staw & Ross, 1985; Watson & Slack, 1993).

Research has shown that both intrinsic and extrinsic factors are correlated with job satisfaction, but that how much a person values these variables is also important in any exploration of job satisfaction (Huang & Van de Vliert, 2003). Maslow's (1954) lower-order needs are shown to be less important in rich countries than they are in poor countries, since presumably the more wealthy are able to satiate their most basic needs and do not, therefore, value them as highly (Veenhoven & Ehrhardt, 1995). An

illustration of these differences was found by Adigun and Stephenson (1992). They discovered that employees in Britain were more motivated by accomplishment, the jobs they performed, and receiving recognition, while workers in Nigeria found motivation in their compensation, benefits, and existing work conditions. Hofstede (1991) explained that not only do the more well off find greater motivation in satisfying their higher-order needs because of their degree of wealth, but also because this characteristic is culturally inherited. He observes that cultures with an emphasis on individualism tend to possess people who value self-reliance, personal responsibility, and individual interests. In collectivist cultures, a higher value is placed on economic and social security than on having control over one's work or social affiliation.

Job and Work Design

The nature of work and how it is designed is often explored as a potential determinant of job satisfaction (Parker & Wall, 1998). Early thought as to how to achieve the highest levels of productivity involved breaking work down into its simplest tasks (Smith, 1776). The concerns at that time were less about human satisfaction and more related to maximizing manufacturing efficiency (Parker & Wall). Smith's division of labor was reinforced and extended throughout the industrial revolution and became what is known as job simplification.

Other factors were explored to see what had an impact on worker productivity during the industrial age. Professor Mayo (1949) at Harvard Business School designed a study to examine the effects of different lighting conditions on worker productivity at a company called the Hawthorne Works. As various lighting conditions were created, productivity was found to increase. It was later discovered that it was not the

environmental factors that made the difference, but rather what Landsberger (1958) described as “The Hawthorne effect” or the short-term increase in worker productivity caused by having someone observe their work and pay attention to them.

Two-factor theory. Herzberg et al. (1959) believed that people’s perception of their work was a result of two variables: motivation factors and hygiene factors. He distinguished between those characteristics that contributed to job satisfaction and those that kept an individual from being dissatisfied. Herzberg et al. describe their study findings by writing:

The one dramatic finding that emerged was that there was a difference in the primacy of factors, depending upon whether the investigator was looking for things the worker liked about his job, or things he disliked. The concept that there were some factors that were “satisfiers” and others that were “dissatisfiers” was suggested by this finding. (p. 7)

Hygiene factors were must-have components of any job in order for the individual not to be dissatisfied with his or her work. These important variables include job security, safety, compensation and benefits, and one’s supervisor. Motivation factors were those elements of a job that contributed to one’s satisfaction. Herzberg et al. asserted that with higher levels of recognition, promotion, accomplishment, and opportunities for growth, came greater levels of job satisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1959).

The thinking on how job design contributes to motivation and satisfaction has evolved beyond Herzberg’s theories. He has been criticized by researchers for issues related to bias and causality. Parker and Wall (1998) describe their concerns this way, “In retrospect, the validity of Herzberg’s theory is questionable, and it is clear that something

of a theoretical mountain was built out of a methodological molehill” (p. 10).

Job characteristics model. Hackman and Oldham (1976) developed a way of gauging the extent to which key characteristics within a job (such as skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback) had an impact on a person’s psychological states (such as experienced meaningfulness, experienced responsibility for outcomes, and knowledge of results). Influencing these states then is said by Hackman and Oldham to contribute to a person’s job satisfaction.

In contrast to Adam Smith’s recommendation to simplify tasks, new thinking suggested to enrich jobs (Parker & Wall, 1998). Part of making a job more fulfilling under job enrichment involves changing the decision-making processes in an organization to allow for employees who are lower in the organization (and therefore have a greater ability to predict the outcome) to have a say in what happens. A second component of job enrichment is to design the work so that it is more challenging and requires greater skill, thereby enhancing the person’s interest in his or her work. Parker and Wall combined the recommendations of some of the greatest thinkers on job enrichment to come up with the following criteria to use when redesigning a job for increased enrichment:

- Arrange work in a way that allows the individual employee to influence his or her own working situation, work methods, and pace. Devise methods to eliminate or minimize pacing.
- Where possible, combine interdependent tasks into a job.
- Aim to group tasks into a meaningful job that allows for an overview and understanding of the work process as a whole. Employees should be able to

perceive the end product or service as contributing to some part of the organization's objectives.

- Provide a sufficient variety of tasks within the job, and include tasks that offer some degree of employee responsibility and make use of the skills and knowledge valued by the individuals.
- Arrange work in a way that makes it possible for the individual employee to satisfy time claims from roles and obligations outside work (e.g., family commitments).
- Provide opportunities for an employee to achieve outcomes that he or she perceives as desirable (e.g., personal advancement in the form of increased salary, scope for development of expertise, improved status within a work group, and a more challenging job).
- Ensure that the employees get feedback on their performance, ideally from the task as well as from the supervisor. Provide internal and external customer feedback directly to employees.
- Provide employees with the information they need to make decisions. (p. 20)

“Faculty members enjoy their work, and if they were to choose their profession over they would do it again” (Rosser, 2004, p. 306). The ability to facilitate learning and to engage with students in the role of professor is demonstrated to make a significant difference in a faculty member's desire to remain with an institution of higher learning. However, the ethnicity, race, gender, and rank of the given faculty member will impact how job design will impact his or her intention to leave. The factor that was shown by Castillo's and Cano's (2004) research to motivate faculty was “the work itself” (p. ??).

Pay

Most people assume that they would be more satisfied in their jobs, if only they had a higher level of compensation. The research does not support this belief. Argyle (2001) reports, “The overall correlation between pay and job satisfaction is low, typically .15 to .17, so pay is not an important cause of job satisfaction” (p. 91). Overall happiness and a sense of meaning in life are shown to be far more important in one’s quality of life than money (King & Napa, 1998; Skevington, MacArthur, & Somerset, 1997).

Pay does impact individuals’ satisfaction level when comparing themselves to others in the organization. Lawler and Porter (1963) found that managers who made greater than \$12,000 had higher levels of job satisfaction than presidents who made less than \$49,000. A person’s expectation of what the appropriate level of pay is when compared to others is a much greater contributor to satisfaction than the actual compensation. One study of more than 10,000 workers showed that when controlling for other variables, the person’s income level did not affect his or her satisfaction, but the highest levels of satisfaction was displayed in those with the lowest pay expectations ($r = -.26$; Clark & Oswald, 1996). Another of Clark’s (1996) studies demonstrated the link between spouses’ compensation levels and job satisfaction. Lower levels of satisfaction were found in spouses who received less pay than their partner.

Degree of Challenge and the Individual’s Ability

People like situations that offer (a) variety in the work, (b) feedback, and (c) solid opportunities to apply their knowledge and skills. Jobs providing these items without too much challenge should help bolster job satisfaction (Ganzach, 1998; Robbins, 2005). This relates to the difficulty in balancing a future vision with current reality. Senge

(1990) describes the healthy tension that exists between where an individual is in comparison to the desired future reality. This gap can propel a person forward toward greater levels of effort, though taken to the extreme, the commitment to pursue the end goal can plummet.

If the job is too difficult or challenging for the employee, job satisfaction can be negatively impacted. Conversely, if the job is too easy, the same can occur. The challenge for the employer is to balance the challenge of the job to the skills and abilities of the individual employee. See Figure 1 for a graphic illustration of the relationship between motivation and one's probability of success (Livingstone, 2000).

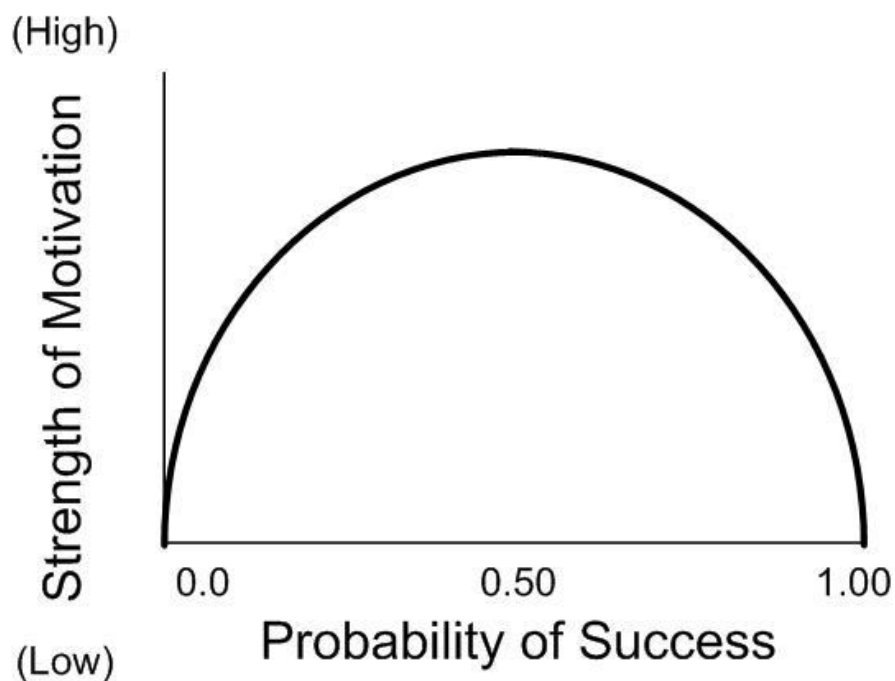


Figure 1. Graphic illustration of the relationship between motivation and probability of success

Adapted from "Pygmalion in Management," Livingston (2000).

The opportunity to use existing skills has been shown to be critical in a person's fulfillment at work (Ganzach, 1998; Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Herzberg et al., 1959;

Lawler & Hall, 1970). Another related variable is the intelligence factor. When people with high levels of intelligence are assigned to jobs with little variety, their satisfaction levels plummet (Ganzach; Hackman & Oldham, 1980). “People desire environments that fit their characteristics...in particular their intellectual characteristics” (Ganzach, p. 527). There is a positive correlation between intelligence and job satisfaction, but not in the cases in which the complexity of the job is held constant. If a job is not challenging, a person with higher intelligence levels is more likely to experience the associated dissatisfaction stronger than a less intelligent person.

Variations in Individual Motives

Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson (1996) see job satisfaction related to employee motivation because “people want their work to matter and their work relationships to be positive experiences” (p. 170). They view motives as the reasons for behaviors seen in employees. Motives are varied, and those discussed by Hersey et al. include (a) physiological, (b) safety, (c) social, (d) esteem (both prestige and power), (e) self-actualization (both competence and achievement), and (f) money. This appears to agree with the suggestion by Brayfield and Crockett (1955) that individual motivations differ and these differences can be overlooked when making generalizations.

The Carryover Effect of Overall Life Satisfaction

Perhaps an obvious contributor to job satisfaction is one’s overall satisfaction in life. Watson and Slack (1993) conducted research on temperament as it relates to job satisfaction and found that people’s work fulfillment “can be usefully viewed in the context of the more general emotional lives of employees” (p. 181). Their findings showed that some individuals will always be more satisfied by their work, regardless of

specific variables such as the work environment, pay, or their job duties. In these cases, the person's disposition is more strongly correlated to their satisfaction than the environmental factors. The studies on the "dispositional basis of job satisfaction" (p. 182) can be divided into two broad categories: personality traits and individual characteristics.

Personality traits. Researchers have explored job satisfaction as a personality trait (Dormann & Zapf, 2001). For a trait to be established, it must be consistent throughout extended periods of time and also must be present in different contexts and environments. Schneider and Dachler (1978) found job satisfaction as a trait to be steady for a 16-month duration. Stability in job satisfaction was demonstrated during 3- and 5-year periods by Staw and Ross (1985), who also found satisfaction levels to remain consistent as people made the transition to different employers and occupations.

Evidence related to a trait-based job satisfaction claim has been provided through the studies done on monozygotic twins. A genetic component has been researched in identical twins who were raised in different environments. Approximately 31% of differences in satisfaction levels among the twins studied were shown to be attributable to genetic characteristics (Arvy et al., 1989).

The question of whether job satisfaction is primarily derived from personality traits has been heavily debated in the literature (Arvy et al., 1989; Staw et al., 1986; Staw & Ross, 1985; Watson & Slack, 1993). The need to measure job satisfaction becomes questionable, if it is derived from a person's temperament (Dormann & Zapf, 2001). Additionally, employers might make less of an effort to modify working conditions to improve morale, but would be more likely to focus on giving personality assessments to potential employees, in order to acquire talent that would be prone to possessing traits

that would keep them satisfied in the long-term.

Dispositional qualities. Gerhart (1987) has criticized the trait-based explanation of job satisfaction because this line of reasoning does not explain the underlying foundations of individual differences. Researchers have avoided the concerns over individual differences by exploring individual emotional and dispositional characteristics that may construct the trait-like variables. Dispositions should remain consistent at a minimum of throughout short periods of time in order to be distinguished from a mood (Dormann & Zapf, 2001). Watson and Slack (1993) assert:

Currently, the most promising candidates for explaining this stability and consistency in job satisfaction are general individual differences in emotionality. These affective dispositions predispose individuals not only to be satisfied with their jobs, but also to enjoy many other aspects of their lives as well. (p. 183)

A pattern in the research has emerged. When controlling for variables such as demographics and job design, there are people who will be more likely to be satisfied with their jobs, regardless of where they work or what they do (Schmitt & Pulakos, 1985). Staw and Ross (1985) and Arvy et al. (1989) reported that the effect of a person's disposition in general throughout extended periods of time can impact up to as high as 30% of his or her overall job satisfaction. More direct measures in shorter-term studies found that 10% to 20% of the variance could be explained by affectivity (Dormann & Zapf, 2001).

Staw et al. (1986) developed the Affective Dispositional scale that contained descriptor words indicative of both positive and negative mood. They administered the instrument with subjects in their adolescence and found that the results were able to

predict job satisfaction almost 50 years after the initial assessment. Their findings were consistent even after controlling for variables such as job differences and environmental factors.

The emphasis in the literature has been on positive and negative affectivity (Dormann & Zapf, 2001) in exploring the possible connections between general emotional states and job satisfaction. Positive affectivity is defined by theorists as a dimension that makes it more likely that an individual will experience positive feelings. Negative affectivity is “interpreted as a general dimension which increases the likelihood to experience negative emotions” (p. 484).

More of the attention has been paid in studies to negative affectivity, sometimes compared to neuroticism (Munz, Huelsman, Konold, & McKinney, 1996). Researchers examined the relationship between affectivity and job satisfaction. Munz et al. reported a corrected common variance between general job satisfaction and negative affectivity of 21%, while other studies found lower evidence of the relationship with a common variance of between 8% and 14% (Levin & Stokes, 1989; Staw et al., 1986; Watson & Slack, 1993).

Many employers use personality measures in employee selection processes. Those scoring high in negative affectivity were found to be less likely to be chosen for a job promotion (Hogan, 1991). Nevertheless Dormann and Zapf (2001) still advocate that employers work to improve working conditions and, therefore, increase job satisfaction. They recommend:

In contrast to other mechanisms, the usefulness of job satisfaction for evaluation purposes is not threatened if selection due to personality dispositions applies

because job satisfaction is a reaction to working conditions. Even if individuals with certain dispositions are exposed to bad working conditions, working conditions would be improved independently of these dispositions leading to higher levels of job satisfaction. (p. 484)

There is still evidence to support both sides of the assertions: that a person's disposition is what makes the biggest difference in their overall satisfaction at work, or that the nature of the job and the work conditions are what make the biggest difference. The researchers who advocate that disposition is the largest factor in job satisfaction do not account for the possibility that while employees' satisfaction levels remained the same despite working in different jobs or companies, they might have had similar conditions in both environments and that was what kept their satisfaction levels consistent (Dormann & Zapf, 2001). These researchers found after conducting an extensive meta analysis that "stability in job satisfaction is likely to be only partly due to dispositions. Rather, it is substantially maintained by environmental characteristics that are malleable in principle but nevertheless remain consistent" (p. 497).

Perceptions of fairness. Human resource professionals are among those who assert the existence of a psychological contract between employees and employers (Boxall, Purcell, & Wright, 2007). This implied contract "implies some form of exchange, a deal in which both sides can win" (p. 132). Some aspects of the psychological contract can be explicit, such as in the case of pay-for-performance agreements. However, the less definable issues of fairness and trust are very much a part of the implied contract between individuals and the companies for which they work, whether a person perceives the existence of trust is asserted to be dependent on a

comparison of what they contribute and receive, versus what a comparable person in the organization contributes and receives. When the psychological contract is said to be balanced, the individual and the organization are both keeping their promises and meeting the other's implied and explicit expectations.

Equity theory was first proposed by Adams (1963) as a means of explaining how perceptions of fairness in the workplace related to motivation and achievement. Adams proposed that a person's inputs into his or her job will be related to the outcomes received and how they compare to coworkers with similar inputs. Inputs include such factors as hours spent at work, level of effort expended, enthusiasm toward one's job, degree of adaptability, and level of skill. Outcomes are the perceptions that the individual holds about the rewards he or she receives in exchange for the work performed (Kleiman, 2000) such as benefits and compensation, recognition and praise, and a sense of accomplishment. Under equity theory, an individual compares his or her outcome-to-input ratio to a referent other. The person being compared either performs the same job in the organization, holds a different job in the company but is still perceived as comparable, or is employed in the same job in another institution.

When discrepancies exist between a person's perceived outcome-to-input ratio and their referent other, the person desires to obtain balance and diminish the tension that is present (Adams, 1965). People attempt to reduce the inconsistencies in the following ways (Adams, 1963): (a) Reduce effort or performance (decrease input), (b) Pursue and increase in salary or reward (increase outcome), (c) Change perception of outcome-to-input ratio, (d) Influence referent other to alter his or her inputs or outcomes, (e) Select a different referent other for comparison, or (f) Use escape tactics (such as absenteeism,

tardiness, quitting, or taking extended breaks).

Measuring Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction can be measured, but there are difficulties in making the measurement. Greenberg (1994) summarizes the challenges in measuring job satisfaction in three segments. First, people usually have both a global aspect to their satisfaction with their jobs as well as specific views of satisfaction to various parts of their jobs. Second, an overall measure of job satisfaction should correlate well with a sum of the satisfaction for each facet. Third, the situation (i.e., the context and time) affects the reaction to the question of job satisfaction. Judge and Ilies (2004) echo the third difficulty, pointing out that research that measures job satisfaction at a single point in time assumes that it is a stable factor. Weiss, Nicholas, and Daus (1999) found, “Global job satisfaction judgments are a function of both episodic affective experiences and beliefs about the job” (p. 18). Ilies and Judge (2002) found that mood and job satisfaction are not independent, but that job satisfaction varies with mood.

Multifaceted Measures

Many of the instruments used to measure job satisfaction use a multifaceted approach, breaking down the various aspects of job satisfaction into discrete areas to measure in order to come up with a final job satisfaction score. This approach is based upon the idea that “an individual may hold different attitudes toward various aspects of the job” (Nelson & Quick, 2003, p. 120). Scarpello and Campbell (1983) state that the “preferred measure for assessment of overall job satisfaction is sum of facet satisfactions” (p. 578). Satisfaction may vary in such areas as pay, one’s coworkers, one’s supervisor, opportunities for promotion and the like. Some, such as Heneman and Schwab (1985),

advocate taking a single item such as pay and breaking it down even further. They propose a multidimensional tool to measure pay satisfaction. Spector (1997) stresses, “The facet approach is used to find out which parts of the job produce satisfaction or dissatisfaction” (p. 3).

Global Measures

Others argue for the validity of a global measurement of job satisfaction because some facets of job satisfaction could be missed in a multifaceted approach (Argyle, 2001; Scarpello & Campbell, 1983). Items can potentially be included in the facet approach to measuring job satisfaction that are not important to the person being questioned (Ironson, Brannick, Smith, Gibson, & Paul, 1989) thereby influencing the person’s perception of his or her level of satisfaction. Spector (1997) states, “The global approach [to measuring job satisfaction] is used when the overall or bottom line attitude is of interest” (p. 2).

Single-Item Measures

Researchers (Argyle, 2001; Scarpello & Campbell, 1983) have introduced the idea of a single-item measure of job satisfaction as a valid and reliable approach. Single-item measures of job satisfaction have been shown to correlate with more lengthy instruments as high as .67 (Wanous, Reichers, & Hudy, 1997). A simple globally oriented question, such as “All things considered, how satisfied are you with your job?” (Scarpello & Campbell, p. 578), allows the subject answering the question to consider in one instant all facets of job satisfaction. The overall feelings of employees concerning their jobs may help predict certain behaviors, such as absenteeism or leaving the job (Ironson et al., 1989). Wanous et al. found that a single-item measure of job satisfaction is acceptable when the situation or research questions indicate it may be appropriate.

There are certain situations in which a single-item measurement approach for job satisfaction is appropriate. Several situations are suggested, including (a) when a change in job satisfaction is being measured, (b) when space on a questionnaire is limited, (c) when cost is a factor, or (d) when there may be a situation in a place of employment with “poor employee relations” (Wanous et al., 1997, p. 250). Nagy (2002) supports this idea, reporting that measuring a facet of job satisfaction, namely pay, with a single question correlates well with measuring the same item using a multifaceted approach.

One of the challenges commonly associated with single-item measures of job satisfaction is response bias. By asking the question of how satisfied the individual is, the researchers are revealing the intent behind their question overtly. Argyle (2001) gives the example of the danger in response bias by describing a fictitious study on race relations. Psychologists would not ask in a study of this kind whether the subject liked Asian people. This potential fault in single-item measures has been shown to be more of a factor in cross-national studies, since the levels of satisfaction can vary so heavily in collectivist cultures in which individuals’ satisfaction is much more likely to be influenced by the people with whom they interact.

The University Environment and Job Satisfaction

Overall job satisfaction of university faculty has been extensively explored, which is especially important considering the link that has been demonstrated between the mood of faculty and its impact on students (Brown et al., 1986). Faculty burnout is especially a big issue for teaching universities. Job satisfaction for academics is seen by researchers not as dependant on how nice the school is where the professor teaches or how many hours he or she is assigned to teach, but rather “more a personality trait that transcends

the working environment” (Cohen & Brawer, 1982, p. 82). The work is shown to make the biggest difference for faculty in terms of job satisfaction, as opposed to more predictable factors such as pay and rank (Castillo & Cano, 2004). This section will describe the key factors shown to be strongly correlated with academics’ job satisfaction.

Faculty members place a strong importance level on the amount of recognition they receive, on whether they can pay their bills, and on how they perceive the organization as a whole. Leung et al. (2000) analyzed their research using a series of stepwise multiple regressions and discovered that the biggest predictors of job satisfaction are recognition, financial inadequacy, and what these researchers call *perceived organizational practices* such as the support of one’s supervisor, cultural factors, and communication with administration). Lang (2005) conveys the positive feelings related to perceived organizational factors by writing:

At the college, the benefits seemed even clearer. While the department does have its internal divisions, everyone maintains cordial public relationships with everybody else. Everyone welcomed me into the department warmly, and I felt—perhaps naively—that I could find my place there without taking sides in the more acrimonious disputes. (p. 164)

Self-knowledge is also demonstrated to be an important component in a faculty member’s job satisfaction (Blackburn & Lawrence, 1995). How professors perceive the environment in which they work has shown to be influenced by their self-assessed competence level, their personality type, and their self-efficacy (Wigfield & Braskamp, 1985). Next, the potential impact of gender on job satisfaction is explored.

The research on job satisfaction in an academic environment has shown gender as

an important variable in assessing the overall satisfaction of university employees (Owens, 2008). Women faculty members indicate a lower level of overall job satisfaction, when compared to their male colleagues (Hagedorn, 1996; Tack & Patitu, 1992). This is not surprising when considering that compensation is found to be lower for female faculty, even when controlling for productivity and length of service (Black & Holden, 1998). When controlling for salary differences, Owens found no significant differences between men and women faculty members in job satisfaction. Hagedorn even asserts a causal model of job dissatisfaction resulting from perceived gender-based discriminatory compensation practices.

Tenure status and rank are other important factors in analyzing faculty job satisfaction. Untenured faculty are less satisfied with their jobs than are tenured faculty (Kelly, 1989; Leung et al., 2000; Tack & Patitu, 1992; Thorsen, 1996). It has also been found that untenured faculty members are more likely to report higher levels of stress, greater challenges balancing their professional and personal lives, and more uncertainty regarding their careers (Tack & Patitu). Higher ranking faculty members are more likely to indicate higher levels of satisfaction than their lower ranking colleagues (Kelly, Leung et al.; Thorsen).

Age has also been shown to be a factor in teacher burnout. More so than the work environment, Cohen and Brawer (1977) found that the stage of human development faculty members were in was a greater predictor of their job satisfaction. They surveyed 1,998 college professors from 2-year colleges and discovered that the older the teacher, the more likely he or she was to have a high level of fulfillment. Those in their 20s and 30s had lower degrees of job satisfaction and many took a dip in fulfillment during times

of middle-age transition. Faculty older than the age of 55 were the most satisfied of all.

Job Satisfaction Studies

Determining what contributes to an individual's level of satisfaction at work and the effects of that variable is complex. According to Pinder (2008), the 1980s brought some level of frustration to those researchers attempting to prove a strong correlation between job satisfaction and performance. The results were mixed and interest in studying the phenomena wavered. In the 1990s, a renewed focus on studying job satisfaction and job attitudes began, with the introduction of nonperformance variables such as withdrawal behaviors (absenteeism, turnover, and tardiness).

Relationship to Productivity and Performance

The prevailing assumption since the start of the human relations movement has been that those who are more satisfied with their jobs will be more productive than those who are dissatisfied (Judge et al., 2001). While leaders' intuition may shape their belief about the link between job satisfaction and productivity, there is only a slight statistical correlation between these two factors (Fisher, 2003). It is not as simple as cause and effect and the research reveals a myriad of complicating factors.

As Pinder (2008) reported, "It is seldom the case that attitudes lead to specific behaviors in a predictable fashion. Sometimes, high levels of satisfaction are associated with high levels of productivity; other times, the opposite is the case" (p. 284). A person with low levels of job satisfaction may be determined to work hard to get that next pay raise. Conversely, an individual with high satisfaction at work may feel they have earned the right from hard work in the past to relax a bit and rest on their laurels.

It is impractical to attempt to find a causal relationship between a person's general

attitudes (such as his or her current level of job satisfaction) and his or her actions (such as being productive at work). What can be explored, according to Fisher (2003), is how a person's specific attitude toward a given act might influence his or her behavior. Until the researcher targets the individual's attitude toward investing time and effort into one's job (job performance), the connections related to job performance cannot be made.

Weick (1969) purports that job satisfaction and productivity can be linked only when the individual in question believes that being more productive will eradicate what he calls "equivocality" (p. 99). Pinder (2008) explains that equivocality is when "disorder, ambiguity, multiple meanings and a touch of chaos" (p. 285) exist. Human beings naturally attempt to reduce levels of uncertainty whenever possible and Weick (2001) declares that if people believe they can lower ambiguity and chaos by being more productive, then their newfound efforts will result in increasing their satisfaction.

It has been asserted that despite the lack of a causal relationship between job satisfaction and individual performance, a circular relationship exists between these two factors, that each is contributing to the other (Judge et al., 2001). How a person perceives himself or herself, the overall level of positive mood, the degree to which the individual is autonomous, and what norms exist in the organization have all been shown as mediating factors in the link between fulfillment and productivity.

Methods for Exploring the Potential Relationship Between Job Satisfaction and Performance

According to Pinder (2008), the most thorough, current, and research-based review of the research conducted on the relationship between job satisfaction and performance to date was completed by Judge et al. (2001). These researchers report an

abundance of qualitative and quantitative studies on a potential linkage between employees' satisfaction with their job and their effectiveness. However, Judge and his fellow authors state that the methodology of the studies deserves greater inspection. They outline six overall ways in which the potential relationship between job satisfaction and performance are examined in the literature (see Figure 2).

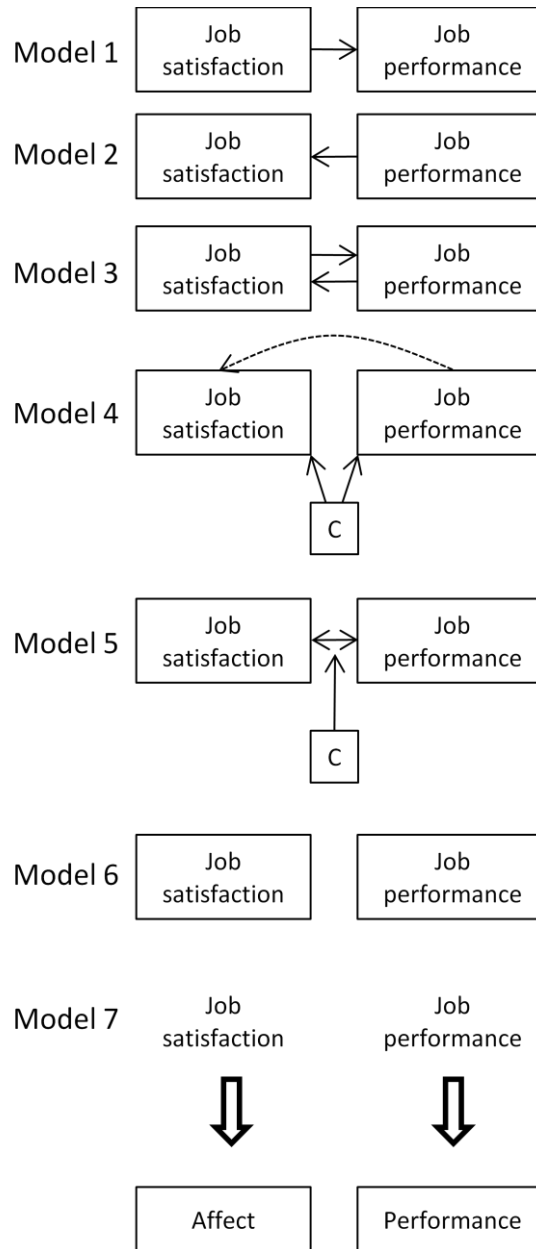


Figure 2 The relationship between job satisfaction and job performance relationship models

Source: Judge, T. A., Thoresen, C. J., Bono, J. E., & Patton, G. K. (2001). The job satisfaction-job performance relationship: A qualitative and quantitative review. *Psychological Bulletin*, 127(3), 376–407.

Job satisfaction causes job performance. Model 1 includes explorations involving instances in which job satisfaction is proposed to have a causal effect on job performance. Only two studies were found by Judge et al. (2001) that explored this specific theory, though many experts make the assertion of the linkage. This research found a “job satisfaction → job performance path coefficient of .12 (*ns*) in a relatively saturated model involving these attitudes; a simpler model provided a much stronger (.29) but still non-significant coefficient" (p. 378).

Job performance causes job satisfaction. Conversely, model 2 reports studies in which job performance is seen as impacting one’s job satisfaction. The performance → satisfaction approach to describing the relationship relates to the attainment of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. The results of the 10 studies examined by Judge et al. (2001) are inconclusive and other possible constructs that could have been shown to influence satisfaction such as effort were not adequately explored. The authors also indicate that since 8 of the 10 studies that were conducted on the performance → satisfaction link were published in marketing journals, it is difficult to assess how specific the results might be to that profession.

Job satisfaction and job performance have a reciprocal relationship. Next, job satisfaction and job performance are said to be reciprocally related in model 3’s research. The five studies reviewed by Judge et al. (2001) had inconsistent results, though the authors report that Wanous (1974) had the most credible results. In Wanous’ research, the extent of the relationship was dependent on which type of satisfaction was being

examined. Judge et al. reported that Wanous “found support for a reciprocal relationship, but it depended on the type of satisfaction—for extrinsic satisfaction, satisfaction → performance, whereas for intrinsic satisfaction, performance → satisfaction” (p. 379).

Self esteem causes job satisfaction and performance. Model 4 includes those studies that include a third factor as having an impact on job satisfaction and job performance. Self-esteem is reported by several of the researchers as the determining factor in the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. The intent of the studies in question was not to examine the potential of a spurious relationship between these two variables, and other variables were not sufficiently explored by the researchers to make the case clear for Judge et al. (2001).

Pay or other moderators effect job satisfaction and performance. Most of the studies dissected by Judge et al. (2001) included a moderator variable that is hypothesized to effect job satisfaction and performance. When individuals’ performance will have an effect on their compensation, the eventual higher pay will increase job satisfaction and the potential for the extrinsic reward will increase job performance. The research described in model 5 is questioned since other studies clearly indicate that people find pay to be less of a motivator than intrinsic rewards. Also, that the studies did not include the potential of a person’s job performance being a means for increasing overall satisfaction made the findings less compelling. Other potential moderating variables tested in the research frequently were self-image and self-esteem. Because of the lack of consistency in the moderator variables being studied, no resolution has been made about the potential effects of another variable besides job satisfaction and performance.

Explorations of job satisfaction and performance as separate variables. As is often emphasized, correlation does not equal causation. In model 6, these studies do not explore the potential effect of one variable on the other, even though a correlation between job satisfaction and performance is shown to exist. Judge et al. (2001) give the example of Greenberger, Strasser, Cummings, and Dunham (1989), who “investigated the causal relationship between personal control and job satisfaction, and between personal control and job performance, but did not investigate the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance” (p. 378). Some of the other researchers found such examination of causation to be beyond the scope of their research or the authors did not believe that such a job satisfaction-job performance relationship existed.

Emotions and attitudes and job satisfaction. Similar to model six, Judge et al. (2001) assert with model 7 that these researchers find that the typical ways of examining the relationship between job satisfaction and performance are flawed. Some of the authors’ work described by model 7 expands the focus to be on emotions and attitudes, versus solely on job satisfaction. On the contrary, other researchers asserted that the concept of job performance should be expanded to include citizenship behaviors such as initiating additional work, providing assistance to others, and demonstrating support for the organization’s goals.

Participation’s Effect

Yet another factor to consider in the job satisfaction-productivity exploration is participation. Miller and Monge (1986) conducted a meta-analytic review of the literature on how participation in decision making can impact productivity and work fulfillment. They examined three explanations for the connection between job satisfaction and

employee production: cognitive, affective, and contingency models. Support was lacking for contingency models, though some correlation between cognitive models and job satisfaction and performance were established. The strongest connection was found between affective models and participation.

Contingency models. The contingency models assert that different decision-making approaches will be needed in organizations in different circumstances. While some decisions require a participatory style of inquiry, other decisions will be best made by the managers at the top of the organization's hierarchy. The need for the decision to be accepted, the importance of having a high quality decision, as well as the complexity of the decision were professed to be factors to the extent to which a participatory style was most appropriate (Vroom & Yetton, 1973).

Cognitive models. Miller and Monge (1986) purport that "cognitive models of participation propose that participation leads to increases in productivity through bringing high-quality information to decisions and through increasing knowledge at times of implementation" (p. 732). Decisions that make use of an individual's knowledge and competence will receive more support under cognitive models and being able to tie the providing of input to a specific decision (versus just working in a participative environment) is critical in the connection between job satisfaction and productivity. Employees who are at lower organizational levels in a company are more likely to possess the information to help make more effective decisions (Anthony, 1978) and will be more instrumental in the implementation of decisions having had the opportunity to give their input (Melcher, 1976).

Affective models. The strongest correlation between participation and job

satisfaction is demonstrated in the affective models, or the person's quest to satisfy his or her higher-order needs (Miller & Monge, 1986). The focus in these models is on having an environment of participation, not the employee having input into a specific decision. As higher-order needs are satisfied, individuals are likely to be less opposed to change and have higher levels of motivation. However, there is research that shows that there are significant cultural differences in the degree to which job satisfaction will be impacted by an individual's desire to meet higher-order needs (Huang & Van de Vliert, 2003).

Relationship to Happiness

Many theorists assert that general feelings of happiness in life are brought to the workplace as well (Schmitt & Bedeian, 1982; Schmitt & Pulakos, 1985). When individuals are happy in general, they are highly likely to be happy at work, as well. Happy people also tend to be more open to change and have higher degrees of job satisfaction overall. Watson and Slack (1993) conducted a longitudinal study of faculty at a private university and found that job satisfaction and happiness stayed fairly constant among the professors, based on whether their overall affect tended to be negative or positive.

As Pinder (2008) explains:

It is not just a result of organizational policies, procedures, and job design; it is a reflection of the greater, more general degree of individual happiness or unhappiness of the person. To the extent that this is true, there is plenty of reason to study job satisfaction, aside from the relentless quest for its elusive link to productivity, performance, and other aspects of organizational effectiveness. (p. 290)

Researchers have identified three primary aspects of happiness that have been explored in the literature: the affective balance (or positive emotion), the cognitive component (or satisfaction level), and the absence of depression (or anxiety or other negative emotions; Argyle, 2001). People's happiness can be influenced by both their personality type, as well as the community in which they live and work. Happiness is partially a reflection of innate traits, but there are also methods to use that can alter a person's affect and cognitive satisfaction (Argyle).

Suh, Diener, Oishi, and Triandix (1997) studied 56,661 subjects from 43 countries and discovered a dramatic difference in the connection between these two aspects of happiness. In individualistic countries, such as Britain and the United States, the correlation between affect balance and satisfaction has been shown in the research to be .50 or higher. Countries with more of a collectivist culture have demonstrated as low of a .20 correlation between the positive emotions associated with happiness and the satisfaction variable.

Relationship to Turnover and Absenteeism

Turnover and absenteeism are costly to organizations and job satisfaction has been demonstrated to be a factor in both measures. A recent study estimated that the cost of absenteeism per year for companies exceeds \$74 billion (Nicholson, et al., 2005). Absenteeism can cause companies to overstaff and to pay excessive amounts of overtime to compensate for employees' missed work days. In a 2007 survey, 45% of companies estimated the cost of employee turnover to exceed \$10,000 per person, while 20% of the companies studied estimated a figure exceeding \$30,000 per employee (Pinder, 2008). Employees who leave an organization also take tacit knowledge with them when they

leave and the impact of this lost mental capital is difficult if not impossible to quantify. However, some less complex positions can be replaced by less expensive employees (Dalton & Todor, 1973), in terms of overall compensation, and new people can bring innovative ideas to a role and make needed changes (Aldrich, 1980).

There is a slight overall relationship demonstrated in the literature between job satisfaction/dissatisfaction and employees leaving an organization (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; Hom & Griffeth, 1995). Turnover is typically analyzed according to two factors: voluntary and involuntary turnover. While many employees will act on their dissatisfaction with a job and leave the organization, others choose to remain because they are unable to find pay as high elsewhere, or because of a fear of the unknown. Having a specific job lined up outside the organization is where the strongest causation is demonstrated between job dissatisfaction and voluntary turnover (Mitchell & Lee, 2001). Job dissatisfaction is shown to be unrelated in the cases of involuntary turnover (Pinder, 2008) and, therefore, is outside the focus of this research proposal.

Relationship of Job Satisfaction to Locus of Control

A new direction in understanding job satisfaction is under investigation, focusing on self-concordance, core self-evaluation, and job satisfaction. Self-concordance “predicts that individuals are happiest when stated goals match enduring interests and values” (Judge, Bono, Erez, & Locke, 2005, p. 258). Judge, Locke, Durham, and Kluger (1998) explain that core evaluations “refer to fundamental, subconscious conclusions individuals reach about themselves, other people and the world” (p. 18). Four core evaluations are proposed: (a) self-esteem, (b) self-efficacy, (c) locus of control, and (d) neuroticism. Self-esteem is the general way that a person evaluates himself or herself.

Self-efficacy is “one’s estimates of one’s capabilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources, and courses of action needed to exercise general control over events in one’s life” (p. 19). Locus of control is defined above. Neuroticism, simply understood, is the polar opposite of self-esteem. Judge et al. find that these core evaluations affect job satisfaction.

The labeling of these four core evaluations is refined slightly in a meta-analysis by Judge and Bono (2001). Their analysis confirmed a positive relationship between job satisfaction and: (a) self-esteem, (b) generalized self-efficacy, (c) internal locus of control, and (d) emotional stability. These findings confirm what Mitchell, Smyser, and Weed (1975) found, namely that internally focused people have higher job satisfaction than externally focused people. Leung et al. (2000) also found that external locus of control is negatively related to job satisfaction. Individuals in the research with an internal perception showed higher levels of job satisfaction overall.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODS

The research methods for the study are the focus of this chapter. This chapter is organized into four sections. First, the research questions are restated. Next, the research design is conveyed, followed by a description of the population and the sample for the study. The characteristics studied and their definitions are examined. Finally, an explanation of the data collection techniques, instruments used, and analytical techniques are presented.

Restatement of the Research Questions

This study sought to answer the following research questions:

1. To what extent, if at all, is there a relationship between faculty members' self-reported job satisfaction and their perceived locus of control?
2. To what extent, if at all, are there differences among faculty members' self-reported job satisfaction based on demographic variables?
3. What relationship, if any, exists between faculty members' self-reported job satisfaction and locus of control after controlling for demographic variables?
4. To what extent, if at all, are there differences among faculty members' self-reported locus of control based on demographic variables?

Research Design

This study was designed as a quantitative analysis based on the results of an online survey, composed of two valid and reliable instruments and the review of two pieces of demographic data. The selected research method was survey research. Full-time tenured, tenure-track, and nontenured faculty members at a small, private university were asked to participate in the research, giving their consent online.

Quantitative measures were used to analyze the data. Correlation and partial correlations were used to ascertain whether relationships between the dependent and independent variable exist, as well as how the demographic data could explain the findings.

Population, Research Subjects, and Analysis Unit

The population for this study was the current full-time faculty at a small, private university, of just under 100 individuals, a large enough pool for statistical analysis (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006). The setting for this study was a small, private university in Orange County, California. The population of interest for this proposed study was faculty at small, private universities.

A census was taken of all full-time faculty members, asking them to respond to the survey. In order to perform multiple regression as a portion of the quantitative analysis of the study, a sample size rule of thumb asserted by Green (1991) was used. Green recommends a minimum of 10 respondents per predictor variable. Given this study's six predictor variables, that means that with at least 60 responses from the faculty members, statistically significant analysis was possible. An extensive process took place to attempt to receive responses from at least 60 of the faculty members, including an e-mail campaign (since that is the primary means of communication at the university), verbal reminders at faculty meetings, and one-on-one requests to participate in the survey. The process is described in detail in the data collection section.

The delimiting variables for this research were those who work as full-time faculty. A full-time faculty member was defined for the purpose of this study to be one who carries at least two classes per semester teaching load. Individuals were also invited

to participate in the research who teach at least one class per semester, if the remaining portion of their full-time duties are fulfilled by acting in an administrative capacity (such as a chair of a department). Faculty members who are tenured, tenure track, and nontenure track were asked to participate in the research, meaning that adjunct professors who teach one or two courses but are not considered full-time were excluded from the study. The unit of analysis was an individual faculty member at a small, private university.

Characteristics Studied

The characteristics studied are locus of control and job satisfaction. As stated earlier, locus of control examines beliefs about whether individuals can have an impact on what occurs in their lives. When individuals are described as having an internal locus of control, they perceive that their actions will affect their outcomes. People who are said to have an external locus of control believe that outside forces, such as fate, chance, or powerful others, determine their outcomes (Ray, 1980).

Job satisfaction is linked to many facets of an employee's job, including but not limited to (a) variety in the work, (b) feedback, and (c) solid opportunities to apply knowledge and skills, (d) the friendliness of other employees, (e) a sense of fairness for pay and promotional opportunities, and (f) safety in the work environment (Robbins, 2005). Job satisfaction, under the global measurement approach, is a categorical variable because the answer will be given using a Likert scale.

The phrase locus of control is used to describe individuals' perceptions of the extent to which they have control over outcomes in their lives (Lefcourt et al., 1981). An independent variable, or experimental variable, is one that "cause[es] influence or

affect[s] [an] outcome” (Creswell, 2003, p. 94). Locus of control is the independent variable in this study. Table 1 lists the study's variable names and types for the factors analyzed in this research.

Table 1

Study Variable Name and Types

	Variable name	Data Element
Independent variable	Locus of control	Total score
Dependent variable	Job satisfaction	Total score
Moderator	Years teaching in higher education	Appendix A, survey item 1
Moderator	Tenure status	Appendix A, survey item 2
Demographic data	Teaching level (graduate, under-graduate, both)	Appendix A, survey item 3

Definition of Characteristics

Job satisfaction, in general, may be understood as the general feelings one has toward his or her job, whether negative or positive (Robbins, 2005; Spector, 1997). In other words, job satisfaction is the extent to which an individual is content or even pleased with his or her work. A dependent variable is “affected or predicted by the independent variable” (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006, p. 54). Job satisfaction is a dependent variable in this study. The area of interest in this research is the global perception of one’s job satisfaction and not on the individual facets (such as compensation, workplace safety, perceived fairness, etc.).

The moderators in the study are demographic in nature. Table 2 describes each variable and the associated measure. A Spearman correlation was performed to assess

what, if any, effect these moderators have on both job satisfaction and locus of control in the faculty members being studied. The demographic of teaching level was used for univariate statistical methods, in order to best describe the sample population, and was not analyzed using bivariate or multi-variate methods.

Table 2

Moderators as Applied to the Conceptual Frameworks of Job Satisfaction and Locus of Control

Years teaching in higher education	Whole number
Tenure status	Tenured, tenure track, nontenure track
Teaching level	Graduate only, undergraduate only, both

See Appendix A for the demographic-related questions to be asked of the Vanguard faculty members for this study.

Instrumentation

This section describes the two primary instruments that were used in this study. Each measurement tool is described, providing a background on how the assessment was developed. The means for scoring is provided, along with the overall reliability and validity of each instrument.

Locus of Control Instrument: Duttweiler’s ICI

A scale with reasonably good psychometric properties has been the ICI of Duttweiler (1984). In research on this scale, Duttweiler notes many problems with Rotter’s I-E Scale, including problems with its forced-choice format, its susceptibility to social desirability, and her observation that studies, which have subjected the scale to factor analysis, suggest it is not assessing an entirely homogeneous concept. Duttweiler

also notes that while other scales existed in 1984 to measure locus of control, “they appear to be subject to many of the same problems” (p. 211). Duttweiler developed the ICI to assess several variables especially pertinent to internal locus-cognitive processing, autonomy, resistance to social influence, self-confidence, and delay of gratification.

The 28-item locus of control scale created by Duttweiler (1984) is named the ICI. Its purpose is to measure an individual’s expectations regarding reinforcement and where it can be obtained. The scale was created and tested using university and continuing education students, with a total of 1,365 subjects. The instrument was constructed using pretest development, tryout testing, field testing, and administration testing. Duttweiler's ICI may be found in Appendix E.

Scoring of the ICI

Duttweiler’s locus of control instrument consists of 28-items that are each scored on a 5-point Likert scale from rarely (A) to usually (E). Duttweiler designed the instrument with half of the items crafted so that a person who answers usually is indicating a high internal orientation. Answering usually on the other half of the questions reveals a high external. Responding to the following questions as rarely results in a score of 5 points: 1, 2, 4, 6, 8, 11, 14, 17, 19, 22, 23, 24, 26, and 27. The rest of the items are scored 5 points when the response is usually. Scores on the ICI range from a low of 28 to a high of 140. The greater the score, the greater the orientation toward internal locus of control.

In developing the ICI, Duttweiler sought to combat what many researchers considered to be weaknesses in Rotter’s (1966) one-dimensional locus of control measure (Schepers, 2005). While Rotter’s I-E scale is the most widely used measure with 69% of

the United States-based research making use of his instrument (Schepers), the weakness inherent in the forced-choice format makes it not an ideal choice for this study. Baron (1996) describes how the forced-choice format in instruments leads to ipsative measurement and, therefore, means that individual's scores can be compared to one another, but that interindividual scores on an instrument may not. Being that the ICI is a multidimensional instrument, a forced-choice format does not allow for the desired statistical analysis. Baron also states that scales with less than 30 items, ipsative measurement is not ideal. Furnham and Steele (1993) suggest that while the ICI is not without its own weaknesses, it is the locus of control measure with the strongest reliability and validity.

Reliability of the ICI

An important gauge of an instrument's credibility is the measure of reliability, or the extent to which the instrument has internal consistency (Creswell, 2003). The items contained in an instrument should be related to the other items used in the scale and the test over time should produce similar results. Duttweiler (1984) conducted item analysis and factor analysis and these tests of reliability resulted in the 28-item scale. The ICI had coefficient alphas (Cronbach, 1951) of $\alpha = .84$ and $\alpha = .85$ (Duttweiler; Fischer, & Corcoran, 2007), suggesting adequate levels of internal reliability (Creswell). Schepers (2005) presents concerns over only one reliability coefficient being used by Duttweiler to demonstrate the reliability of the ICI, though also admits that "there is currently not a single locus of control scale that is not contestable" (p. 2).

Validity of the ICI

Another important component of a credible instrument is the extent to which the

assessment measures what it was designed to measure, known as validity (Creswell, 2003). Duttweiler (1984) designed the instrument to have construct validity by identifying a nomological network of concepts related to the locus of control construct. Cronbach and Meehl (1955) assert that a nomological network should be constructed that includes the theoretical framework one is attempting to assess. Duttweiler's nomological network included the following variables: Cognitive Processing, Autonomy, Resistance to Influence Attempts, Delay of Gratification, and Self-confidence (Lefcourt, 1976). Construct analysis was established by tryout testing, which resulted in 548 data sets being obtained (Duttweiler). Then, Duttweiler performed factor analysis to determine the 28 items that were selected for the field test administration and construct validation. Using factor analysis, which is used to select a small number of factors to represent the relationships between interrelated variables (Creswell), the five initial subscales were narrowed down to the two factors of Self-Confidence and Autonomy (behavior independent from social pressure; Duttweiler).

Duttweiler's instrument has also demonstrated content validity (representative of the realm of control theories; Furnham & Steele, 1993; Schepers, 2005). The ICI is shown to relate to other locus of control measures, for example it has a "low but significant correlation with the Mirels' Factor 1 of the Rotter I-E scale" (Fischer & Corcoran, 2007, p. 398). In field testing ($N = 684$), Duttweiler found small but significant differences in the mean scores based on age, gender, race, education, and socioeconomic status (Duttweiler, 1984).

Job Satisfaction: Job in General Scale

The Job in General (JIG) scale (Ironson et al., 1989) measures global job

satisfaction. The use of the JIG scale is advised when the goal is to assess overall job satisfaction, as opposed to satisfaction with individual facets (such as pay, promotional opportunities, manager effectiveness, etc.) gauged by other assessments (Fields, 2002; Ironson et al.; Spector, 1997). Facet measures that ask about various aspects of job satisfaction (such as satisfaction with the work, one's supervisor, or perceived degree of promotional opportunities) are known to omit factors that are important to individuals in considering their overall satisfaction (Balzer et al., 2000; Scarpello & Campbell, 1983;).

The instrument was developed to overcome the bias that can occur when individuals are asked about specific job facets, versus one's satisfaction with his or her job as a whole (Fields, 2002; Ironson et al., 1989; Nagy, 2002). This type of a gauge of job satisfaction helps reduce the likelihood of one of the job facets being questioned artificially bringing down the person's short-term perception of his or her overall satisfaction (Wanous, Reichers, & Hudy, 1997). For example, if a person were first asked how satisfied with his or her pay they were and then asked how satisfied the individual was overall, the topic of pay could cause the person to answer lower on overall job satisfaction versus if the inquiry initially asked only about overall job satisfaction (Nagy). A global measure of job satisfaction, such as the JIG scale, also negates the potential that facet measures have of either not including an aspect of a job that is important in an individual's overall satisfaction, or evaluating a facet of a job that is unimportant to a person (Ironson et al.; Nagy).

The JIG scale may be used independently, as is the case in this research design, or it may be used in conjunction with the job descriptive index. The 18 items included in the JIG scale were selected based on criteria that would allow for high item-total correlations.

The JIG scale may be found in Appendix F.

Scoring of the JIG Scale

The JIG is composed of 18 items, each containing a one-word description of a person's perception of his or her job in general. There are three possible responses for each item:

1. Yes: The person affirms that the item describes his or her perception of the job.
2. No: The person does not perceive that the item describes his or her feelings about the job.
3. ?: The person is undecided as to whether the word describes his or her job.

Table 3 lists the 18 items contained in the JIG scale, with (R) representing those items that are reverse-scored on this instrument.

Table 3

JIG Scale Items

1. Pleasant	10. Superior
2. Bad (R)	11. Better than most
3. Ideal	12. Disagreeable (R)
4. Waste of time (R)	13. Makes me content
5. Good	14. Inadequate (R)
6. Undesirable (R)	15. Excellent
7. Worthwhile	16. Rotten (R)
8. Worse than most (R)	17. Enjoyable
9. Acceptable	18. Poor (R)

Numerical values are assigned to the Y, N, and ? responses for the purposes of scoring. A Y answer receives 3 points, an N answer receives 0 points, while a ? receives

1 point. Items that are indicated with an (R) are reverse-scored, so the N answers are worth 3 points, Y answers are worth 0 points, while a ? answer still receives 1 point. Raw scores are then used to calculate the assessment results.

Reliability of the JIG Scale

This scale has demonstrated strong internal consistency reliability. The researchers performed item analysis on three samples ($N = 1,149, 3,566, \text{ and } 4,490$). They report α of .91 and higher for the JIG scale since the initial construction of the measure (Ironson et al., 1989). The JIG scale has demonstrated strong coefficient alphas by other researchers. These values have ranged from .82 to .94 (Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991; Long, 1993; Major, Kozlowski, Chao, & Gardner, 1995; Rowley, Rosse, & Harvey, 1992). Cronbach α (alpha) scores of .7 or higher are considered to demonstrate internal consistency reliability (Creswell, 2003).

Validity of the JIG Scale

Adequate construct validity has been established for the JIG scale (Cropanzano, James, & Konovsky, 1993; Ironson et al., 1989; Nagy, 2002; Van Saane, Sluiter, Verbeek, & Frings-Dresen, 2003). Two measures that support construct validity for scales are convergent validity (similar to other instruments measuring related constructs) and discriminant validity (different than other instruments measuring related constructs; Creswell, 2003).

Van Saane et al. (2003) discovered that the JIG scale exceeded their criteria of $>.49$ for demonstrating convergent validity. Convergent validity of .66-.80 was established with the Brayfield-Rothe Scale (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951). A convergent validity score of .76 was found with the Adjective Scale (Ironson et al., 1989).

The following are the findings that relate to job satisfaction and how it relates to other constructs. Job satisfaction, in general, has been shown to be negatively correlated with employees' intentions to leave their jobs (Cropanzano et al., 1993; Major et al., 1995). Positive correlation was found between job satisfaction in general scores and trust in management, length of time working under a particular supervisor, perception of likelihood of future promotions, and commitment to one's employer (Cropanzano et al.; Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991; Long, 1993; Major et al.; Rowley et al., 1992). Van Saane et al. (2003) analyzed 29 job satisfaction instruments, and the JIG scale was the only one they found to provide data regarding a person's "responsiveness to change" (p. 191).

Survey Variables and Scales

Table 4 indicates each instrument and the number of items for each scale. The quantitative response scale (high/low) is provided for each instrument.

Table 4

Survey Variables and Scales

Survey	Items	High	Low
Locus of Control	28	140	28
Job Satisfaction	18	54	0
Years teaching in higher education	1	N/A	N/A
Tenure status	1	N/A	N/A
Level student taught	1	N/A	N/A

Data Collection Procedures

The goals of this research were met by leveraging technology to gather the data. Since all faculty members employed by the university access the Internet as a regular part

of their duties, it was believed that online data collection would enable the majority of potential participants to complete the survey. McMillan and Schumacher (2006) emphasize, “With the right sample, there is no question that [an Internet] survey can offer a reasonable alternative to a mail or interview survey” (p. 240). The department of psychology at the University of Alberta (Varnhagen et al., 2005) conducted a study that concluded “that obtaining informed consent online is not substantially different than obtaining it via paper presentation” (p. 37).

Using the Internet survey tool Survey Monkey, the researcher created an online survey consisting of the two instruments and the demographic questions. These instruments include the 28-question Locus of Control Scale created by Duttweiler (1984) and the 18-item JIG scale (Ironson et al., 1989). The demographic questions are contained in Appendix A. Permission to use the Duttweiler's ICI is located in Appendix F. Verification of payment for the use of the JIG scale may be found in Appendix G.

Next, an e-mailed request with instructions was sent to all faculty members who met the criteria for participation as defined earlier, asking them to complete the survey and allowing 2 weeks for completion. This e-mail, contained in Appendix B, included the information that participation was voluntary and that the identity of the subjects will be kept in strict confidence. The researcher also described, in person at a faculty meeting, the rationale for the research participation being requested. These aspects of participation were articulated again when individuals clicked the link to complete the instruments. Informed consent was communicated by participants online prior to them taking the survey by clicking an I agree checkbox to verify explicit consent. An advantage to using an online survey tool is that the response rate can be easily monitored and nonparticipants

contacted again.

After 2 weeks, e-mail was sent reminding the participants of the importance of their participation, but also mentioning that their participation is voluntary and their responses kept confidential. Appendix C contains the text for this reminder e-mail. A final reminder was sent after an additional 2 weeks and additional submissions were made by study participants, enough to achieve statistical significance.

Protection of Human Subjects

The researcher obtained approval from Pepperdine's Institutional Review Board prior to commencing with the study. Study participation was completely voluntary and did not require extensive time or effort on the part of the participants. Individuals were informed of the purpose of the research as well as the associated benefits.

Individuals participating in the study were informed of the nature of the research and the information required by federal guidelines, including possible risks, possible benefits, alternatives, contact information, confidentiality assurances, and the individual's right not to participate. A copy of the informed consent communication is provided in Appendix D, including the required information.

After completing the study, the researcher copied the electronic data collected from the survey on to one flash drive and one CD-ROM (for backup purposes). The researcher will store the electronic data in a locked file cabinet for at least 5 years and has removed the survey data from both the online repository and the computer used to analyze the data. Study participants are not able to review their individual responses, but may contact the researcher to examine the study results.

Data Analysis

The research conducted was only as meaningful as the analytical techniques used to assess the results of the study. An additional advantage to using an online tool is that the data was returned electronically and was ready for analysis.

The data was exported from the online survey tool to an Excel spreadsheet and the program SPSS was used to analyze the data. Significance was set at the .05 level of confidence for all calculations. All *p*-values of .05 or less were regarded as statistically significant. Correlation and partial regression were used to analyze any relationships that exist between locus of control and job satisfaction. See Table 5 for specific information regarding which statistical tools were used to analyze each variable and moderator. Tenure status was treated as ordinal data, since those with tenure are compensated more than those without tenure.

Table 5

Data Analysis

Research question	Data elements	Statistical approach
1. To what extent, if at all, is there a relationship between faculty members' self-reported job satisfaction and their perceived locus of control?	JIG Scale score ICI 28 items	Spearman
2. To what extent, if at all, are there relationships between faculty members' self-reported job satisfaction and demographic variables?	JIG Scale score Years teaching Tenure status	Spearman
3. What relationship, if at all, exists between faculty members' self-reported job satisfaction and locus of control after controlling for demographic variables?	JIG Scale score ICI 28 items Years teaching Tenure status	Partial correlations
4. To what extent, if at all, are there relationships between faculty members' self-reported locus of control and demographic variables?	ICI 28 items Years teaching Tenure status	Spearman

Summary

The proposed research expanded the small amount of available research on the correlation between locus of control and job satisfaction. Considering the link between job attitudes and performance (Judge, 2001b), further research on the proposed topic seemed relevant and timely. Using Duttweiler's (1984) ICI in combination with the JIG scale (Ironson et al., 1989), the correlation between job attitudes and one's perception of successes and failures being attributable to internal or external causes were gauged. Universities have one more set of data to consider when seeking to achieve higher levels of motivation among faculty members.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to examine what, if any, relationship existed between faculty members' self-reported job satisfaction and their perceived locus of control (before and after controlling for demographic variables). The research also sought to explore to what extent, if any, relationships existed between faculty members' self-reported job satisfaction and demographic variables. The study also examined what differences between faculty members' self-reported locus of control existed, based on demographic characteristics. A total of 61 faculty members' participated in this survey.

This chapter conveys the results of the research study whose methods were described in Chapter Three. The demographic characteristics of survey respondents are communicated, including frequency counts for selected variables. Next, the psychometric characteristics for the summated scale scores regarding job satisfaction and locus of control are provided. Finally, correlations for the JIG Scale and the ICI Items with demographic variables are profiled.

Characteristics of Survey Respondents

Eighty faculty met the criteria as described in Chapter Three to be included in the census. These faculty members taught at least two classes per semester, or taught one class per semester with the rest of their load being absorbed by administrative duties (such as being the chair of a department). Sixty one respondents completed the survey, following three e-mail reminders and one in-person invitation at a faculty meeting..

The faculty in this study have been teaching in higher education from 3 to 43 years ($M = 14.69$, $SD = 9.23$). Of the faculty members, 34% have been teaching 3 to 9 years, 36.1% of the faculty members have been teaching 10 to 19 years, 19.7% of the

faculty members have been teaching 20 to 29 years, and 9.8% of the faculty members have been teaching 30 to 43 years. Of the responders, 28 (45.9%) were tenured, 25 were in tenure-track positions, while 8 were in nontenure track positions. The majority of the respondents (62.3%) taught undergraduate students only, while 11.5% taught solely graduate students and 26.2% taught both levels. The frequency counts for the selected demographic variables are conveyed in Table 6

Table 6

Frequency Counts for Selected Variables (N = 61)

Variable	Category	<i>n</i>	%
Years Teaching in Higher Education ¹			
	3–9	21	34.4
	10–19	22	36.1
	20–29	12	19.7
	30–43	6	9.8
Current Employment Status			
	Tenured	28	45.9
	Tenure track	25	41.0
	Nontenure track	8	13.1
Student Level Taught			
	Graduate students only	7	11.5
	Undergraduate students only	38	62.3
	Both	16	26.2

Analysis of Survey Data

This section examines the survey responses using statistical analysis. Table 7 communicates the psychometric characteristics for the two summated scale scores. The

¹ Table 6 - Years: *M* = 14.69, *SD* = 9.23.

JIG Scale had ranges of Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients of $r = .91$ while the reliability coefficient for the ICI was $r = .08$. These data suggest that the ICI scale did not have adequate levels of internal reliability (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006), due to the lack of differentiated responses among the surveyed faculty members. It was then determined that more analysis would be made possible by performing correlations on each of the 28 items of the ICI, versus using the total scores as originally proposed in the Methods Chapter.

Table 7

Psychometric Characteristics for Summated Scale Scores (N = 61)

Score	Number of items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Low	High	Alpha
JIG	18	2.53	0.59	0.17	3.00	.91
ICI	28	3.54	0.18	3.11	4.00	.08

Findings

The research questions were designed to explore any relationships that might exist between faculty member's perceived locus of control and their self-reported levels of job satisfaction. Following is a summary of each research question, along with a concise statement of what the survey results would seem to suggest based on the findings.

Research Question One

The first research question explored what relationships, if any, exist between faculty members' self-reported job satisfaction and their perceived locus of control. Because of the unreliability of the ICI total score (Table 7), no overall statistically significant relationship between faculty members' job satisfaction and locus of control was established.

To allow for analysis, the JIG satisfaction score was instead correlated with the 28 individual ICI items. Four of the correlations were statistically significant at the $p < .05$ level. Specifically, the JIG score was positively related to the reverse-scored item 2 on the ICI: I ____ need frequent encouragement from others for me to keep working at a difficult task ($r_s = .35, p < .01$). The JIG score was positively correlated with item 3 of the ICI: I ____ like jobs where I can make decisions and be responsible for my own work ($r_s = .27, p < .05$). The JIG score was also negatively correlated with the reverse-scored item 11 of the ICI: What other people think ____ has a great influence on my behavior ($r_s = -.35, p < .005$). Finally, the JIG score had a negative correlation with the reverse-scored ICI item 19: I ____ let other peoples' demands keep me from doing the things I want to do ($r_s = -.25, p < .05$). See Table 9 for the Spearman correlations for the relationship between the JIG and the ICI items.

Table 8

Spearman Correlations for the Relationship Between the Job in General Scale and Locus of Control Items (N = 61)

Variable Name	Spearman
ICI 2) I _____ need frequent encouragement from others for me to keep working at a difficult task. (Reversed)	.35**
ICI 3) I _____ like jobs where I can make decisions and be responsible for my own work.	.27*
ICI 11) What other people think _____ has a great influence on my behavior. (Reversed)	-.35***
ICI 19) I _____ let other peoples' demands keep me from doing the things I want to do. (Reversed)	-.25*

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .005$. **** $p < .001$.

(Reversed) Item was reverse-scored, because a rating of rarely was deemed to represent the highest levels of internal locus of control.

Note. This table displays only the 4 of 28 partial correlations that were statistically significant at the $p < .05$ level.

Research Question Two

The second research question examined what (if any) differences exist among faculty members' self-reported job satisfaction based on demographic variables. Table 9 conveys the finding that the JIG scale was not correlated with either the years in teaching ($r_s = .14, p < .29.$) or tenure status ($r^s = .16, p < .21.$) of the faculty in the study. Neither the years a faculty member has been teaching or their employment status are shown to explain differences in job satisfaction levels.

Table 9

*Spearman Rank-Ordered Correlations for Job Satisfaction Scale and Locus of Control**Items With Job Satisfaction Years of Teaching and Tenure Status (N = 61)*

Variable Name	JIG Scale	Years Teaching	Tenure Status ²
JIG Scale	1.00	.14	.16
ICI 1) When faced with a problem I _____ try to forget it. (Reversed)	.04	-.21	-.03
ICI 2) I _____ need frequent encouragement from others for me to keep working at a difficult task. (Reversed)	.35**	.07	-.16
ICI 3) I _____ like jobs where I can make decisions and be responsible for my own work.	.27*	-.13	.08
ICI 4) I _____ change my opinion when someone I admire disagrees with me. (Reversed)	-.18	-.12	.060
ICI 5) If I want something I _____ work hard to get it.	.16	-.14	.23
ICI 6) I _____ prefer to learn the facts about something from someone else rather than have to dig them out for myself. (Reversed)	-.04	-.23	-.12
ICI 7) I will _____ accept jobs that require me to supervise others.	.12	-.02	.07

(table continues)

² Tenure status was coded as follows in SPSS: 1 = tenured 2 = tenure track 3 = nontenure track

ICI 8) I _____ have a hard time saying “no” when someone tries to sell me something I don’t want. (Reversed)	-.11	-.08	-.24
ICI 9) I _____ like to have a say in any decisions made by any group I’m in.	.12	-.01	.06
ICI 10) I _____ consider the different sides of an issue before making any decisions.	.23	.03	.09
ICI 11) What other people think _____ has a great influence on my behavior. (Reversed)	-.35 ^{***}	-.12	.01
ICI 12) Whenever something good happens to me I _____ feel it is because I’ve earned it.	-.04	-.22	.04
ICI 13) I _____ enjoy being in a position of leadership.	.21	.03	.15
ICI 14) I _____ need someone else to praise my work before I am satisfied with what I’ve done. (Reversed)	.17	.26 [*]	.08
ICI 15) I am _____ sure enough of my opinions to try and influence others.	-.06	-.10	-.02
ICI 16) When something is going to affect me I _____ learn as much about it as I can.	-.21	-.32 ^{**}	.07
ICI 17) I _____ decide to do things on the spur of the moment. (Reversed)	-.21	-.01	.05
ICI 18) For me, knowing I’ve done something well is _____ more important than being praised by someone else.	-.12	-.11	.16

(table continues)

ICI 19) I _____ let other peoples' demands keep me from doing the things I want to do. (Reversed)	-.25*	-.02	-.27*
ICI 20) I _____ stick to my opinions when someone disagrees with me.	-.15	.05	-.01
ICI 21) I _____ do what I feel like doing not what other people think I ought to do.	.04	-.18	.30**
ICI 22) I _____ get discouraged when doing something that takes a long time to achieve results. (Reversed)	.12	.40***	-.11
ICI 23) When part of a group I _____ prefer to let other people make all the decisions. (Reversed)	-.09	-.07	-.01
ICI 24) When I have a problem I _____ follow the advice of friends or relatives.	.03	.10	-.01
ICI 25) I _____ enjoy trying to do difficult tasks more than I enjoy trying to do easy tasks.	.11	-.02	.23
ICI 26) I _____ prefer situations where I can depend on someone else's ability rather than just my own. (Reversed)	-.05	.04	.05
ICI 27) Having someone important tell me I did a good job is _____ more important to me than feeling I've done a good job. (Reversed)	.09	.11	.02
ICI 28) When I'm involved in something I _____ try to find out all I can about what is going on even when someone else is in charge.	.21	-.05	.13

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .005$. **** $p < .001$.

(Reversed) Item was reverse-scored, because a rating of rarely was deemed to represent the highest levels of internal locus of control.

Research Question Three

The third research question assessed what (if any) relationships exist between faculty members' self-reported job satisfaction and perceived locus of control after controlling for demographic variables. Since the ICI did not demonstrate reliability for this study, no statistically significant correlation was found between job satisfaction and locus of control after controlling for the variables. To allow for some type of analysis to be performed, the individual items from the ICI were used to perform a partial correlation to see if any statistically significant findings emerged.

Four of the ICI items were significantly correlated with the JIG satisfaction score at the $p < .05$ level. The JIG score was positively related to the reverse-scored item 2 on the ICI: I ____ need frequent encouragement from others for me to keep working at a difficult task ($pr = .44, p < .001$). A negative relationship was found between the reverse-scored item 4 on the ICI and the JIG Scale ($pr = .27, p < .05$): I ____ change my opinion when someone I admire disagrees with me. A positive correlation was found between the reverse-scored item 14 (I ____ need someone else to praise my work before I am satisfied with what I've done.) of the ICI and the JIG Scale ($pr = .37, p < .005$). Last, the reverse-scored item 19 (I ____ let other peoples' demands keep me from doing the things I want to do.) was positively correlated with the JIG Scale ($pr = -.43, p < .001$). Table 10 contains those specific items from the resulting partial correlation that had statistical significance.

Table 10

Partial Correlations for the Relationship Between the Job in General Scale and Locus of Control Items, Controlling for Years of Teaching and Tenure Status (N = 61)

Variable Name	JIG Scale
ICI 2) I _____ need frequent encouragement from others for me to keep working at a difficult task. (Reversed)	.44 ^{****}
ICI 4) I _____ change my opinion when someone I admire disagrees with me. (Reversed)	-.27 [*]
ICI 14) I _____ need someone else to praise my work before I am satisfied with what I've done. (Reversed)	.37 ^{***}
ICI 19) I _____ let other peoples' demands keep me from doing the things I want to do. (Reversed)	-.43 ^{****}

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .005$. **** $p < .001$.

(Reversed) Item was reverse-scored, because a rating of rarely was deemed to represent the highest levels of internal locus of control.

Note. This table displays only the 4 of 28 partial correlations that were statistically significant at the $p < .05$ level.

Research Question Four

The fourth research question explored what (if any) differences exist among faculty members' self-reported locus of control based on demographic variables. As indicated previously, since the ICI was demonstrated to be not reliable as an instrument (Table 7), Spearman rank-ordered correlations were performed for each of the 28 items in the scale to allow for analysis. Two demographic variables were used for these comparisons: years teaching in higher education, tenure status, and student level taught.

Regarding years teaching in higher education, three of the ICI items revealed statistically significant relationships with this variable. Table 11 communicates the item numbers and verbiage for those items that demonstrated a statistically significant relationship with years in teaching demographic variable, along with the associated Spearman correlation. The reverse-scored item 14 of the ICI (I _____ need someone else to praise my work before I am satisfied with what I've done.) was positively correlated with the years teaching in higher education demographic ($r_s = .26, p < .05$). Item 16 (When something is going to affect me I _____ learn as much about it as I can.) was negatively correlated with years in teaching ($r_s = -.32, p < .01$). Also, the reverse-scored item 22 (I _____ get discouraged when doing something that takes a long time to achieve results.) was found to be positively related to years in teaching ($r_s = .40, p < .005$; Table 8).

Regarding tenure status, three of the ICI items revealed statistically significant relationships with this variable. Table 12 conveys those items that demonstrated a statistically significant relationship with the tenure status demographic variable, along with the associated Spearman correlation. The faculty member's tenure status was given

one of three categories: 1 = tenured, 2 = tenure track, and 3 = nontenure track to reflect the degree of potential permanence of the faculty member's relationship with the university. Of the 28 correlations, 2 were statistically significant. Specifically, the reverse-scored item 19 of the ICI (I _____ let other peoples' demands keep me from doing the things I want to do.) was negatively correlated with the tenure status demographic variable ($r_s = -.27, p < .05$). Item 21 (I _____ do what I feel like doing not what other people think I ought to do.) was also shown to be positively related to the tenure status demographic ($r_s = .30, p < .01$; Table 8).

Table 11

Spearman Correlations for the Relationship Between the Locus of Control Items and Years Teaching in Higher Education Demographic Variable (N = 61)

Variable Name	Spearman
ICI 14) I _____ need someone else to praise my work before I am satisfied with what I've done. (Reversed)	.26*
ICI 16) When something is going to affect me I _____ learn as much about it as I can.	-.32**
ICI 22) I _____ get discouraged when doing something that takes a long time to achieve results. (Reversed)	.40***

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .005$. **** $p < .001$.

(Reversed) Item was reverse-scored, because a rating of rarely was deemed to represent the highest levels of internal locus of control.

Note. This table displays only the 3 of 28 partial correlations that were statistically significant at the $p < .05$ level.

Table 12

Spearman Correlations for the Relationship Between the Locus of Control Items and Tenure Status Demographic Variable (N = 61)

Variable Name	Spearman
ICI 19) I _____ let other peoples' demands keep me from doing the things I want to do. (Reversed)	-.27*
ICI 21) I _____ do what I feel like doing not what other people think I ought to do.	.30**

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .005$. **** $p < .001$.

(Reversed) Item was reverse-scored, because a rating of rarely was deemed to represent the highest levels of internal locus of control.

Note. This table displays only the 2 of 28 partial correlations that were statistically significant at the $p < .05$ level.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION

The purpose of this chapter is to provide additional insight into the study findings communicated in the previous chapter. In this section, the purpose of the research is reviewed, along with a discussion of the key findings. The past research from the literature review that aligns with the study findings is presented. Next, the research that does not concur with the results of the research is provided. The potential implications for leaders in higher education are articulated. Limitations of the research are discussed and recommendations for future studies are given.

Summary of Key Findings

Four research questions were posed in the study. First, the initial research question asked: To what extent, if at all, is there a relationship between faculty members' self-reported job satisfaction and their perceived locus of control? The second research question identified to what extent, if at all, there are differences between faculty members' self-reported job satisfaction based on demographic variables. Third, what relationship, if any, exists between faculty members' self-reported job satisfaction and locus of control after controlling for demographic variables was examined. Finally, the fourth research question assessed to what extent, if at all, there are differences between faculty members' self-reported locus of control based on demographic variables.

Of those contacted to participate in the study, 61 faculty members completed the survey, with an experience level of teaching in higher education ranging from 3 years to 43. Mostly tenured and tenure-track faculty members participated in the study, with a majority of individuals who are engaged in teaching primarily undergraduate students. One of the instruments used in the study, the ICI, did not demonstrate reliability, so

individual items from that instrument were used in analyzing the results. Because of the unreliability of the ICI, no correlation was found between the job satisfaction and faculty members' locus of control. There was a lack of differentiated responses from the faculty members' responses on the ICI, causing the unreliability of the scale.

Four of the individual items in the ICI did demonstrate a correlation with faculty members' job satisfaction. First, faculty members were shown to be more satisfied when they did not require affirmation from others in order to persist in challenging work. Second, satisfaction was correlated with those faculty members who preferred to be more autonomous in making decisions related to their work. Third, those faculty members who rarely are concerned with others' perceptions of them were less satisfied in their jobs than those faculty members who are more influenced by what others think. Fourth, a relationship was found between those who allow others' requests to inhibit their choices and reporting higher job satisfaction overall.

No difference existed between faculty members' job satisfaction and either of the two demographic variables analyzed in this research. No statistically significant relationship was discovered with the years the individuals had taught in higher education. Nor was a correlation identified between job satisfaction and the participants' tenure status.

The next aspect of the research was to assess any existing relationships between job satisfaction and locus of control, after controlling for the two demographic variables. Because of the lack of reliability of the ICI for this study, individual item responses were used in exploring any existing relationships. Those who rarely needed affirmation to continue striving toward a goal also conveyed satisfaction in their jobs. Individuals who

are more likely to change their minds when a person they respect has a different opinion were also more likely to report higher job satisfaction. Faculty members who rarely require affirmation in order to feel satisfied with their results conveyed stronger predilection for their jobs. Also, those who frequently allow requests from others to inhibit their own desires were more likely to report satisfaction with their jobs.

The final query sought to identify what differences may exist between perceived locus of control based on the demographic variables. Those with more teaching experience conveyed a lower need to receive praise on their work performed. More teaching experience also brought with it a lower likelihood of learning as much as possible about actions that will affect the faculty member. A longer duration in higher education teaching also meant an increased chance that the faculty member would refrain from getting discouraged when goals took a long time to be met.

Three of the individual ICI items were found to be related to the tenure status demographic variable. Those with tenure were more likely to report that they rarely allow others' requests to keep them from doing what they would prefer. Individuals with tenure were also more likely to convey a lack of perceived pressure from external forces in terms of their individual preferences.

Past Research That Concurs With Study Findings

Very little research has been conducted previously to explore the relationship between locus of control and job satisfaction (Judge, 2001a; Judge et al., 1997). None of the survey results concurred precisely with past studies, though some loose parallels are explored in this section.

Castillo and Cano (2004) found that the work is the biggest factor that correlates

with a faculty member's job satisfaction. This could be viewed to be somewhat connected with the finding from this study that faculty members' were more satisfied who also did not look to others for praise in motivating them toward completion of a task.

The results of this study conveyed that with a desire for more autonomy came greater levels of satisfaction for these faculty members. This finding concurs with the positive correlations found between job satisfaction and perceived ability to leverage strengths in one's vocation (Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Herzberg et al., 1959; Lawler & Hall, 1970). Autonomy is one of the factors explored in Hackman and Oldham's (1976) job characteristics model and was found to be related to job satisfaction. Specifically in academia, these findings align with the connection between job satisfaction and perceived control over teaching assignments and research foci (Pearson & Seiler, 1983).

Faculty members in this study reported greater levels of satisfaction if they also conveyed a concern over others' perceptions of them. This could be somewhat related to the findings from Leung et al. (2000) that showed a predictor of job satisfaction being the receiving of recognition.

No differences were discovered in this study between job satisfaction and years teaching in higher education or tenure status. This finding would seem to convey the same assertion made by Argyle (2001) that tenure status makes no difference in how happy a faculty member is in his or her job.

Past Research That Does Not Concur With Study Findings

Despite the small amount of previous research on the relationship between locus of control and job satisfaction, there were some differences that were revealed between past studies and this one. The biggest incongruent finding had to do with the first research

question, which addressed any overall correlations between job satisfaction and locus of control. Judge, Locke, Durham, and Kluger (1998) found that locus of control was correlated with job satisfaction, which was different than the conclusions reached in this study. Other researchers came to this same conclusion (Judge & Bono, 2001; Mitchell et al., 1975). However, because of the lack of reliability on the ICI, this does not mean that other results would have been reached with a different instrument.

Another conflicting finding having to do with this study versus the literature review had to do with tenure status. Despite Argyle's (2001) claim that tenure does not matter when it comes to being content in one's job, as well as the findings from this study, other research conflicts with this idea. Researchers have found that untenured faculty members are less satisfied in their roles than are tenured faculty members (Kelly, 1989; Leung et al., 2000; Tack & Patitu, 1992; Thorsen, 1996). Higher-ranking faculty members were also more likely to report higher levels of satisfaction in other studies, as compared to their lower-ranking c-workers (Kelly, Leung et al.; Thorsen).

Synthesis of Literature Review as it Relates to Study Findings

Overall, the findings in this study were somewhat consistent with past research, to the extent that this could be assessed given the lack of reliability demonstrated on the ICI. The importance of the work that faculty perform and the sense of purpose and contentment that it provides could be construed as a reason for why praise for the purpose of completing a challenging task was less important in these faculty members' motivational drives. The importance of autonomy in the work of faculty members' satisfaction was clearly connected with the past findings of this vital component of motivation.

No relationship was found between job satisfaction and locus of control in this study. One possible reason for this disparity was a lack of reliability demonstrated in the ICI instrument. Individuals who have achieved the level of education that professors have would be likely to gauge more readily the social desirability inherent in some of the questions and, therefore, may be more likely to answer the way they would want to be perceived than previous study participants using the ICI.

There were differences between the study findings and past research as it relates to any connection between tenure status and job satisfaction. Grave differences in sample size and teaching environment could explain the disparity. The research for this study was conducted at a small, private, faith-based institution, which is primarily focused on the teaching aspect of higher education. Some studies that related job satisfaction with tenure status use the National Study of Postsecondary Faculty (1993) to conduct their data analysis. This is a large database that contains individuals from a broader range of institutions, including public institutions, which have a much larger research focus than the participants in this study. The other studies tended to be much more broad in terms of the research questions, exploring such issues as the stage in life the faculty member was in (Baldwin, 1990), differences in responsibilities at the various levels (Braskamp & Ory, 1984), and gender and age as they relate to satisfaction (Tack & Patitu, 1992).

Potential Implications for Leadership in Higher Education

Ubiquitous research exists that explores job satisfaction, with Spector (1997) and Dormann and Zapf (2001) claiming it to be studied more than any other topic in industrial psychology. Researchers have not conducted many studies having to do with what Judge et al. (1997) called core self-evaluations (which include locus of control) and

their relationship to job satisfaction. Researchers have asserted that additional research examining these factors is needed (Judge et al.; Judge et al., 2001). Job satisfaction is crucial for leaders in academia to consider; however, as it has been shown to be related with increased effort (Azar, 2008), while dissatisfaction has been found to be correlated to a person's intention to leave an organization (Dormann & Zapf, 2001; Mathieson & Miree, 2003).

The Influence on Future Generations

Hensel (1991) describes the extent to which today's professors influence tomorrow's generations. Perhaps many faculty members feel a sense of the magnitude of this responsibility to more than just their own needs and find satisfaction in preparing students to meet their goals. Better understanding into what drives faculty members toward being a more integral part of students' development during this time in their life is important. Being that this study was conducted in a Christian institution of higher education, other colleges and universities that have the same faith tradition may be able to benefit from some of the specific findings about job satisfaction of faculty in this type of culture.

Predictors Toward Greater Job Satisfaction

Pearson and Seiler (1983) found that when we consider professors' higher-order needs, their levels of satisfaction will be increased. One particular finding from this study that strongly aligned with past research related to how faculty are more likely to report high job satisfaction when they perceive more control over their work. Ideas for how to leverage this potential driver of motivation are explored in the forthcoming recommendations for practitioners section. It would seem that the findings from this

study could contribute to seemingly small changes being made on the part of academic leaders that may contribute toward overall greater satisfaction among faculty. While correlation most certainly does not equal causation, this study has given some possible predictors of how to develop a culture that allows for more motivated faculty.

Study Limitations

While this study does offer a perspective on one possible motivational factor for faculty in higher education settings, the research does have limitations. The 61 survey respondents constituted a relatively low sample size, despite being deemed representative of the overall population using Green's (1991) methodology. Researching only a single, private university limits the potential applicability of the study to other university settings, particularly those that are not faith-based institutions or those that are more research oriented. The voluntary nature of the survey participation method may also have been responsible for the differences between responders and nonresponders.

As mentioned throughout this study, there have been few studies that address any potential links between job satisfaction and locus of control limited (Judge, 2001a; Judge et al., 1997). No research was found that even resembles this exploration into how these two variables may relate to each other in an academic environment. Without other studies that use a similar methodology and possess the same research questions regarding the possible relationships between these two constructs in higher education, the ability to assess broader implications is limited. Researchers would benefit academia greatly by further study into what motivates university professors.

The environment in which this study was conducted also poses some potential limitations. Being that the university is a faith-based institution, some of the study

questions may have contained higher degrees of social desirability as it relates to the Christian faith. For example, people of this faith may value service as a core way of making choices of how to invest one's time, while the question may have been designed to indicate an external locus of control for those who rely heavily on others' input in making decisions.

Suggestions for Future Research

The literature on the relationship between job satisfaction and locus of control is limited (Judge, 2001a; Judge et al., 1997), making the opportunities for future studies plentiful. Following are recommendations for further research into related areas.

Aspirations and Productivity

Future studies could incorporate faculty members' aspirations (such as attaining promotions or tenure) and the possible relationship with locus of control and job satisfaction. If a professor was content at the level of associate, for example, and had no aspirations toward ever applying for full professor, this would seem a possible differentiator in terms of overall satisfaction. Bruggemann et al. (1975) developed the phrase *resigned job satisfaction* to explain how some individuals lower their level of aspiration to reduce the gap between their expectations and their current job situation. Individuals who had given up ever reaching new heights at their institutions may be more content than those who are striving toward a new title and putting forth the effort to meet the established criteria.

Productivity would also be an additional factor that would align well with the addition of aspiration levels. There are differing methodologies for assessing faculty members' productivity (Hagedorn, 1996) and selecting a relevant measure would be

important in this future research. A study would most benefit colleges and universities overall if it distinguished between different types of institutions (research-focused, teaching-focused, etc.) and established appropriate measures given the type of institution being studied.

Gender

Gender would also be a beneficial demographic variable to include in future research. Several American studies that have examined gender and satisfaction in the general public have “found no difference in job satisfaction between men and women” (Argyle, 2001, p. 95). However, other research has come to different conclusions, and particularly given the unique environment of academia, further research seems appropriate. Past studies demonstrated that women report lower levels of overall job satisfaction than male faculty members (Hagedorn, 1996; Tack & Patitu, 1992). However, when controlling for variances in salary, Owens (2008) did not find a significant difference in faculty member’s satisfaction levels, regardless of their gender. Analyzing how gender relates to locus of control and job satisfaction would enhance this study’s findings.

Teaching Effectiveness

Measuring teaching effectiveness has been a subject of much debate in research (Wanous & Hudy, 2001). However, including some reliable and valid means for gauging what relationships may exist between teaching quality and job satisfaction seems a natural extension to this study. This may be particularly important when considering the longer perspective of creating better teaching in the academic professions.

Consider how Bain (2004) stresses the loss of learning that occurs when great

teaching professors are no longer in their roles as he writes:

Great teachers emerge, they touch the lives of their students, and perhaps only through some of those students do they have any influence on the broad art of teaching. For the most part, their insights die with them, and subsequent generations must discover anew the wisdom that drove their practices. At best, some small fragment of their talent endures, broken pieces on which later generations perch without realizing the full measure of the ancient wealth beneath them. (p. 3)

Granted, including teaching effectiveness as a factor in future studies would not negate the need for other means of building more of a legacy from great teachers. However, understanding the relationships among job satisfaction, locus of control, and teaching effectiveness would add one more piece of knowledge into the complex picture of how to drive greater effectiveness in institutions of higher education.

Faith and Locus of Control

Another element of future recommended future research is the potential contributor of people's faith tradition and their perceived locus of control. Sosis, Strickland, and Haley (1980) found that those who believe in astrology are more likely to have a perceived external locus of control. An examination of how the Christian faith may or may not shape a person's locus of control would expand the findings from this study and contribute to the larger perspective.

Practitioner Recommendations

It is hoped that leaders in higher education, particularly in a faith-based

institution, will consider the findings from this study. If nothing else, the findings that dissatisfied employees are likely to bring with them increased absenteeism and turnover (Dormann & Zapf, 2001; Mathieson & Miree, 2003), in addition to more burnout and stress (Spector, 1997), should motivate the practitioner to examine these results. Perhaps another consideration should be the possibility that Hensel (1991) addresses, which is having more satisfied faculty members ultimately leads to a more positive impact on our nation, giving weight to the issue that it matters how content faculty members are in their jobs.

Explore Ways to Increase Autonomy

While being mindful of the reality that because two variables are correlated does not mean that one caused the other, there still seems to be some possible practices that could increase the level of autonomy experienced by faculty, which perhaps increases the chances of greater overall satisfaction. Past studies and the findings from this research show that faculty members who are more satisfied, also perceive greater autonomy in their roles. While faculty in many institutions are given latitude regarding their research pursuits, greater control over what courses are taught and when can in some cases be left up to the administrative personnel.

Giving faculty members an even greater sense of personal jurisdiction over what they teach and when seems prudent. The operational realities of scheduling in an institution of higher learning make it impractical to give complete control to faculty members in terms of when and what they teach, but technology and streamlined processes would certainly afford a greater likelihood of increased autonomy. A simple online scheduling tool to give professors the first opportunity to request particular courses

and specific sections of classes, prior to opening the teaching schedule up to adjunct faculty seems a prudent and practical means for leveraging this potential way of increasing overall job satisfaction. This approach may even have the potential of reducing administrative costs and efficiencies.

Provide Continual and Meaningful Feedback

A couple of subtle findings from the study might seem to conflict with one another. First, faculty members were more satisfied who did not express a need to receive affirmation in order to persist when tasks became difficult. Second, faculty members who did show a concern over others' perceptions communicated a higher overall job satisfaction. One possible explanation for these distinctions could be that tenacious faculty members are more satisfied and have the ability to sustain momentum in the challenging times, while still being empathetic and concerned about meeting others' needs. It is possible that those who are more satisfied who respond to others' requests, even if that means not attending to their own desires, may feel a greater sense of purpose around their chosen vocation.

As a leader in an institution of higher learning, it would seem to benefit greatly the culture to communicate continually and provide meaningful feedback to faculty. The finding from this study that suggested that those with more teaching experience may be less likely to learn as much about things that may affect them could help stress to an academic leader that he or she cannot always count on faculty members to seek out information about upcoming changes in the organization that might impact them, making it perhaps even more imperative for a leader to communicate regularly to individuals at all stages in their careers in higher education.

Birnbaum (1988) stresses the importance of goal setting and the articulation of set objectives and priorities. The author recognizes that while individuals may not always be satisfied with the goals that are set, providing information and feedback as to how progress is being made can be an element in greater recognition of how each person impacts the results and achievements in an academic organization.

Conclusion

This study explored any relationships that existed between faculty members' locus of control and job satisfaction at a small, private, faith-based university. Two demographic variables were also analyzed in the findings: number of years teaching in higher education and tenure status.

The importance of autonomy in a faculty members' satisfaction was revealed, which aligned with past studies on faculty job satisfaction. No relationship between job satisfaction and locus of control was found, since the ICI instrument that was used in the study did not demonstrate reliability in the statistical analysis. Other important factors that may help leaders in higher education contribute to higher levels of job satisfaction among faculty were analyzed and discussed. It is hoped that this investigation can contribute to overall higher levels of job satisfaction among the faculty members' in institutions of higher learning, creating an even greater impact on our future generations of leaders.

REFERENCES

- Adams, J. S. (1963). Toward an understanding of inequity. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 67*, 422–436.
- Adams, J. S. (1965). Inequity in social exchange. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 2; pp. 267–299). New York, NY: Academic Press.
- Adigun, I. O., & Stephenson, G. M. (1992). Sources of job motivation and satisfaction among British and Nigerian employees. *Journal of Social Psychology, 132*, 369–276.
- Aiken, P. A., & Baucom, D. H. (1982). Locus of control and depression: That confounded relationship. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 46*(4), 391–395.
- Aldrich, H. E. (1980). *Organizations and environments*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Anthony, W. P. (1978). *Participative management*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Argyle, M. (2001). *The psychology of happiness*. New York, NY: Taylor & Francis.
- Argyle, M., & Martin, M. (1990). The psychological causes of happiness. In F. Strack, M. Argyle, & N. Schwarz (Eds.), *Subjective well-being* (pp. 77–100). Oxford, UK: Pergamon.
- Arvy, R. D., Bouchard, T. J., Jr., Segal, N. L., & Abraham, L. M. (1989). Job satisfaction: Environmental and genetic determinants. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 74*, 187–192.
- Azar, O. H. (2008). The effect of external incentives on profits and firm-provided incentives strategy. *The Journal of Socio-Economics, 37*, 149–156.

- Bain, K. (2004). *What the best college teachers do*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Baldwin, R. G. (1990). Faculty career states and implications for professional development. In J. H. Schuster, D. W. Wheeler, , & Associates (Eds.), *Enhancing faculty careers: Strategies for development and renewal* (pp. 20–40). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Balzer, W. K., Kihm, J. A., Smith, P. C., Irwin, J. L., Bachiochi, P. D., Robie, et al. (2000). Users' manual for the Job Descriptive Index (JDI; 1997 version) and the job in general scales. In J. M. Stanton & C. D. Crossley (Eds.), *Electronic resources for the JDI and JIG*. Bowling Green, OH: Bowling Green State University.
- Bandura, A. (1977). *Social learning theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Baron, H. (1996). Strengths and limitations of ipsative measurement. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 69, 49–56.
- Baumeister, R. F., Campbell, J. D., Krueger, J. I., & Vohs, K. D. (2003). Does high self-esteem cause better performance, interpersonal success, happiness, or healthier lifestyles? *Psychological Science in the Public Interest*, 4(1), 1–44.
- Berndt, D. J. (1978). Construct validation of the personal and sociopolitical dimensions of Rotter's internal-external locus of control scale. *Psychological Reports*, 42, 1259–1263.
- Birnbaum, R. (1988). *How colleges work*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

- Black, M. M., & Holden, E. W. (1998). The impact of gender on productivity and satisfaction among medical school psychologists. *Journal of Clinical Psychology in Medical Settings*, 5, 117–130.
- Blackburn, R. T., & Lawrence, J. H. (1995). *Faculty at work: Motivation, expectation, satisfaction*. London, England: The John Hopkins University Press.
- Boxall, P., Purcell, J., & Wright, P. (2007). *The Oxford handbook of human resource management*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Braskamp, L. A., & Ory, J. C. (1984). Faculty development and achievement: A faculty's view. *Review of Higher Education*, 7(3), 205–222.
- Brayfield, A. H., & Crockett, W. H. (1955). Employee attitudes and employee performance. *Psychological Bulletin*, 52(5), 396–424.
- Brayfield, A. H., & Rothe, H. F. (1951). An index of job satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 35, 307–311.
- Brewin, C. R., & Shapiro, D. A. (1984). Beyond locus of control: Attribution for responsibility for positive and negative outcomes. *British Journal of Psychology*, 75, 43–49.
- Brown, R. D., Bond, S., Gerndt, J., Krager, L., Krantz, B., Lutkin, M., et al. (1986). Stress on campus: An interactional perspective. *Research in Higher Education*, 24(1), 97–112.
- Bruggermann, A., Groskurth, P., & Ulich, E. (1975). *Job satisfaction*. Bern, Switzerland; Huber.
- Castillo, J. X., & Cano, J. (2004). Factors explaining job satisfaction among faculty. *Journal of Agricultural Education*, 45(3), 65–74.

- Chebat, J. C. (2001). Social responsibility, locus of control, and social class. *The Journal of Social Psychology, 126*(4), 559–561.
- Clark, A. E. (1996). *Job satisfaction and gender: Why are women so happy at work?* France; DEELSA.
- Clark, A. E., & Oswald, A. J. (1996). Satisfaction and comparison income. *Journal of Public Economics, 61*, 359–381.
- Cohen, A. M., & Brawer, F. B. (1977). *The two-year college instructor today*. New York, NY: Prager.
- Cohen, A. M., & Brawer, F. B. (1982). *The American community college*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Cranny, C. J., Smith, P. C., & Stone, E. F. (1992). *Job satisfaction: How people feel about their jobs and how it affects their performance*. New York, NY: Lexington Books.
- Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (2nd ed.): Sage Publications.
- Cronbach, L. J. (1951). Coefficient alpha and the internal structure of tests. *Psychometrika, 16*, 297–334.
- Cronbach, L., & Meehl, P. (1955). Construct validity in psychological tests. *Psychological Bulletin, 52*(4), 281–302.
- Cropanzano, R., James, K., & Konovsky, M. A. (1993). Dispositional affectivity as a predictor of work attitudes and job performance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 14*, 595–606.
- Dalton, D. R., & Todor, W. D. (1973). Turnover turned over: An expanded and positive

- perspective. *Academy of Management Review*, 4, 225–235
- Deschamps, J. (1997). Attribution or explanations in everyday life. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 6(1), 7–24.
- Dormann, C., & Zapf, D. (2001). Job satisfaction: A meta-analysis of stabilities. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 22(5), 483–504.
- Dubois, N. (1997). Scales and questionnaires measuring internal vs. external causal explanations in organizational contexts. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 6(1), 25–35.
- Duffy, P. J., Shiflett, S., & Downey, R. G. (1977). Locus of control: Dimensionality and predictability using Likert scales. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 62(2), 214–219.
- Duttweiler, P. (1981). *Development of a new measure of locus of control in adults: The internal control index*. Doctoral Dissertation, University of Georgia.
- Duttweiler, P. (1984). The internal control index: A newly developed measure of locus of control. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 44, 209–229.
- Fields, D. L. (2002). *Taking the measure of work: A guide to validated scales for organizational research and diagnosis*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Fischer, J., & Corcoran, K. (2007). *Measures for clinical practice and research: A sourcebook* (4th ed.). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Fisher, C. D. (2003). Why do lay people believe that satisfaction and performance are correlated? Possible sources of a commonsense theory. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, (24), 753–777.
- Furnham, A., & Steele, H. (1993). Measuring locus of control: A critique of general, children's, health- and work-related locus of control questionnaires. *British*

- Journal of Psychology*, 84, 443–479.
- Ganzach, Y. (1998). Intelligence and job satisfaction. *Academy of Management Journal*, 41(5), 526–539.
- Gerhart, B. (1987). How important are dispositional factors as determinants of job satisfaction? Implications for job design and other personnel programs. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 72, 366–373.
- Gist, M. E., & Mitchell, T. R. (1992). Self-efficacy: A theoretical analysis of its determinants and malleability. *Academy of Management Review*, 17, 183–211.
- Green, S. B. (1991). How many subjects does it take to do a regression analysis? *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, 26, 499–510.
- Greenberger, D. B., Strasser, S., Cummings, L. L., & Dunham, R. B. (1989). The impact of personal control on performance satisfaction. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 43, 29–51.
- Greenburg, J. (1994). *Organizational behavior: The state of the science*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Griffeth, R. W., Hom, P. W., & Gaertner, S. (2000). A meta-analysis of antecedents and correlates of employee turnover: Update, moderator tests, and research implications for the next millennium. *Journal of Management*, 26(3), 463–488.
- Grimes, P. W., Millea, M. J., & Woodruff, T. W. (2004). Grades—Who's to blame? Student evaluation of teaching and locus of control. *Journal of Economic Education*, 35(2), 129–147.
- Guastello, S. J., & Guastello, D. D. (1986). The relation between the locus of control construct and involvement in traffic accidents. *The Journal of Psychology*, 120(3),

293–297.

Hackman, J. R., & Lawler, E. E. (1971). Employee reactions to job characteristics.

Journal of Applied Psychology, 55, 259–286.

Hackman, J. R., & Oldham, G. R. (1976). Motivation through the design of work: Test of a theory. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 16*, 250–279.

Hackman, J. R., & Oldham, G. R. (1980). *Work redesign*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Hagedorn, L. S. (1996). Wage equity and female faculty job satisfaction: The role of wage differentials in a job satisfaction causal model. *Research in Higher Education, 37*(5), 569–598.

Hansen, L. J. (1984). A possible response bias in locus of control research. *The Journal of Psychology, 116*, 175–177.

Heider, F. (1958). *The psychology of interpersonal relations*. New York, NY: Wiley.

Heneman, H. G., III, & Schwab, D. P. (1985). Pay satisfaction: Its multidimensional nature and measurement. *International Journal of Psychology, 20*, 129–141.

Hensel, N. (1991). Realizing gender equality in higher education: The need to integrate work/family issues. *ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report no. 2*. Washington, D.C.: School of Education and Human Development, George Washington University.

Hersch, P. D., & Scheibe, K. E. (1967). Reliability and validity of internal-external control as a personality dimension. *Journal of Consulting Psychology, 31*(6), 609–613.

Hersey, P., Blanchard, K. H., & Johnson, D. E. (1996). *Management of organizational*

- behavior: Utilizing human resources* (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., & Snyderman, B. (1959). *The motivation to work*. New York, NY: Wiley.
- Hodgkinson, G. P. (1992). Research notes and communications development and validation of the strategic locus of control scale. *Strategic Management Journal*, *13*, 311–317.
- Hofstede, G. H. (1991). *Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind*. London, UK: McGraw-Hill.
- Hogan, R. T. (1991). Personality and personality measurement. In M. D. Dunnette, & L. M. Hough (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (vol. 2; pp. 873–919). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.
- Hom, P. W., & Griffeth, R. W. (1995). *Employee turnover*. Cincinnati, OH: South-Western.
- Huang, X., & Van de Vliert, E. (2003). Where intrinsic job satisfaction fails to work: National moderators of intrinsic motivation. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *24*(2), 159–179.
- Huston, T. A., Norman, M., & Ambrose, S. A. (2007). Expanding the discussion of faculty vitality to include productive but disengaged senior faculty. *Journal of Higher Education*, *78*(5), 493–522.
- Ilies, R., & Judge, T. A. (2002). Understanding the dynamic relationships among personality, mood and job satisfaction: A field experience sampling study. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Process*, *89*, 1119–1139.

- Ironson, G. H., Brannick, M. T., Smith, P. C., Gibson, W. M., & Paul, K. B. (1989). Construction of a job in general scale: A comparison of global, composite and specific measures. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 74*(2), 193–200.
- Judge, T. (2001a). Relationship of core self-evaluations traits, self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, locus of control, and emotional stability, with job satisfaction and job performance: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*(1), 80–92.
- Judge, T. (2001b). The job satisfaction-job performance relationship: A qualitative and quantitative review. *Psychological Bulletin, 127*(3), 376–407.
- Judge, T. A., & Bono, J. E. (2001). Relationship of core self-evaluation traits—self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, locus of control, and emotional stability—with job satisfaction and job performance: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*(1), 80–92.
- Judge, T. A., Bono, J. E., Erez, A., & Locke, E. A. (2005). Core self-evaluations and job and life satisfaction: The role of self-concordance and goal attainment. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*(2), 257–268.
- Judge, T. A., Erez, A., Bono, & Thoresen, C. J. (2001). Are measures of self-esteem, neuroticism, locus of control and generalized self-efficacy indicators of a common core construct? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 83*(3), 693-710.
- Judge, T. A., Hanisch, L. A., & Drankoski, R. D. (1995). Human resource management and employee attitudes. In G. R. Ferris, S. D. Rosen, & D. T. Barnum (Eds.), *Handbook of human resources management* (pp. 574–596). United Kingdom: Blackwell.

- Judge, T. A., & Ilies, R. (2004). Affect and job satisfaction: A study of their relationship at work and at home. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89*(4), 661–673.
- Judge, T., Locke, E., & Durham, C. (1997). The dispositional causes of job satisfaction: A core evaluations approach. *Research in Organizational Behavior, 19*, 151–188.
- Judge, T. A., Locke, E. A., Durham, C. C., & Kluger, A. N. (1998). Dispositional effects on job and life satisfaction: The role of core evaluations. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 83*(1), 17–34.
- Judge, T. A., Thoresen, C. J., Bono, J. E., & Patton, G. K. (2001). The job satisfaction-job performance relationship: A qualitative and quantitative review. *Psychological Bulletin, 127*(3), 376–407.
- Kelly, J. D. (1989). Gender, pay, job satisfaction of faculty in journalism. *Journalism Quarterly, 66*(2), 446–452.
- King, L. A., & Napa, C. K. (1998). What makes a life good? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 75*, 156–165.
- Kleiman, L. (2000). *Human resource management: A managerial tool for competitive advantage*. New York, NY: South-Western College Publishing.
- Konovsky, M. A., & Cropanzano, R. (1991). Perceived fairness of employee drug testing as a predictor of employee attitudes and job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 76*(5), 698–707.
- Landsberger, H. A. (1958). *Hawthorne revisited*. Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press
- Lang, J. M. (2005). *Life on the tenure track: Lessons from the first year*. Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press.
- Lange, R. V., & Tiggemann, M. (1981). Dimensionality and reliability of the Rotter I-E

- locus of control scale. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 45(4), 398–406.
- Lau, C. M., & Woodman, R. W. (1995). Understanding organizational change: A schematic perspective. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38(2), 537–554.
- Lawler, E. E., & Hall, D. T. (1970). Relationship of job characteristics to job involvement, satisfaction, and intrinsic motivation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 54, 305–312.
- Lawler, E. E., & Porter, L. W. (1963). Perceptions regarding management compensation. *Industrial Relations*, 3, 41–49.
- Lefcourt, H. M. (1976). *Locus of control: Current trends in theory & research*. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.
- Lefcourt, H. M., Martin, R. A., Fick, C. M., & Saleh, W. E. (1985). Locus of control for affiliation and behavior in social interactions. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 48(3), 755–759.
- Lefcourt, H., Miller, R., Ware, E., & Sherk, D. (1981). Locus of control as a modifier of the relationship between stressors and moods. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 41, 357–369.
- Leung, T., Siu, O., & Spector, P. E. (2000). Faculty stressors, job satisfaction, and psychological distress among university teachers in Hong Kong: The role of locus of control. *International Journal of Stress Management*, 7, 121–138.
- Levenson, H. (1973). Multidimensional locus of control in psychiatric patients. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 41(3), 397–404.
- Lewin, K. (1952). Group decision and social change. In G. E. Swanson, T. M. Newcome and E. L. Hartley (eds.), *Readings in Social Psychology*, 2nd ed. (pp. 459–473).

New York, NY: Holt.

Liebert, R. M., & Spiegler, M. D. (1950). *Personality: Strategies for the study of man*.

Homewood, IL: The Dorsey Press.

Lindbloom, G., & Faw, T. T. (1982). Three measures of locus of control: What do they measure? *Journal of Personality Assessment*, *46*(1), 70–71.

Little, C. B. (1979). Stability of internal-external control as measured by the Rotter scale. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, *108*, 127–128.

Livingstone, J. S. (2000). Pygmalion in management. *Harvard Business Review*, *47*(4), 81–89.

Locke, E. A. (1976). The nature and causes of job satisfaction. In M.D. Dunnette (Ed.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 1297–1350). Chicago, IL: Rand McNally.

Long, B. C. (1993). Coping strategies of male managers: A prospective analysis of predictors of psycho somatic symptoms and job satisfaction. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *42*, 184–199.

Major, D. A., Kozlowski, S. W., Chao, G. T., & Gardner, P. D. (1995). A longitudinal investigation of newcomer expectations, early socialization outcomes, and the moderating effects of role development factors. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *80*(3), 418–431.

Marsh, H. W., & Richards, G. W. (1987). The multidimensionality of the Rotter I-E scale and its higher-order structure: An application of confirmatory factor analysis. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, *22*, 39–69.

Maslow, A. H. (1943). A theory of human motivation. *Psychological Review*, *50*, 370–

396.

- Maslow, A. H. (1954). *Motivation and personality*. New York, NY: Harper & Row.
- Mathieson, K., & Miree, C. E. (2003). Illuminating the invisible: IT and self-discovery in the workplace. In R. A. Giacalone & C. L. Jukiewicz (Eds.), *Handbook of workplace spirituality and organizational performance* (pp. 164–180). Armonk, NY: M. E. Sharpe.
- Mayo, E. (1949). *Hawthorne and the Western Electric Company: The social problems of an industrial civilization*. London, England: Routledge.
- McMillan, J., & Schumacher, S. (2006). *Research in education: Evidence-based inquiry*. Boston, MA: Pearson.
- Melcher, A. J. (1976). Participation: A critical review of research findings. *Human Resource Management, 15*(2), 12–21.
- Millar, B., & Irving, P. (1995). Academic locus of control in British undergraduate students. *British Journal of Educational Psychology, 65*, 331–340.
- Miller, K. I., & Monge, P. R. (1986). Participation, satisfaction, and productivity: A meta-analytic review. *The Academy of Management Journal, 29*(4), 727–753.
- Mills, J. K. (1991a). Differences in locus of control between obese adult and adolescent females undergoing weight reduction. *The Journal of Psychology, 125*(2), 195–197.
- Mills, J. K. (1991b). Control orientation as a personality dimension among alcoholic and obese adult men undergoing addictions treatment. *The Journal of Psychology, 125*(5), 537–542.
- Mitchell, T. R., & Lee, T. W. (2001). The unfolding model of voluntary turnover and job

- embeddedness: Foundations for a comprehensive theory of attachment. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 23, 189–246.
- Mitchell, T. R., Smyser, C. M., & Weed, S. E. (1975). Locus of control: Supervision and work satisfaction. *Academy of Management Journal*, 18(3), 623–631.
- Munz, D. C., Huelsman, T. J., Konold, T. R., & McKinney, J. J. (1996). Are there methodological and substantive roles for affectivity in job diagnostic survey relationships. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81, 795–805.
- National Center for Educational Statistics (NSOPF:93; 1993). Faculty Survey, U.S. Department of Education, National Study of Postsecondary Faculty, Washington, DC.
- Nagy M. (2002). Using a single-item approach to measure facet job satisfaction. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 75(1), 77–86.
- Nelson, D. L., & Quick, J. C. (2003). *Organizational behavior: Foundations, realities and challenges* (4th ed.). Mason, OH: Thomson/South-Western.
- Nicholson, S., Pauly, M., Polsky, D., Baase, C., Billotti, G., Ozminkowski, R., Berger, M., & Sharda, C. (2005). *How to present the business case for healthcare quality to employers*. Retrieved December 21, 2008 from <http://knowledge.wharton.upenn.edu/papers/1303.pdf>
- Otten, M. W. (1977). Inventory and expressive measures of locus control and academic performance: A 5-year outcome study. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 41(6), 644–649.
- Owens, G. (2008, March). Work-related perceptions of faculty in clinical and counseling academic training programs. *Psychology Journal*, 5(1), 25–39.

- Palmer, P. J. (1998). *The courage to teach*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Parker, S. K., & Wall, T. D. (1998). *Job and work design*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Pearson, D., & Seiler, R. (1983). Environmental satisfiers in academe. *Higher Education*, 12(1), 35–47.
- Pinder, C. (2008). *Work motivation in organizational behavior* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Psychology Press.
- Ramanaiah, N. V., & Adams, M. L. (1981). Locus of control and attribution of responsibility for academic performance. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 45(3), 309–313.
- Ray, J. (1980). Belief in luck and locus of control. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 3, 299–300.
- Ray, J. J. (1984). Some pitfalls in measuring perceived locus of control as an economic variable: A comment on Buchele. *The Journal of Human Resources*, 19(4), 580–581.
- Robbins, S. P. (2005). *Essentials of organizational behavior* (8th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Roethlisberger, F., & Dickson, R. (1939) *Management and the worker*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Rogers, C. R. (1959). A theory of therapy, personality, and interpersonal relationships as developed in the client-centered framework. In S. Koch (Ed.), *Psychology: A study of a science* (Vol. 3). New York, NY: McGraw Hill.
- Rosnowski, M., & Hulin, C. (1992). The scientific merit of valid measures of general constructs with special reference to job satisfaction and job withdrawal. In C. J.

- Cranny, P. C. Smith, & E. F. Stone (Eds.), *Job satisfaction: How people feel about their jobs and how it affects their performance*. New York, NY: Lexington Books.
- Rosser, V. J. (2004). Faculty members' intentions to leave: A national study on their worklife and satisfaction. *Research in Higher Education, 45*(3), 285–309.
- Rotter, J. B. (1954). *Social learning and clinical psychology*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Rotter, J. B. (1960). Some implications of a social learning theory for the prediction of goal directed behavior from testing procedures. *Psychological Review, 67*, 301–316
- Rotter, J. B. (1966). Generalized expectancies for internal versus external control of reinforcement. *Psychological Monographs, 80*(609), 1–28.
- Rotter, J. B. (1971). External control and internal control. *Psychology Today, 5*, 37–59.
- Rotter, J. B., Chance, J. E., & Phares, E. J. (1972). *Applications of a social learning theory of personality*. New York, NY: Holt, Rinehart, & Winston.
- Rowley, D. J., Rosse, J.G., & Harvey, O. J. (1992). The effects of belief systems on the job-related satisfaction of managers and subordinates. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 22*(3), 212–231.
- Scarpello, V., & Campbell, J. P. (1983). Job satisfaction: Are all the parts there? *Personnel Psychology, 36*, 577–600.
- Schepers, J. M. (2005). The construction of a normative scale of locus of control. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology, 31*(3), 1–11.
- Schmitt, N., & Bedeian, A. G. (1982). A comparison of LISREL and two-stage least

- squares analysis of a hypothesized life-job satisfaction reciprocal relationship. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 67(6), 806–817.
- Schmitt, N., & Pulakos, E. D. (1985). Predicting job satisfaction from life satisfaction: Is there a general satisfaction factor? Interactional psychology and organizational behavior. In L. L. Cummings & B. M. Staw (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior* (Vol. 5k; pp. 1–32). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Schneider, B., & Dachler, H. P. (1978). A note on the stability of the job descriptive index. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 63, 650–653.
- Senge, P. M. (1990). The leader's new work: Building learning organizations. *Sloan Management Review*, 32(1), 7–23.
- Siu, O. L., & Cooper, C. L. (1998). A study of occupational stress, job satisfaction and quitting intention in Hong Kong firms: The role of locus of control and organizational commitment. *Stress Medicine*, 14, 55–66.
- Skevington, S. M., MacArthur, P., & Somerset, M. (1997). Developing items for the WHOQOL: An investigation of contemporary beliefs about quality of life related to health in Britain. *British Journal of Health Psychology*, 2, 55–72.
- Skinner, E. (1996). A guide to constructs of control. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 7(3), 549–570
- Smith, A. (1776). *The wealth of nations*. London, England: W. Strahan and T. Cadell.
- Soh, K. C. (1986). Locus of control as a moderator of teacher stress in Singapore. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 126(2), 257–258.
- Sosis, R. H., Strickland, B. R., & Haley, W. E. (1980). Perceived locus of control and beliefs about astrology. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 110, 65–71.

- Spector, P. E. (1997). *Job satisfaction: Applications, assessment, causes and consequences*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Staw, B. M., Bell, N. E., & Clausen, J. A. (1986). The dispositional approach to job attitudes: A lifetime longitudinal test. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *31*, 56–77.
- Staw, B. M., & Ross, J. (1985). Stability in the midst of change: A dispositional approach to job attitudes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *70*, 469–480.
- Suh, E., Diener, E., Oishi, S., & Triandix, H. (1997). The shifting basis of life satisfaction judgments across cultures: Emotions versus norms. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *74*, 482–493.
- Tack, M. W., & Patitu, C. L. (1992). *Faculty job satisfaction: Women and minorities in peril*. Washington, DC: George Washington University, School of Education and Human Development.
- Thorsen, E. J. (1996). Stress in academe: What bothers professors? *Higher Education*, *31*(4), 471–489.
- Van Saane, N., Sluiter, J. K., Verbeek, J. H. A. M., & Frings-Dresen, M. H.W. (2003). Reliability and validity of instruments measuring job satisfaction—A systematic review. *Occupational Medicine*, *53*(3), 191–200.
- Varnhagen, C., Gushta, M., Daniels, J., Peters, C., Parmar, N., Law, D., Hirsch, R., Takach, B. S., & Johnson, T. (2005). How informed is online informed consent? *Ethics & Behavior*, *15*(1), 37–48.
- Veenhoven, R., & Ehrhardt, J. (1995). The cross-national pattern of happiness: Test of predictions implied in three theories of happiness. *Social Indicators Research*, *24*,

1–34.

- Vroom, V. H. (1964). *Work and motivation*. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.
- Vroom, V. H., & Yetton, P. W. (1973). *Leadership and decision-making*. Pittsburgh, PA: University of Pittsburgh Press.
- Wanous, J. P. (1974). A causal-correlational analysis of job satisfaction and performance relationship. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *59*, 139–144.
- Wanous, J. P., & Hudy, M. J. (2001). Single-item reliability: A replication and extension. *Organizational Research Methods*, *4*(4), 361–375.
- Wanous, J. P., Reichers, A. E., & Hudy, M. J. (1997). Overall job satisfaction: How good are single-item measures? *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *82*(2), 247–252.
- Ward, E. A. (1994). Construct validity of need for achievement and locus of control scales. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, *54*(4), 983–992.
- Watson, D., & Slack, A. K. (1993). General factors of affective temperament and their relation to job satisfaction over time. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *54*(2), 181–202.
- Weick, K. E. (1969). *The social psychology of organizing*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Weick, K. E. (2001). *Making sense of the organization*. Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing.
- Weiner, B. (1979). A theory of motivation for some classroom experiences. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *71*, 3–25.
- Weiner, B. (1989). *Human behavior*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Weiss, H. M., Nicholas, J. P., & Daus, C. S. (1999). An examination of the joint effects

of affective experiences and job beliefs on job satisfaction and variations in affective experiences over time. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Process*, 78(1), 1–24.

Wigfield, A., & Braskamp, L. A. (1985). Age and personal investment in work. *Advances in Motivation and Achievement*, 4, 297–331.

Williams, J. M., & Stout, J. K. (1985). The effect of high and low assertiveness on locus of control and health problems. *The Journal of Psychology*, 119(2), 169–173.

Witt, L. A. (1988). Locus of control and success as a professional money collector. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 128(5), 703–704.

Zerega, W. D., Tseng, M. S., & Greever, K. B. (1976). Stability and concurrent validity of the Rotter internal-external locus of control scale. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 36, 473–475.

APPENDIX A: Demographic Data and Questions

The following demographic data will be collected by asking the following questions:

- | | |
|------------------------------------|---|
| Years teaching in higher education | 1. How many years have you been teaching in a higher education environment? |
| Tenure status | 2. Which of the following represents your current employment status at Vanguard University:
a) Tenured
b) Tenure track
c) Non-tenure track |
| Teaching level | 3. Which of the following represents the level of student you teach as your primary teaching position at Vanguard University:
a) Graduate students only
b) Under-graduate students only
c) Both under-graduate and graduate students |

APPENDIX B: Sample E-mail Invitation

1st e-mail:

Dear colleague:

I am conducting a study on the relationship of locus of control and job satisfaction of university faculty. The survey is not too lengthy and should take approximately 10-15 minutes to complete. Please be assured that participation in this survey is voluntary, and that your identity will not be tracked for the purposes of the research.

I plan to begin analysis of the survey by [date], so please take a few minutes between now and complete the survey by [date]. To complete the survey, click on the link below which will take your browser to a confidential website. Enter your code below to begin the survey.

www. web link here

Code: XXXX###

Thank you for making time in your schedule to complete this survey. As a faculty member, I appreciate the difficulty in balancing the many requests on your time.

Sincerely,

Bonni Stachowiak
Doctoral Candidate

APPENDIX C: Follow Up E-mail

Dear colleague:

This is a follow-up request to my original email request for your participation in a study on the relationship of locus of control to job satisfaction of university faculty. I have received many completed surveys, but need a few more to allow for statistical evaluation.

The survey is not too lengthy and should take approximately 10 minutes to complete. Remember that participation in this survey is voluntary, and that your identity will remain in the strictest confidence. Your identity will not be reported in the discussion of the study's findings.

Please take a few minutes and complete the survey at the following link. Remember to enter the confidential code at the beginning of the survey. Please complete this by X.

www. web link here

Code: XXXX###

Thank you for helping my research in this manner. Your participation is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Bonni Stachowiak
Doctoral Candidate

APPENDIX D: Online Consent for Research Study

“Locus of Control and Job Satisfaction in an Academic Environment”

After reading this consent, you will be asked to click if you agree to participate in the research study being conducted by Bonni Stachowiak under the direction of Dr. Kent Rhodes.

PURPOSE

The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between faculty members' locus of control and their overall job satisfaction. The research is being completed in partial fulfillment of a doctoral dissertation at Pepperdine University, Graduate School of Education and Psychology.

PROCEDURE

Participating in this research involves completing an online survey which asks questions related to job satisfaction, locus of control, and two pieces of demographic information (years teaching in higher education and tenure status). The duration is estimated at around 10 to 15 minutes to complete the online survey.

BENEFITS

It is hoped that by studying locus of control and job satisfaction that universities will have more insight in to how these factors impact a faculty member's overall satisfaction, thereby offering another approach for continually seeking to motivate workers and maximize productivity. Universities may gain insight into the ways in which job satisfaction of their most important constituency is derived.

RISKS

Any risks to the participants are minimized and are not unreasonable when considering the potential research benefits. Completing the surveys does not involve any practices that result in physical discomfort, pain, illness or injury, beyond the risk associated with use of a computer for less than thirty minutes. If any question causes you to feel uncomfortable, you may skip it or decide not to participate in the study.

CONFIDENTIALITY

Your responses to the survey are completely confidential. Your name or other identifying information will not be gathered when you complete the survey, so as to ensure your responses are kept private.

CONTACT INFORMATION

Should you have questions about the research being conducted and / or your rights, the following individuals may be contacted:

Primary investigator
Bonni Stachowiak

External contact
Jean Kang
Manager of the Graduate and Professional Schools IRB, Pepperdine University

Dissertation Advisor / Faculty Sponsor
Dr. Kent Rhodes

This page may be printed for your records, should you wish to keep a copy indicating your consent to participate. Individuals who desire a PDF copy of the informed consent language or who prefer to provide a signature for informed consent may email the primary investigator.

PARTICIPATION

Participation in this study is voluntary; refusal to participate will involve no penalty or loss of benefits to which I am otherwise entitled. I understand that I may discontinue participation at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which I am otherwise entitled.

By beginning the survey, you acknowledge that you have read this information and agree to participate in this research, with the knowledge that you are free to withdraw your participation at any time without penalty.

APPENDIX E: Duttweiler's Internal Control Index

Please read each statement. Where there is a blank _____, decide what your normal or usual attitude, feeling, or behavior would be:

- (A) RARELY (Less than 10% of the time)
- (B) OCCASIONALLY (About 30% of the time)
- (C) SOMETIMES (About half the time)
- (D) FREQUENTLY (About 70% of the time)
- (E) USUALLY (More than 90% of the time)

Of course, there are always unusual situations in which this would not be the case, but think of what you would feel in most normal situations.

Write the letter that describes your usual attitude or behavior *in the space provided on the response sheet*.

1. When faced with a problem I _____ try to forget it.
2. I _____ need frequent encouragement from others for me to keep working at a difficult task.
3. I _____ like jobs where I can make decisions and be responsible for my own work.
4. I _____ change my opinion when someone I admire disagrees with me.
5. If I want something I _____ work hard to get it.
6. I _____ prefer to learn the facts about something from someone else rather than have to dig them out for myself.
7. I will _____ accept jobs that require me to supervise others.
8. I _____ have a hard time saying "no" when someone tries to sell me something I don't want.
9. I _____ like to have a say in any decisions made by any group I'm in.
10. I _____ consider the different sides of an issue before making any decisions.
11. What other people think _____ has a great influence on my behavior.
12. Whenever something good happens to me I _____ feel it is because I've earned it.
13. I _____ enjoy being in a position of leadership.
14. I _____ need someone else to praise my work before I am satisfied with what I've done.
15. I am _____ sure enough of my opinions to try and influence others.
16. When something is going to affect me I _____ learn as much about it as I can.
17. I _____ decide to do things on the spur of the moment.
18. For me, knowing I've done something well is _____ more important than being

praised by someone else.

19. I _____ let other peoples' demands keep me from doing the things I want to do.
20. I _____ stick to my opinions when someone disagrees with me.
21. I _____ do what I feel like doing not what other people think I ought to do.
22. I _____ get discouraged when doing something that takes a long time to achieve results.
23. When part of a group I _____ prefer to let other people make all the decisions.
24. When I have a problem I _____ follow the advice of friends or relatives.
25. I _____ enjoy trying to do difficult tasks more than I enjoy trying to do easy tasks.
26. I _____ prefer situations where I can depend on someone else's ability rather than just my own.
27. Having someone important tell me I did a good job is _____ more important to me than feeling I've done a good job.
28. When I'm involved in something I _____ try to find out all I can about what is going on even when someone else is in charge.

Scoring

The Internal Control Index consists of 28 items with response alternatives that fall along a 5-point scale from (A) "rarely" to (E) "usually." The items are worded so that higher internally oriented subjects are expected to answer half at the "usually" end of the scale and answer the other half at the "rarely" end of the scale. The appropriate internal response is valued at 5, the opposite response alternative is valued at 1. The response (A) is valued at 5 for items 1, 2, 4, 6, 8, 11, 14, 17, 19, 22, 23, 24, 26, and 27. The response (E) is scored 5 for items 3, 5, 7, 9, 10, 12, 13, 15, 16, 18, 20, 21, 25, and 28. A maximum high internal response pattern would result in a score of 140. A minimum low internal response pattern would result in a score of 28.

APPENDIX F: Job in General Scale

Think of your job in general. All in all, what is it like most of the time? In the blank beside each word or phrase, choose:

Y for “yes” if it describes your job

N for “no” if it does not describe your job

? for “?” if you cannot decide

- | | |
|--------------------|----------------------|
| 1. Pleasant | 10. Superior |
| 2. Bad | 11. Better than most |
| 3. Ideal | 12. Disagreeable |
| 4. Waste of time | 13. Makes me content |
| 5. Good | 14. Inadequate |
| 6. Undesirable | 15. Excellent |
| 7. Worthwhile | 16. Rotten |
| 8. Worse than most | 17. Enjoyable |
| 9. Acceptable | 18. Poor |

The Job in General Scale

© Bowling Green State University 1982, 1985

APPENDIX F: Permission to Use Duttweiler's Internal Control Index

From: [REDACTED] | on behalf of permissions (US) [permissions@sagepub.com]
Sent: Wednesday, November 04, 2009 9:18 AM
To: 'Bonni Stachowiak'
Subject: RE: Request to use the Internal Control Index scale (Duttweiler)

Dear Bonni,

Thank you for your request. Please consider this written permission to use the material detailed below in your study. Proper attribution to the original source should be included. The permission does not include any 3rd party material found within the work. Please contact us for any future usage or publication of your study.

Best,
Adele

From: Bonni Stachowiak [REDACTED]
Sent: Tuesday, November 03, 2009 3:46 PM
To: permissions (US)
Cc: Bonni Stachowiak
Subject: Request to use the Internal Control Index scale (Duttweiler)

I am a doctoral student at Pepperdine working on my dissertation on locus of control and job satisfaction. I would like to use Duttweiler's Internal Control Index in my study of 100 faculty at a small, private university in Southern California. I attempted to receive permissions to use this instrument through your automated service, however it seems as if I can only receive permission to use the journal article she wrote on the instrument and I am not clear whether or not I have permission to use the instrument, itself, in my dissertation.

Duttweiler, P. (1984). The internal control index: A newly developed measure of locus of control.

Educational and Psychological Measurement, 44, 209-229.

Thank you in advance for any guidance you can provide.

Sincerely,

Bonni

Bonni Stachowiak
Assistant Professor, Vanguard University
[REDACTED]

APPENDIX G: Order Confirmation of Job in General Scale

file:///C:/Users/Bonni%20Stachowiak/Documents/My%20Dropbox/Pepperdine/Dissertation/IRB/JDI%20Order%20Notification.htm

From: JDI Research Assistance [jdi_ra@bgsu.edu]
Sent: Thursday, November 19, 2009 2:18 PM
To: [REDACTED]
Subject: JDI Order
Attachments: Stachowiak 6305.pdf; JDIJIG.pdf;
jdi_index2_reverse info.pdf

Hi Bonni,

Attached please find a copy of the JDI/JIG. This instrument may be administered 100 times. Should you need additional uses, please contact us.

A note about scoring the JDI/JIG:

I have attached another document that shows which items are to be reverse scored. For reverse scored items, Yes = 0, No = 3, and ? = 1. For items that are not reverse scored, Yes = 3, No = 0, and ? = 1. Next, add up the item scores for each facet on the measure. You should not have one overall score (i.e. you should not add up all of the facet scores). To get an overall idea of job satisfaction you should look at the sub-score for the Job in General scale. For each facet, the highest score that can be obtained is a 15. For the JIG, the highest score is a 24.

If you have missing values for some items code those as "0". If you have more than 1 missing value per aJDI facet, you cannot create a facet score. If you have more than 2 missing items for the aJIG, you cannot create an aJIG score.

If you have any additional questions please let me know.

Regards,

file:///C:/Users/Bonni%20Stachowiak/Documents/My%20Dropb...pperdine/Dissertation/IRB/JDI%20Order%20Notification.htm [11/24/2009 6:07:13 PM]

APPENDIX H: Human Subjects Training Certificate



National Cancer Institute
U.S. National Institutes of Health | www.cancer.gov

Search **GO**

[NCI Home](#) | [Cancer Topics](#) | [Clinical Trials](#) | [Cancer Statistics](#) | [Research & Funding](#) | [News](#) | [About NCI](#)



Human Participant Protections Education for Research Teams

Completion Certificate

This is to certify that

Bonni Stachowiak

has completed the **Human Participants Protection Education for Research Teams** online course, sponsored by the National Institutes of Health (NIH), on 02/27/2007.

This course included the following:

- key historical events and current issues that impact guidelines and legislation on human participant protection in research.
- ethical principles and guidelines that should assist in resolving the ethical issues inherent in the conduct of research with human participants.
- the use of key ethical principles and federal regulations to protect human participants at various stages in the research process.
- a description of guidelines for the protection of special populations in research.
- a definition of informed consent and components necessary for a valid consent.
- a description of the role of the IRB in the research process.
- the roles, responsibilities, and interactions of federal agencies, institutions, and researchers in conducting research with human participants.

National Institutes of Health
<http://www.nih.gov/>

[Home](#) | [Contact Us](#) | [Policies](#) | [Accessibility](#) | [Site Help](#) | [Site Map](#)

A Service of the National Cancer Institute



FIRSTGOV