FACULTY JOB SATISFACTION AT AN URBAN

HEALTH SCIENCE COMMUNITY COLLEGE

by
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Abstract

Background: Community colleges play a vital part in our educational landscape, with predictions that 60% of the labor force will need to have some form of post-secondary education by 2025. Because of the rapid growth in healthcare, recruiting and retaining qualified faculty to teach in community college health science programs becomes a significant consideration for administration. Therefore, job satisfaction for faculty is especially important, and it is essential for community colleges to hire and retain qualified and satisfied faculty. Frederick Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory provides the framework to explore the influencers that affect job satisfaction among faculty at an urban health science community college. **Purpose:** The purpose of this study was to determine the current level of satisfaction among health science faculty and examine the experiences and factors that determine job satisfaction at an urban community college. This study answered the following research questions: "What is the overall job satisfaction level for faculty?" and "What are the experiences and factors that determine faculty job satisfaction at an urban health science community college?" This exploration into job satisfaction of health science faculty attempts to provide a deeper understanding of job characteristics or perceptions that influence faculty satisfaction. **Methods**: The descriptive study that used an electronic survey instrument to collect data. The population included seventy-eight full-time faculty members who teach in 20 different areas of study in a large urban health science community college. The first section of the survey consisted of the 36-question Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) which used a nine-facet scale to measure attitudes and characteristics of the job. The next section of the survey asked participants to describe their experiences as it pertained to job satisfaction and then

categorize those experiences into the nine facets of the JSS: pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, coworkers, nature of work, and communication. **Results:** The JSS facets with the highest rating were Nature of Work ($M = 20.98$) and Supervision ($M = 20.02$). The JSS facets with the lowest rating were Promotion ($M = 13.16$) and Operating Conditions ($M = 12.57$). The overall summed scores for the 36 items on the JSS had a mean of 150.65 which fell within the range for satisfaction. This score was compared to the normative sample of 137.20, and the difference was significant ($p=.002$). The highest number of respondents indicated that Nature of Work ($n=36, 73.5\%$) and Coworkers ($n=35, 71.4\%$) were factors that contributed to their job satisfaction. The highest number of respondents indicated that Communication ($n=29, 59.2\%$) and Operating Conditions ($n= 25, 51.0\%$) were factors that contributed to their job dissatisfaction. Years of service had a significant positive correlation with pay at the $p<.05$ level ($r_s = .315, p = .028$). **Conclusion:** Overall, the faculty at this urban health science community college were satisfied with their jobs. The nature of their work was the factor that most lead to their satisfaction. On the other hand, communication was the factor that most lead to their job dissatisfaction.

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Chapter I

Introduction

Over 40% of students who graduated from a Title IV school went on to a two-year community college during the 2016 fall semester (Ginder, Kelly-Reid & Mann, 2017). Currently, an estimated 7.1 million students across the US are enrolled in over 1,000 community colleges. Approximately fifty-six percent of those students are female, with an overall average age of 28 years old. Community colleges graduated over 833,000 associate degree students and issued 533,000 certificates in the 2016-2017 academic year while tuition costs average almost two-thirds less than public four-year colleges (Fast Facts, 2018). Community colleges play a pivotal role in our educational landscape, as the Lumina Foundation predicts that by 2025, 60% of the labor force will need to have some form of post-secondary education certificate or two-year degree (Miller, 2018).

Community colleges not only prepare students academically, but they also play an integral role in educating and training people for entry-level positions in allied health occupations. The U.S. Department of Labor stated that as one of the fastest-growing employment areas, healthcare occupations are adding more jobs than any other workforce field. Healthcare jobs are projected to increase by over 18% between 2016 and 2026, which will add approximately 2.4 million new jobs (Healthcare Occupations, 2018). With this growth, community colleges tasked with recruiting and retaining qualified allied health faculty find few qualified candidates.

The U.S. Department of Education (2018) also reported that public post-secondary education employs over 1.46 million full and part-time faculty with approximately 329,793 of them teaching at community colleges. The success of an

organization is dependent on ensuring that those employees are satisfied with both their work and work environment (Brawley & Pury, 2015). National studies indicated that 38% of U.S. employees were very satisfied with their job, while 51% were satisfied to a lesser extent (U.S. Department of Labor, 2018).

Job satisfaction for faculty is exceptionally essential, as the job outlook for postsecondary teachers is expected to increase by 15% over the next ten years (U.S. Department of Labor, 2018). Based on the projected increased need for postsecondary teachers, it is essential for community colleges to hire and retain talented and satisfied faculty. Bateh and Heyliger (2014) discussed how job satisfaction ultimately impacts faculty retention and institution viability: "Faculty job satisfaction and its relationship to retention in higher education are business-related issues, as a 5% increase in retention can lead to a 10% reduction in costs" (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014, p. 34). Whereas, positive employee retention can increase faculty productivity between 25 and 65% (Wong & Heng, 2009). When it comes to student success, Cohen (1974) believed that "a college with an enthusiastic, personally satisfied staff is more likely to further student development than one with an apathetic group of time-servers going through the motions of information transmittal in their teaching" (p. 370). As a result, Miller (2018) found that faculty job satisfaction significantly and positively connects to student persistence and retention.

The American Psychological Association (APA) defines motivation as "the impetus that gives purpose or direction to behavior and operates in humans at a conscious or unconscious level" (American Psychological Association, n.d.). Abraham Maslow (as cited in Kushta, 2017) defined motivation as "a desire, a tendency, a drive to complete a

task or a job started earlier" (p.693). In 1964, Vroom alleged there was a connection between motivation and work performance and "the more motivated are workers in their work, the higher will their performance and results be" (as cited in Kushta, 2017, p 693).

Motivation to perform an activity for internal satisfaction or pleasure is intrinsic; whereas, motivation to perform an action for external rewards is extrinsic (Reiss, 2012). Porter and Lawler (1968) stated that together, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation positively predicted employee satisfaction (as cited in Kuvaas, Buch, Weibel, Dysvik, & Nerstad, 2017; Westover, 2012) which occurs "when an employee performs to potential then receives expected, valued rewards resulting directly from performance" (Lyons & Akroyd, 2014, p. 195).

Intrinsic motivation factors that affect job satisfaction can include acknowledgment, accomplishment, the likelihood for growth or advancement, and the work itself. Additionally, intrinsic motivation factors tend to have a positive effect on workers' attitudes and overall job happiness. On the other hand, extrinsic motivation factors that affect job satisfaction include compensation, leadership, interpersonal relationships, job security, and the work environment. These extrinsic motivation factors do not necessarily relate directly to the job itself, but to the conditions in which the employee works (Teck-Hong & Waheed, 2011; Tietjen & Myers, 1998).

Theoretical Framework

Frederick Herzberg's two-factor motivation-hygiene theory provided the framework to explore the influencers that affect job satisfaction among faculty at an urban health science community college. Herzberg's theory categorizes the constructs affecting an employee's job satisfaction into two domains: motivation factors and

hygiene factors. Herzberg (2003) identified the five intrinsic motivation factors that lead to job satisfaction: achievement, verbal recognition, the work itself, responsibility, and advancement. Bassett-Jones and Lloyd, 2005; Teck-Hong and Waheed, 2011; and Hur, 2018 believe these relate to the work content. When motivation factors exist in the work environment, "the individual's basic needs will be satisfied and positive feelings as well as along with improved performance will result" (Miner, 2005, p. 63).

The five influencers leading to job dissatisfaction include the second construct of the two-factor theory: the hygiene factor. Herzberg identified these hygiene factors as extrinsic in nature because they consist of administration and policy, quality of supervision, working conditions, interpersonal relationships, and salary, which are related to work context (Bassett-Jones & Lloyd, 2005; Hur, 2018; Teck-Hong & Waheed, 2011). When suitably afforded, these dissatisfiers "can serve to remove dissatisfaction and improve performance up to a point, but they cannot be relied upon to generate positive job feelings" (Miner, 2005 p. 63). Therefore, if the hygiene factors are missing or lacking, it can cause an increased likelihood of job dissatisfaction (Miner, 2005).

In addition to motivator and hygiene factors, studies found that sociodemographic factors also play into job satisfaction. Some research suggests that male faculty were more satisfied than their female counterparts (Callister, 2006; Castillo & Cano, 2004; Myers, 2011; Sabharwal & Corley, 2009; Seifert & Umbach, 2008). However, in health sciences, women reported increased levels of satisfaction as compared to men (Sabharwal & Corley, 2009). Race can also affect job satisfaction. Overall, white faculty are found to be more satisfied with their job as compared to non-white faculty (Wang & Liesveld, 2015). Seufert and Umbach (2005) found that white faculty were more satisfied than

Hispanic faculty, but they found no statistical difference between white and African American faculty job satisfaction. Additionally, married faculty had a higher level of job satisfaction than non-married faculty (Hagedorn, 2000; Leung, Siu, & Spector, 2000).
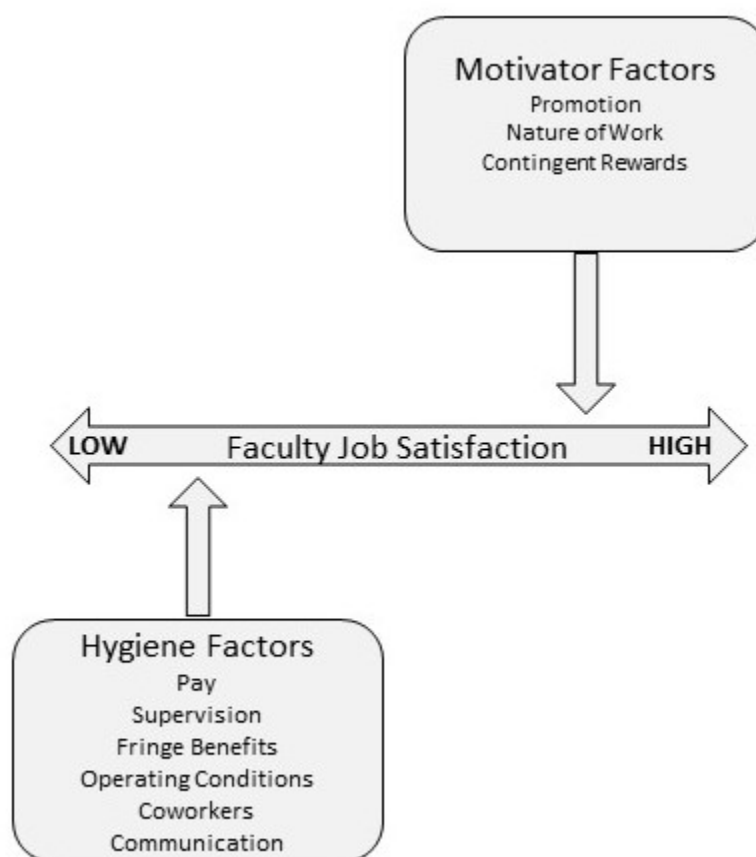
Figure 1. Theoretical Framework Model for the Study

Statement of the Problem

A great deal of research on job satisfaction included most types of organizations, including secondary and postsecondary educational institutions. Although available research focusing on postsecondary faculty job satisfaction exists, there are very few studies that focus on health sciences or allied health faculty.

Existing research studies are either program-specific or do not involve community

college faculty. Less research exists regarding sociodemographics, motivators and hygiene factors, and their effects on faculty job satisfaction, especially within a health sciences community college. Traditionally, health sciences faculty are challenging to recruit and retain because they have an abundance of clinical employment opportunities, most of which include higher compensation packages (Goldrick-Rab, 2010). As administrators engage in strategic planning, they should begin to understand their faculty's need to feel satisfied with their jobs so they can retain current and future personnel.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine the current level of health science faculty job satisfaction at an urban community college and to examine factors contributing to faculty job satisfaction.

Research Questions

The following questions were used to guide this research study:

1. What is the overall job satisfaction level for faculty at an urban health science community college?

2. What are the experiences and factors that determine faculty job satisfaction at an urban health science community college?

Context for the Study

The study took place at the health science campus within a large, diverse urban community college district. The college district has an annual enrollment of over 100,000 students with approximately 5% enrolled at the health science campus (Dashboard, 2018). Seventy-eight full-time and fifty-four part-time faculty teach in over

twenty different areas of study which are under the leadership of sixteen program directors.

The health science college awards a variety of educational pathways including occupational skills awards, certificates, and associate degrees of applied science. Occupational skills awards, such as community health worker and sterile processing technician, are designed to be less than one year which allows the student to enter the workforce immediately. Certificates, such as dental assisting, medical assistant, pharmacy technician, surgical technology and vocational nursing are one year in length with little or no pre-requisites. Lastly, the two-year associate degrees of applied science (AAS) offered at the college include dental hygiene, health information technology, human services technology, nuclear medicine, occupational therapy assistant, physical therapist assistant, respiratory therapist, and radiography.

Significance of the Problem

The American Time Use Survey (U.S. Department of Labor, 2017) showed that Americans spend an average of 8.21 hours per day engaged in working or work-related activities. Based on this statistic, faculty spend just as much time, if not more, at work than they do with family and friends. Therefore, it is essential for college leaders and supervisors to understand how satisfied faculty are at work.

In most cases, health science program departments are relatively small, with few faculty members. It is typical for a small program to have a program director with only one full-time faculty member. Further, health science faculty have more responsibilities and duties, as compared to their academic colleagues. Health science faculty not only teach in the classroom and lab, but they are responsible for practicum or clinic education,

as well as assisting with accreditation activities. Now in an era of decreased funding, faculty are required to do more with even less.

Qualified allied health faculty can be challenging to find, causing an allied health workforce shortage (Murray, Stanley, & Wright, 2014). Therefore, it should be a priority for administrators to keep their staff happy and satisfied because health science faculty positions are hard to fill. Studies show that "job satisfaction is a key predictor of intention to remain in or leave an academic position" (Seifert & Umbach, 2008, p. 357). Faculty perceptions of their supervisors are significant and when they are positive, it leads to increased job satisfaction; whereas, negative perceptions can lead to dissatisfaction (Cosgrove, 2003; White, 2000). An open allied-health faculty position can remain empty for extended periods, causing stress on other members who fill in for additional teaching assignments and auxiliary responsibilities. Health science faculty are first and foremost clinicians in their respective medical fields, and if they are dissatisfied with their work as a faculty member, they can easily transition back into practice (Goldrick-Rab, 2010). Understanding these factors affecting faculty job satisfaction can be vital to the success of the individual program and the health science college as administration and leaders strategically prepare for future student enrollment growth and retention, as well as faculty recruitment and retention.

Educational Value of the Study

This exploration into health science faculty job satisfaction attempted to provide a deeper understanding of which characteristics or perceptions influence faculty satisfaction. Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory aids to support the perceptions of faculty and workplace motivating influences. This research should give administrators

the data they need to effectively evaluate and redesign faculty positions to include the content and environment that will motivate and challenge them and to increase job satisfaction. "As faculty leaders retire and transition, filling vacant positions will also require much evaluation and thought" (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014, p. 35). The nature of the medical field and the difficulty in recruiting qualified faculty make hiring decisions a top priority. There should be a thorough understanding of faculty job satisfaction, as it may provide policymakers with the data needed to make well-informed decisions (Bozeman & Gaughan, 2011). By identifying the characteristics that influence health science faculty, college leadership can offer job enrichment for current faculty, which may ultimately result in better performance and improved job satisfaction.

Definitions

For this study, the following terms are operationally defined to provide clarity:

Allied Health: Health professions not including dentists, doctors or nurses (Healthtimes, 2017).

Communication: Communication within the organization (Spector, 2011).

Community College: A two-year government-supported college that offers a variety of certificates and associate degrees (Community College, n.d.).

Contingent Rewards: Appreciation, recognition, and rewards an employee receives for good work (Spector, 2011).

Coworkers: The people the employee works with (Spector, 2011).

Fringe Benefits: Monetary and non-monetary benefits extended to the employee outside of regular pay (Spector, 2011).

Health Science: Health professions of allied health and nursing.

Hygiene Factors: Characteristics of the workplace environment that can be a source of job dissatisfaction if they are absent or inadequate. By themselves, hygiene factors cannot create job satisfaction (Basset-Jones & Lloyd, 2005).

Job Satisfaction: Locke (1976) determined job satisfaction to be, "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (p. 1304).

Motivation Factors: Characteristics of the workplace environment that motivate employees and provide job satisfaction, which if absent, can give rise to job dissatisfaction (Bassett-Jones & Lloyd, 2005).

Nature of Work: The job task themselves (Spector, 2011).

Operating Procedures: The operating policies and procedures used within an organization (Spector, 2011).

Pay: An employee's base salary and remuneration (Spector, 2011).

Progress: Experiences of small wins or breakthroughs at work with forward movement towards goal completion (Amabile & Kramer, 2011).

Promotion: The opportunity for an employee to advance at their current place of employment (Spector, 2011).

Setback: No experience of a small win or breakthrough at work with no forward movement towards goal completion (Amabile & Kramer, 2011).

Supervision: The employee's immediate supervisor (Spector, 2011).

Limitations of the Study

One possible limitation of this study was that it only included data from one large urban community college health science campus. No other campuses within the district,

nor other health science or allied health community colleges, participated in the study. No part-time faculty participated providing only one lens of faculty job satisfaction. Although the community college population is representative of most health science colleges, there was a relatively small population of full-time faculty to survey.

Summary

Community colleges are not only critical to the community because of their academic courses and degrees, they also offer credentials that provide students with the skills and knowledge needed for entry-level positions in the workforce. With a high projected employment growth, healthcare is one area where qualified and trained individuals are in high demand and top-notch employees are a necessity for community colleges. Developing a greater insight into health science faculty job satisfaction gives college administrators the pertinent data needed to help drive strategic planning as it relates to team building, leadership development as well as for the hiring and retaining of faculty to educate the future workforce of healthcare professionals.

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Chapter II

Literature Review

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Since the early 20th century, studies involving employees and their work

environment continue to be of great interest to researchers. The first section of this

chapter reviews the major theories related to job satisfaction, including the Hierarchy of

Needs, Trichotomy of Needs, Motivation Hygiene, Expectancy, Theory X and Theory Y,

and Goal Setting. The remainder of the chapter delves into the literature relating to

general job satisfaction, faculty job satisfaction, and health science faculty job

satisfaction research.

Mayo and Western Electric Company

As early as 1930, Elton Mayo started discussing research on management and

employee relations at the Western Electric Company. Mayo intended to understand the

current industry and increase "knowledge of the general conditions that affect human

capacity for work" (Mayo, 1930, p. 327). Mayo (1930) found that they could change

employee attitudes by changing the method of supervision. When supervision turned

from giving orders and personal criticism to a technique of careful listening, it showed

"direct evidence of the worker's capacity to sustain interest in her work" (Mayo, 1930, p.

327). When supervisors improve their ability to listen effectively to their employees,

they are able to lessen lousy work habits and increase productivity (Mayo, 1930). Not

only did workers recognize the positive change in supervision, but the supervisors also

reported that employees were "easier to handle" (Mayo, 1930, p. 331).

Hierarchy of Needs Theory

One of the most noted motivation theorists, Abraham Maslow (1943), developed

the theory of human motivation. Maslow's (1943) approach created a five-tiered hierarchy of needs that affect motivation. The five needs identified are: physiological (food and water), safety (security and safety), love (affection and belonging), esteem (prestige and recognition), and self-actualization (reaching full potential). Maslow (1943) postulated that the underlying motivation for human beings is the satisfaction of the physiological needs that support homeostasis. Once one set of needs is satisfied, the next level of needs becomes the individual's motivating factor. Satisfied needs are not a motivator, only unmet needs motivate a person. A higher-level need is not satisfied until lower-level needs are satisfied (Maslow, 1943).

Trichotomy of Needs Theory

Based on an individual's need for achievement, power, and affiliation (Fisher, 2009; Harrell & Stahl, 1981, 1984; Schuler, Baumann, Chasiotis, Bender, & Baum, 2018), David McClelland applied the idea of "human needs to explain human motivation and personality" (Schuler et al., 2018, p. 1) to his needs-based theory. "Although everyone is motivated somewhat by all three, most workers will be motivated most strongly by one" (Fisher, 2009, p. 349). People with high needs for achievement want personal accountability for problem-solving, set challenging goals, and have a strong desire for performance feedback (Harrell & Stahl, 1984). Achievement seekers "are motivated by the possibility of success and fear of failure" (Fisher, 2009, p. 353), while individuals with heightened desires for power yearn to influence groups of people and often have the drive to seek and maintain leadership roles (Harrell & Stahl, 1984). The need for control can often be satisfied when given the opportunity to lead teams (Fisher, 2009) and the desire for power is a common attribute among competent supervisors

(Harrell & Stahl, 1981). Workers' with a high need for affiliation value others' feelings and have a strong desire to cultivate and maintain deep and friendly connections (Harrell & Stahl, 1984) and perform at their highest "once given opportunities to feel accepted and avoid rejection" (Fisher, 2009, p. 253).

Motivation-Hygiene Theory

In 1959, Frederick Herzberg and his colleagues compiled data from accountants and engineers for a study in which he identified the two factors that impact job satisfaction (Teck-Hong & Waheed, 2011). During the interviews, Herzberg (1959) asked participants to describe "any kind of story you like – either a time when you felt terrific or a time when you felt terrible about your job" (as cited in Smerek & Peterson, 2007). Motivators were the positive feelings toward the employees' job and were related to the content (Miner, 2005; Teck-Hong & Waheed, 2011). The negative attitudes toward their jobs were related to context and identified as hygiene factors (Miner, 2005; Teck-Hong & Waheed, 2011). In comparison to Maslow's hierarchy theory, Herzberg's hygiene factors correspond to lower-order needs, and the motivator factors connect to higher-order needs (Hur, 2018). Herzberg (2003) argued that "the opposite of job satisfaction is not job dissatisfaction, but rather *no* job satisfaction; and similarly, the opposite of job dissatisfaction is not job satisfaction, but *no* job dissatisfaction" (p. 56). Herzberg's "theory challenged the dominant theoretical assumptions prevailing at the time that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction could be presented on a continuum" (Basset-Jones & Lloyd, 2005, p. 932). This concept was "a radical departure" (Smerek & Peterson, 2007, p. 231) from what other scholars believed to be valid at the time by stating that "job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction result from different causes"

(Udechukwu, 2009, p. 78).

Herzberg hypothesized that the motivators such as responsibility, advancement, recognition, achievement, and the work itself motivated employees who then led to increased job satisfaction (Bassett-Jones & Lloyd, 2005; Herzberg, 2003; Smerek & Peterson, 2007; Teck-Hong & Waheed, 2011; Hur, 2018). These motivators, also called satisfiers, are factors that concern job performance. When present, satisfiers motivate workers to perform at higher levels because they find these factors intrinsically rewarding (Foor & Cano, 2011) and meet their psychological needs (Hur, 2018).

Herzberg believes that hygiene factors such as interpersonal relationships, supervision, working conditions, and salary are not motivators, and while their existence does not create job satisfaction, their absence can initiate dissatisfaction (Gawel, 1997). Hygiene factors are only essential to avoid negative feelings at work (Teck-Hong & Waheed, 2011). While the absence of hygiene factors can lead to job dissatisfaction, they are not related to work performance and an increase in hygiene does not improve employee motivation (Lazaroiu, 2015). Herzberg (1968) stressed that "the only way to motivate the employee is to give him challenging work in which he can assume responsibility" (p. 53).

In 1976, by moving the focus to job enrichment factors, Herzberg expanded on the two-factor principle and subsequently classified workers into four categories based on groupings of the motivation and hygiene factors (Miner, 2005). Table 1 outlines the four possible combinations of motivation and hygiene a worker could possess.

Table 1

Combinations of Motivation and Hygiene Factors

Motivation	Hygiene	
High	High	Employees are highly motivated and have few complaints. Considered the "best" type of employee
High	Low	Employees are highly motivated but have a high amount of criticisms
Low	High	Employees are not highly motivated but have few criticisms
Low	Low	Employees are not motivated and have a high amount of criticisms. Considered the "worst" type of employee

Note. Reprinted from "Implications, Limitations & Suggestions of Two Factor Theory of Motivation," by Rao Kunchala, K.S., 2017, May 13. Retrieved from http://www.mbahelp24.com/implications-limitations-suggestions-two-factor-theory-motivation/

Expectancy Theory

In 1964, shortly after Herzberg's original study, Victor H. Vroom developed the expectancy theory or VIE theory in his book *Work and Motivation.* Vroom (2005) defined motivation as the explanation of choices made among different behaviors that are under central or voluntary control"(p. 247). He believes that "motivation was the process underlying choices that were hypothesized to be influenced by their expected consequences"(Vroom, 2005, p.247). "The strength of a tendency to act in a certain way depends on the strength of an expectation that a given outcome will follow the act and on the attractiveness of that outcome to the individual" (Suciu, Mortan, & Lazar, 2013, p. 183). Vroom (1964) states that "the choices made by a person among alternative courses of action are lawfully related to psychological events occurring contemporaneously with the behavior" (as cited in Suciu et al., p. 184).

Vroom's theory states that motivation has three distinct components. The first

component is instrumentality. Vroom describes this as the thought that good performance will produce projected results. These results may be in the form of promotions, higher pay, or recognition. The second component is valence, which refers to the expected value of the anticipated result. The higher the value a person places on a reward, the more driven that person will be to expend effort. The last component is expectancy, which is the belief that a person's effort will result in the anticipated outcome. If employees believe that hard work will result in higher pay, they exert more effort (Harris, Murphy, DiPietro, & Line, 2017).

Criticizing Vroom's theory because of its ambiguity, Lyman Porter and Edward Lawler expanded on the expectancy theory by describing the relationship among effort, performance, and satisfaction (Kesselman, Hagen, & Wherry, 1974). In this iteration, Porter and Lawler consider additional variables, including effort, abilities and traits, and role perceptions (Vruwink & Otto, 1987). Further, they categorize motivational rewards as either intrinsic or extrinsic and "indicate that satisfaction directly influences the value of rewards and that the contingency between performance and rewards affects an individual's perceived effort-reward probability" (Kesselman et al., 1974).

Theory X and Theory Y

Douglas McGregor wrote about his motivation theory in his 1960 book, *The Human Side of Enterprise*. McGregor believes that there are two opposing viewpoints of human nature at work, which he categorizes as Theory X and Theory Y. Theory X describes supervisors as pessimistic toward their workers and that employees dislike work and are innately unmotivated. In this case, Theory X assumes that employees need constant supervision, are not motivated to work, need ongoing direction, and have no

incentive to perform well (Kopelman, Prottas, & Davis, 2008; Lawter, Kopelman, & Prottas, 2015). Because of these Theory X beliefs, employees "must therefore be coerced, controlled, directed and threatened with punishment to get them to work toward goals, and most people probably prefer the security of being so treated" (Goldman, 1983, p. 306).

On the other hand, Theory Y supervisors possess a more optimistic opinion of their employees because they believe they enjoy the work and are naturally motivated. Theory Y assumes that workers are content to work, self-motivated, take ownership, view work as fulfilling, and do not need to be induced by rewards to be productive or successful (Kopelman et al., 2008; Lawter et al., 2015). Theory Y notes that "people will seek and accept responsibility which is satisfying, and that avoidance of work is a learned characteristic rather than an inherent one" (Goldman, 1983, p. 306).

Locke and Latham's Goal Setting Theory

Locke and Latham's (1990) theory of goal-setting motivation emphasizes that task performance is regulated by the conscious, attainable goals that individuals work toward. The theory implies that setting precise and challenging goals leads to better performance as compared to ambiguous or simple goals, or no goals at all. Setting goals in such a way that allows reachability or completion and situational limitations must not impede the achievement of the goals.

For goals to impact performance, there must be a commitment to the goal (Locke & Latham, 1990). Goal commitment is at its highest level when individuals believe the goals can be attained and attaches value to achieving it (Locke, Latham, & Erez,1988). Workers' performance is at its maximum when they are highly committed to reaching

their goals (Locke & Latham, 2002) and when the perception of the goals is more challenging to achieve (Locke & Latham, 1990). Employers who assign goals to an employee creates the same level of obligation and performance as allowing individuals to set their own goals (Locke & Latham, 1990).

In addition to commitment, individuals also need to have meaningful feedback for goals to be practical. When individuals receive feedback, it is easier for them to alter effort or performance as required to meet the goal. Individuals usually increase their effort or change their approach if they receive feedback that they are below their target (Locke & Latham, 2002). "Goal setting is more effective, and usually only effective when feedback allows performance to be tracked in relation to one's goals. Goal setting without feedback appears to have little long-term effect on performance"(Locke & Latham, 1990, p. 241). However, feedback only motivates "higher performance when it leads to the setting of higher goals" (Locke & Latham, 1979) and enhanced performance is inhibited when feedback is not available or not given (Locke & Latham, 1990). Additionally, when feedback is self-generated, it leads to higher performance as compared to the supervisor provided feedback (Locke, Latham, & Ertz, 1988).

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction has garnered the attention of researchers since the 1930s. During which time Robert Hoppock conducted a study in a small town in New Jersey and found that one-third of those surveyed were dissatisfied with their jobs. The most common reasons for dissatisfaction were a result of social and economic status (Burtt, 1937). Hoppock also suggested that the employer should provide more praise to personnel for functional outcomes (Burtt, 1937).

Hoppock believed that job satisfaction derived from an employee's response to stressful situations, adjustment to other people, social and economic security and status as compared to others, the relationship of work to skills and interests, and allegiance to the company. Hoppock also found that 60% of those surveyed found more satisfaction at work than they did when they were not at work (Burtt, 1937). In a subsequent study, Hoppock (1937) had similar findings with a group of psychologists who also received more satisfaction from their work than they did outside of work.

Expanding on Hoppock's work, research conducted at the University of Minnesota School of Nursing found that 60% of nurses were highly satisfied, 20% were dissatisfied, and the remaining 20% were not dissatisfied but "failed to attain what might be considered an optimum occupation adjustment" (Nahm, 1940, p. 1392). Nahm (1940) also proposed that there appeared to be a connection between job satisfaction and income, as he found that nurses with annual salaries over $1,000 were more satisfied. In later studies, researchers believed they could use the Tear Ballot for Industry to predict future job satisfaction by examining a worker's past job satisfaction. They found that those having lower job satisfaction in their present jobs are the same workers who have had high turnover rates in the past because they were dissatisfied with their jobs (Kerr, 1948).

Stapel (1950) delved deeper into past studies, including Haddock's work, by questioning whether job satisfaction or just satisfaction was measured. Stapel (1950) found that factors outside of the job (marriage or health) had as much to do with job satisfaction as did salary and other job characteristics. In the 1950s, Weitz and Nuckols (1955) attempted to examine the connection between satisfaction and dissatisfaction with specific job aspects and the performance of insurance agents. The primary criterion for

analyzation of the results was survival or termination after the survey completion.

Excluded from the results were agents who retired, died, or entered military service

(Weitz & Nuckols, 1955). The results indicated that those agents that were terminated or

quit were just as satisfied with their organization and job duties as those individuals who

were considered survivors. However, turnover hinged on the agent's dissatisfaction with

training, supervision, and job uncertainty felt by new agents (Weitz & Nuckols, 1955).

Studies in the 1960s began to focus more on specific aspects of job satisfaction,

such as gender differences and women in the workforce. Hulin and Smith (1964) studied

two plastic plants, one cardboard products plant in New England and one brass factory in

the Midwest with a sample that included 295 male and 163 female workers. The

researchers found that in three out of the four plants, females indicated increased

dissatisfaction as compared to their male counterparts, and no difference existed in the

fourth plant. Hill (1968) found that women were satisfied with jobs that allowed them to

use their intellect and abilities adequately and provided them with a sense of

accomplishment. Likewise, women in positions providing no meaning or purpose or

were considered dull or fragmented were highly dissatisfied (Hill, 1968).

The 1970s found a great deal of research on the differences in job satisfaction and

race. White nurses (O'Reilly & Roberts, 1973), bank employees and civil service

employees (Smith, Smith, & Rollo, 1974) reported higher job satisfaction rates than their

non-Caucasian counterparts. On the other hand, Gavin and Ewen (1974) stated that black

workers were more likely to use tardiness to express their job dissatisfaction while the

relationship between age and length of service were higher for blacks than whites.

Additionally, they found that both whites and blacks in similar positions within the same

company have the same perceptions of their jobs, but blacks were found to have slightly higher job satisfaction (Gavin & Ewen, 1974). Similarly, data from the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth (NLSY) from 1966, 1969 and 1971 found that black workers had higher job satisfaction than white workers (Mukerjee, 2013).

How educational level and the occupation itself related to job satisfaction remained the focus of analysis by Gruenberg (1980). Gruenberg (1980) found that both intrinsic and extrinsic motivators were influential factors of overall job satisfaction, regardless of educational background. The researchers noted that intrinsic motivators were significant to all occupations, while the importance of extrinsic factors varied among professions. Extrinsic factors played a smaller part in overall job satisfaction in skilled and professional trades than in unskilled, semiskilled, or clerical occupations. Additional studies throughout the decade found that job satisfaction was higher in employees recruited through referrals, as opposed to newspaper advertisements (Latham & Leddy, 1987). Job satisfaction also was higher with older employees than individuals with longer lengths of service (Brush, Moch & Pooyan, 1987). However, satisfaction was low when employees got more than what they wanted or expected regarding their work effort, the amount of customer contact, or the number of work hours per week. Likewise, low satisfaction also occurred when employees got less than they expected concerning health insurance, communication with co-workers, and decision making (Rice, McFarlin & Bennett, 1989).

Gregson (1987) found that the modified, shorter multiple-choice Job Descriptive Index (JDI) survey was just as reliable as long more in-depth surveys in measuring job satisfaction. Using this modified survey, Gregson (1990) reported that female workers

were less satisfied with their jobs regarding promotion opportunities, but satisfaction increased as their tenure increased. He also found that as each dimension of job satisfaction increased (work, pay, promotions, supervision, and co-workers), the intent to leave decreased significantly (Gregson, 1990).

Amabile and Kramer (2011) found that a person's perception of progress in their work is a factor in an employee's happiness at work. They found that this progress is one of the most critical aspects of a satisfied employee. Likewise, when employees perceived the work day to be "bad," they experienced a setback and did not produce. Amabile and Kramer's (2011) findings parallel Herzberg's conclusions in that: "People are most satisfied with their jobs (and therefore most motivated) when those jobs give them the opportunity to experience achievement (p. 74).

Pay. The effect of salary on job satisfaction is a continuous topic of research. Herzberg considered salary to be a hygiene factor, therefore deeming it a non-motivating factor related to job satisfaction. This concept was verified through a literature meta-analysis conducted by Judge, Piccolo, Podsakoff, Shaw, and Rich (2010), which reported that lawyers earning $143,000 per year were less satisfied with their jobs than childcare workers earning $23,500; therefore, indicating making more money has very little impact on overall job satisfaction. However, when employees are unsatisfied with their pay, there is a much higher instance that the employee will resign (Jung & Yoon, 2015; Wang, Chen, Hyde, & Hsieh, 2010).

Promotion. Studies found that workers displayed higher satisfaction levels with their workplace as well as their jobs when a selection instrument was utilized as part of their promotion system. Employees believed it to be a fairer process than when the promotion decision was made exclusively by the supervisor (Garcia-Izquierdo, Moscoso, & Ramos-Villagrasa, 2012). When administration uses fair and unbiased procedures with set and published criteria for promotion, employees are more likely to be satisfied with their jobs and will be more apt to engage in desired workplace behaviors (Garcia-Izquierdo et al., 2012; Post, Koch, & Roberts, 2007).

Leadership. Employee perceptions of their supervisor's leadership behaviors are significantly related to job satisfaction (Sellgren, Ekvall, & Tomson, 2008). Transactional leadership assumes that followers receive specific and clear expectations and subsequently receive rewards for meeting the stated goals and objectives (Deichmann & Stam, 2015). "Exhibiting transactional leadership means that followers agree with, accept, or comply with the leader in exchange for praise, rewards, and resources or to avoid disciplinary action" (Liu, Liu, & Zeng, 2011, p. 284). Military studies also suggest that transactional leadership increases safety performance (Martinez-Corcoles & Stephanou, 2017). Furthermore, Jung has demonstrated that transactional leadership has a positive influence on worker creativity (2001), while other studies show a more negative relationship especially regarding employee creativity (Pieterse, Van Knippenberg, Schippers, & Stam, 2010). However, further studies also show that transactional leadership can have a more negative influence on worker job satisfaction (Riaz & Haider, 2010; Emery & Barker, 2007). Therefore, the transactional leadership theory can be considered by some as being a less desirable way of leading an

organization forward and is not nearly as effective as transformational leadership on job satisfaction (Birasnav, 2014).

James Burns developed the theory of transformational leadership which involves creating a vision and inspiring followers. He found that transformational leaders moved followers in such a way as "to transcend their self-interests for the sake of their group, organization, or society" (Bass, 1993, p.376). Burns also alleged that transformational leadership offered the environment needed for the positive advancement of the organization as well as the followers (Bass, 1993). Furthermore, employees with transformational leaders have significantly higher rates of job satisfaction (Braun, Peus, Weisweiler & Frey, 2013; Riaz & Haider, 2010).

Laissez-faire leadership occurs when the leader avoids responsibility with followers, does not respond to problems, resists expressed views and delays response (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008, p. 1235). "Laissez-faire leadership is considered as non-strategic or absent leadership which is at the opposite end of transformational or transactional leadership" (Yang, 2015, p. 1246). Subordinates view laissez-faire leaders as ineffective because of a lack of leadership skills and abilities (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008; Yang, 2015). Additional studies added that laissez-faire leadership significantly increases job dissatisfaction by what is "experienced not only as ineffective but as highly negative or even destructive over time" (Skogstad, Aasland, Nielsen, Hetland, Matthiesen, & Einarsen, 2014).

Fringe benefits. Herzberg classified fringe benefits, both monetary and non-monetary, as hygiene factors, and as such do not increase job satisfaction. Furthermore, past research on how fringe benefits influence job satisfaction is inconclusive and support Herzberg's theory. However, Artz (2010), contradicts this assumption when looking at eight fringe benefits using over 24,000 observations from the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth. Flexible work schedules, pensions, parental leave, employer paid daycare, and profit-sharing showed to have a positive and substantial effect on job satisfaction. There was no significance found with dental insurance and vacation days, while health insurance was the only benefit to show negative significance (Artz, 2010). Likewise, a survey of 274 benefits over five years showed that 69% of an employee's rank fringe benefits in the top 5 aspects of their job impacting their satisfaction (Anonymous, 2009).

Contingent rewards. Management uses contingent employee rewards as a means to improve job performance. These rewards can be practices such as pay for performance or management practices that are designed to make work more intrinsically fulfilling (Fernandez & Moldogaziev, 2015). Cornelissen, Heywood, and Jirjahn (2011) suggest that performance pay results in higher job satisfaction although these employees can find this type of compensation as a form of control, thereby causing lower morale and loss of autonomy. Fernandez and Moldogaziev (2015) agree that performance pay is experienced by employees "as attempts to control behavior and are thus negatively related to intrinsic motivation, and in turn, to satisfaction" (p. 379). Employees who rely heavily on financial rewards are innately less intrinsically motivated, less dedicated to their job, and more likely to leave (Hofmans, De Gieter, & Pepermans, 2013). However,

Han, Bartol, and Kim (2015) contradict this by suggesting that pay for performance can act as a strong motivational force because the employees can directly affect their performance, therefore, impacting their monetary rewards.

On the other hand, "managerial interventions that provide greater autonomy and feedback may increase job satisfaction by making work more meaningful and intrinsically satisfying" (Fernandez & Moldogaziev, 2015, p. 379) and is highly correlated with job satisfaction. Empowering an employee's autonomy increases self-motivation and is a significant precursor to job satisfaction (Fernandez & Moldogaziev, 2015; Theurer, Tumasjan, & Welpe, 2018). Additionally, Hofmans et al., (2013) found that job satisfaction positively corresponds to the employee's satisfaction with non-monetary rewards.

Working conditions. Working conditions impact job satisfaction, not only by objective measures but by how employees see their position compared to others. Therefore, natural biases exist in how levels of job satisfaction are measured (Poggi, 2010). Working conditions refer to "the physical, biochemical and psychosocial exposures and demands that are related to a job" (Van Aerden, Moors, Levecque, Vanroelen, 2015, p. 66) such as working hours, environment, atmosphere, and job security. Poggi (2010) suggests that those employees who aspire to working conditions greater than their reality have lower job satisfaction; whereas, employees with working conditions higher than their expectations, experience increased job satisfaction. When there is a prevalence of harms (repetitive movements, uncomfortable working positions, time pressures, heavy lifting, heat/cold, and noise, etc.), it positively correlates with job dissatisfaction and increased incidences of absences (Bockerman & Ilmakunnas, 2008).

Another study suggests that even with favorable or rewarding positions, employees display a higher level of job dissatisfaction when erratic work schedules are present (Van Aerden, Puig, Barrachina, Bosmans, & Vanroelen, 2016). An excellent working atmosphere "increases loyalty, level of commitment, efficiency and effectiveness, productivity, and also develops a sense of ownership among employees which ultimately increases organizational effectiveness" (Raziq & Maulabakhsh, 2015, p.723). When employees perceive a working environment as unsafe or dangerous, job satisfaction decreases (Jiang, Lambert, Liu, & Zhang, 2018).

Co-workers. Relationships and interactions with co-workers can also influence job satisfaction, as employees often work in teams and rely on each other for motivation and completing projects or tasks (Brummelhuis, Bakker, & Euwema, 2010). Employee relationships benefit co-workers intra-personally through stimulating work and interpersonally through pleasing interactions and social support (Ilies, Lanaj, Pluut, & Goh, 2018). Brummelhuis', et al. (2010) study of over 1400 co-worker dyads found that team members were negatively affected by other employees' family to work interferences, which led to burnout and lower work engagement levels. Interpersonal fulfillment through co-worker support, however, had a significantly positive impact on job satisfaction (Ilies et al., 2018). Colbert, Bono, and Purvanova (2016) show that job satisfaction significantly correlates with task assistance from co-workers as having a positive impact on job satisfaction. Furthermore, "employees lucky enough to have coworkers who supported their climb up the career ladders were more satisfied with their jobs" (Colbert et al., 2016, p. 1207). Supervisors who perceive their coworkers and subordinates to be competent also reported higher job satisfaction (Ling & Loo, 2015).

Nature of work. The nature of an employee's work, or the job tasks themselves (Spector, 2011), has a direct impact on job satisfaction Dierdorff & Morgeson, (2013) stated "occupations high in achievement or independence offer greater reinforcement opportunities for feelings of accomplishment, ability utilization and innovation, which in turn promote satisfaction" (p. 694). Employees with meaningful work that provides variety (Jiang et al., 2018) allows them to utilize their entire skillset and maintain autonomy resulting in higher satisfaction (Dierdorff & Morgeson, 2013; Ling & Loo, 2012). Complex problem-solving tasks, the utilization of a wide range of work skills, and the completion of significant duties, along with meaningful feedback increase levels of job satisfaction (Dierdorff & Morgeson, 2013; Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006). Satisfaction is strong when employees have the autonomy to handle problems and issues on their own and are receptive to accepting more challenging work (Fernandez & Moldogaziev, 2015).

Communication. Multiple research studies found that communication between coworkers, as well as between supervisors and employees, have a direct effect on job satisfaction. Downward supportive communication between supervisors and subordinates, horizontal supportive communication between coworkers (De Nobile, 2017), and the degree in which work-related information is communicated to employees, known as instrumental communication (Jiang et al., 2018), are predictors of job satisfaction. Communication with supervisors or administration is a predictor of job satisfaction (Vermeir et al., 2018). Further, an employee's satisfaction with communication inside an organization is a predictor of satisfaction with contingent

rewards, co-workers, nature of work, pay, promotion, and overall job satisfaction (Nikolic, Vukonjanski, Nedeljkovic, Hadzic, & Terek, 2013).

Faculty Job Satisfaction

Faculty job satisfaction garners a great deal of consideration from researchers. In general, higher education faculty tend to speak positively about their work and find teaching, students, and the flexibility to structure teaching around their personal lives as sources of job satisfaction (Waltman, Bergom, Hollenshead, Miller, & August, 2012). Similarly, community college faculty indicate that they are satisfied with their jobs (Linville, Antony, & Hayden, 2011). Additionally, community college faculty have a higher level of overall job satisfaction than do the four-year faculty (Kim, D., Twombly, S., & Wolf-Wendel, L. 2008). However, faculty feel that a lack of security (due to relatively short contract lengths) contributes to job dissatisfaction (Waltman et al., 2012).

Bozeman and Gaughan (2011) categorized the determinants of faculty job satisfaction as demographic characteristics, colleague relations, and extrinsic pay incentives. Tenured faculty and male faculty are more satisfied than non-tenured or women faculty (Bozeman & Gaughan (2011). Webber & Rogers (2018) found non-tenured faculty tend to be more satisfied than their tenured counterparts.

However, the more hours spent teaching undergraduates reduced job satisfaction, while the number of hours spent on grant writing or research did not impact faculty satisfaction but increased when faculty felt their salary reflected their worth (Bozeman & Gaughan, 2011). A 2013 study found 90% of faculty were satisfied with their jobs and 45% report recognition as a motivating factor in their satisfaction. However, 60% of faculty reported compensation as a factor of dissatisfaction (Shaikh, Khan, Bibi, 2013).

Hagedorn (1994) found that proximity to retirement is an accurate measurement gauge for faculty job satisfaction. Faculty years to retirement were classified as either 25+ years, 15 to 20 years, or less than five years (Hagedorn, 1994). Each group demonstrated that salary was a vital aspect of their job satisfaction and especially crucial to those closer to retirement. Newer faculty found satisfaction in encouraging relationships with supervision and student-faculty interactions. Faculty at the mid-point of their careers found the highest satisfaction with pay, while salary, administration and low stress predicted satisfaction at retirement age (Hagedorn, 1994).

Pay inequity for female faculty plays a factor in reduced levels of overall job satisfaction, which leads to an increased likelihood of turnover due to more stress factors (Hagedorn, 1996). Hagedorn (1996) reported that although men received financial rewards for the number of years in academia, the pay women received based on the number of years at their present organization was significantly lower than their male counterparts. While male faculty in research institutions received higher pay, no difference existed for female faculty in research versus non-research institutions. Hagedorn (1996) found that "a more equitable salary distribution with respect to gender" (p. 589) was found in two-year colleges and were compensated better than faculty at research institutions.

A study of 30,000 faculty from 4-year institutions, Webber and Rogers (2018) found that 19% reported being dissatisfied with their jobs while 68% reported their overall job satisfaction as highly or very highly satisfied, with no significant difference noted between genders. Older male faculty were more likely to report job dissatisfaction as compared to their younger counterparts. Asian faculty expressed more dissatisfaction

than white faculty, while no difference existed between black and white faculty (Webber & Rogers, 2018).

Health Science Faculty Job Satisfaction

Research about health science faculty is sparse, and only examines one program or discipline at a time and is not an overarching view of an entire faculty. Less research exists concerning health science faculty in community colleges, except in the nursing arena.

A study of 698 physical therapy faculty found a low but significant correlation between an increased turnover and fewer years in academia. Researchers reported 10% of the studied faculty resigned within one year of employment (Radtka, 1993). Radtka suggested that the administration look at a job redesign, recruitment, and retention plans, and development programs for new faculty to mitigate the high turnover (Radtka, 1993). Subsequently, Harrison, Kelly, and Soderberg (1996) conducted a survey of 127 physical therapy schools with an 85% response rate to look at job satisfaction of non-tenured faculty with five or fewer years in academia. Contrary to Radtka's conclusions, Harrison's et al., (1996) results indicated that despite experiencing feelings of loneliness, heavy workloads and lack of guidance from senior faculty; 83% of the respondents were satisfied with their employment as a faculty member. A study of allied health faculty at the University of Oklahoma found that tenure was essential to faculty, but they had little understanding of the tenure process. Faculty indicated difficulty in performing the required scholarship activities to become tenured (Epple Calvert, Vaughn, Sullivan, & Garn, 2007).

Swafford and Legg (2009) studied job satisfaction of radiography educators

teaching in nationally accredited programs at the certificate, associate, and baccalaureate degree levels. Of the 90 respondents, 54.5% rated their job satisfaction as low, and 16.7% rated it as high. Company policies, lack of advancement opportunities, and salary contribute to low job satisfaction (Swafford & Legg, 2009). A more recent study at an international health science college found similar results in that intrinsic factors play a noteworthy part in job satisfaction for faculty members. Predictors of faculty job satisfaction included work independence, salary, and quality of tasks. The level of education was significant to job satisfaction and the intention to resign. The research also concluded that married and older faculty were more extrinsically satisfied than their single and younger counterparts (Britiller & Thabet, 2015). Another study found that nursing educators ages 25 to 29 were more satisfied than those 40 and older (Arian, Soleimani, Oghazian, 2018). However, university nursing faculty with increased satisfaction levels received higher pay and took advantage of promotion opportunities (Moody, 1996; Tang & Ghani, 2012). Reported violence among nursing students did not affect male professors; however, it was a factor of job dissatisfaction among female professors (Arian et al., 2018). Finally, a study of 638 dentists reported them to be more satisfied with their co-workers, the opportunity to use their abilities, and the amount of job variety, but less satisfied with their working conditions and work hours (Goetz, Schuldei, Steinhauser, 2018).

Summary

This chapter explored research currently available regarding job satisfaction. The first section included a review of the major motivation and job satisfaction theorists including early work by Mayo. Other theories discussed included Maslow's Hierarchy of

Needs, McClelland's Trichotomy of Needs, Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene and

Vroom's Expectancy theory. The subsequent sections contained a review of the literature

relating to general job satisfaction, faculty job satisfaction and health science faculty job

satisfaction. In Chapter 3, the methodology of the research study is presented.

Chapter III

Methodology

The purpose of this study was to determine the current level of health science faculty job satisfaction and examine contributing factors leading to job satisfaction at an urban community college. This chapter explains the research methodology by presenting a description of the research questions, research variables, research instruments, and research design including participants, data collection procedures, and data analysis related to the study.

Research Questions

The following research questions guided this study:

1. What is the overall job satisfaction level for faculty at an urban health science community college?

2. What are the experiences and factors that determine faculty job satisfaction at an urban health science community college?

Variables. The variables and constructs for this study are outlined in Table 2.

Table 2

Constructs, Variables and Measures

Research Question	Construct/Variable	Measure
RQ1: What is the overall job satisfaction level?	Job Satisfaction	Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) – 9 facets
RQ2: What are the experiences and factors?	Lived Experience	Categorization of experiences

Measures. This descriptive, quantitative study utilized a three-section instrument delivered to participants via the Qualtrics online survey platform. The first section of the survey utilized the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) created by Paul E. Spector (1985). The instrument is provided free for educational research purposes provided no fees are charged during the research and the results are shared with the survey's author. The JSS is a thirty-six question, nine facet scale used to measure attitudes toward the job as well as characteristics of the job (Spector, 2011). For this study, the researcher transcribed the content in the JSS from the paper instrument to an electronic format.

Through two multiple response items, the second section of the survey provided respondents with two directives. The first was to describe a time when you had a "good" day or experience at work or when you were satisfied with your job. The second was to describe a time when you had a "bad" day or experience at work or when you were dissatisfied with your job. The respondents were then asked to use the nine JSS facets to categorize their "good" and "bad" day experiences. In addition to the 9 JSS facet choices of pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication, the respondents were also able to choose "progress" and "other" for satisfaction as well "setbacks" and "other" for dissatisfaction. The last item on the survey asked the participants to categorize their years of service as <5 years, 5 – 10 years, 11 – 15 years, 16 – 20 years, 21 – 25 years, and > 25 years. The nine facets of job satisfaction and their descriptions are included in Table 3 below.

Table 3

The Nine Job Satisfaction Facets and Corresponding Descriptions

Facet	Description
Pay	Pay and remuneration
Promotion	Promotion opportunities
Supervision	Immediate supervisor
Fringe Benefits	Monetary and non-monetary fringe benefits
Contingent Rewards	Appreciation, recognition, and rewards for good work
Operating Procedures	Operating policies and procedures
Coworkers	People you work with
Nature of Work	Job tasks themselves
Communication	Communication within the organization

Note. Reprinted from "Job Satisfaction Survey, JSS," by Spector, P. E. 2011, July 10. Retrieved from http://shell.cas.usf.edu/~pspector/scales/jsspag.html

Scales and subscales. The JSS consists of four questions for each of the nine facets of job satisfaction for a total of thirty-six questions. The nine scales or facets include pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication. The survey consisted of a summated rating scale format with six answer choices for each question ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree" (Spector, 2011).

The last section on the survey collected demographic data. Based on ethical considerations and the sensitive nature of the topic, the participants were only asked to disclose their years of service. Participants were asked to categorize their years of service as <5 years, 5 – 10 years, 11 – 15 years, 16 – 20 years, 21 – 25 years, and > 25 years.

Table 4

Facets of the Job Satisfaction Survey

Facet	Item numbers
Pay	1, 10, 19, 28
Promotion	2, 11, 20, 33
Supervision	3, 12, 21, 30
Fringe Benefits	4, 13, 22, 29
Contingent rewards	5, 14, 23, 32
Operating conditions	6, 15, 24, 31
Coworkers	7, 16, 25, 34
Nature of work	8, 17, 27, 35
Communication	9, 18, 26, 36
Total satisfaction	1-36

Note. Reprinted from "Job Satisfaction Survey, JSS," by Spector, P. E. 2011, July 10. Retrieved from http://shell.cas.usf.edu/~pspector/scales/jsspag.html

Reliability and Validity. The reliability and validity of the JSS were computed by Spector (1985) through collecting data from 2,870 participants. The internal consistency reliability for all but two facets were over 0.70, and the entire scale was 0.91. When conducted eighteen months later, a test-retest received a 0.71 correlation coefficient for the complete scale (Spector, 1985). The internal consistency reliabilities of the JSS are outlined in Table 5.

Table 5

Internal Consistency Reliabilities for the Job Satisfaction Survey

Scale	Alpha
Pay	.75
Promotion	.73
Supervision	.82
Fringe Benefits	.73
Contingent Rewards	.76
Operating Procedures	.62
Coworkers	.60
Nature of Work	.78
Communication	.71
Total	.91

Note. Reprinted from "Job Satisfaction Survey, JSS," by Spector, P. E. 2011, July 10. Retrieved from http://shell.cas.usf.edu/~pspector/scales/jsspag.html

Research Design

Participants. The population for this research was seventy-eight full-time health science faculty at a large urban community college who taught in the twenty areas of study within the health science college. Faculty participation was voluntary, and involvement in this research did not in any way affect their current standing as a faculty member.

Data collection procedures. The University of Houston's Qualtrics online platform was used to develop, distribute, gather and aggregate the data collected for this research. All full-time faculty members received an emailed link to the electronic survey instrument (N=78). Included in the email was an introductory letter from the researcher inviting faculty to participate. The e-mail included instructions on how to access the

survey and the contact information for the researcher and his supervising faculty member from the University of Houston, Dr. Robert Hausmann. Faculty were reassured that their participation in the survey was voluntary and they would not be identified in any manner in the results. When the instrument was ready for input, faculty were encouraged to participate. Reminders were sent out on days seven, ten, and thirteen.

Data analysis procedures. Survey data was exported from the Qualtrics online survey platform to the statistical software completed for analysis. Descriptive statistics were used to analyze demographic characteristics, factors contributing to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction as well as overall job satisfaction. In addition, correlation statistics using Spearman's Rho were completed to determine if any correlation existed between the demographic of years of service and the 9 JSS facets.

For the JSS section, a Likert agree-disagree scale for response choices ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). The assumption that agreement with positively worded items and disagreement with negatively worded items represented satisfaction. Likewise, disagreement with positive-worded items and agreement with negative-worded items represented dissatisfaction. For specific JSS questions, scores with a mean item response of four or more (after reverse scoring the negatively worded items) represented satisfaction, three and four were considered ambivalent and less than three represented dissatisfaction (Spector, 2011).

To determine scores for individual facets, the ratings for the four facet questions are combined. The possible summed scores for each of the nine facets range from four to 24. Facet scores with a mean item response of 16 to 24 represented satisfaction, 4 to 12 represented dissatisfaction and between 12 and 16 represented ambivalence (Spector,

2011). Using all 36 JSS questions to determine overall job satisfaction, the possible summed scores for the JSS ranged from 36 to 216. The range of dissatisfaction was from 36 to 108, whereas, the range for ambivalent was between 108 and 144, while the range for satisfaction was 144 to 216 (Spector, 2011).

Summary

This chapter presented an explanation of the descriptive, quantitative study including research questions, the research instrument, and research design including participants, data collection procedures, and data analysis. Presentation and analyzation of the study results are included in Chapter 4.

Chapter IV

Findings

The purpose of this study was to determine the current level of faculty job satisfaction at an urban health science community college and to examine factors contributing to faculty job satisfaction. The study answered the following research questions: 1) What is the overall job satisfaction level for faculty at an urban health science community college? and 2) What are the factors contributing to the faculty's perception of job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction?

The population for this research was seventy-eight full-time faculty at a large urban community college who taught in the twenty areas of study within the health science college. Faculty participation was voluntary, and involvement in this research did not in any way affect their current standing as a faculty member. Of the seventy-eight invitations sent; fifty-one surveys were started. Once the 2 incomplete surveys were removed, forty-nine questionnaires were usable for a participation rate of 62.8%.

This chapter describes the results of the study and is divided into three sections. The first section provides a review of the methodology used in the study; the second section describes the results for the first research question; the last section describes the results for the second research question.

Review of Methodology

This study utilized Spector's (1985) Job Satisfaction Survey or JSS. The JSS is a thirty-six question, nine facet scale used to measure attitudes toward the job as well as characteristics of the job (Spector, 2011). The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) consists of four items for each of the nine facets of job satisfaction for a total of thirty-six items. The

9 facets include pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication. Also, a total satisfaction score was calculated by summing each of the thirty-six individual items. The survey consisted of a summated rating scale format with six answer choices for each question ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree" (Spector, 2011).

Through two multiple response items, the second section of the survey gave the respondent two directives. The first was to describe a time when you had a "good" day or experience at work or when you were satisfied with your job. The second was to describe a time when you had a "bad" day or experience at work or when you were dissatisfied with your job. The respondents were then asked to use the nine JSS facets to categorize their "good" and "bad" day experiences. In addition to the 9 facet choices of pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication, the respondents were also able to choose "progress" and "other" for satisfaction as well "setbacks" and "other" for dissatisfaction. The last item on the survey asked the participants to categorize their years of service as <5 years, 5 – 10 years, 11 – 15 years, 16 – 20 years, 21 – 25 years, and > 25 years.

Table 6 displays the frequency counts for the participant's years of service at the health science community college. The years of service for participants (N=49) in this survey ranged from less than 5 years (34.7%) to greater than 25 years (14.3%), with median years of service being 7.5 years.

Table 6

Frequency Counts for Years of Experience (N=49)

_____

Category	*n*	%
< 5 years	17	34.7
5-10 years	9	18.4
11 -15 years	7	14.3
16-20 years	4	8.2
21-25 years	5	10.2
>25 years	7	14.3

_____

Note. Years of Experience: *Mdn* = 7.50 years.

The years of service for the largest group of participants (*N*=17) was less than 5 years while the smallest group of participants' (*N*=4) years of service was 16 – 20 years. Over 50% of the respondents had 10 or less years of service (*N*=26)

Spector's (2011) absolute approach to the interpretation of JSS scores is shown in Table 7. The absolute approach uses predetermined cut scores to determine satisfaction ranges, which include dissatisfied, ambivalent, and satisfied.

Table 7

Spector's Absolute Approach to the Interpretation of JSS Scores

	Score Range	Dissatisfied	Ambivalent	Satisfied
JSS Question	1 – 6	<3	between 3 – 4	>4
JSS Facet	4 – 24	4 – 12	between 12 – 16	16 – 24
JSS Overall	36 – 216	36 – 108	between 108 – 144	144 – 216

Findings for Research Question One

Finding 1A: Overall Satisfaction. Table 8 presents the paired tests comparing the current sample (*N*=49) of nine JSS satisfaction facets and the overall satisfaction

score against Spector's (2011) normative data sample on higher education (N=3,764).

The overall satisfaction of the current sample was 150.65 as compared to the normative

sample of 137.20. The difference was significant (p=.002). Further examination found

five of the nine facets significantly higher in the current sample with the most significant

differences for pay (p = .001) and fringe benefits (p=.004) (see Table 8).

Table 8

Paired t Tests Comparing Current Sample with Spector (2011) Normative Data

| | Current Sample | | Spector (2011)* | | |
| | $N = 49$ | | $N = 3,764$ | | |
Facet	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*t*	*p*
Pay	17.16	4.43	11.90	8.32	.001
Promotion	13.16	4.84	11.50	2.41	.02
Supervision	20.02	5.33	18.90	1.47	.15
Fringe Benefits	17.35	4.80	15.30	2.98	.004
Contingent Rewards	15.73	4.76	14.10	2.41	.02
Operating Conditions	12.57	4.29	13.60	1.68	.10
Coworkers	18.63	4.03	18.10	0.92	.36
Nature of Work	20.98	3.62	19.70	2.47	.02
Communication	15.04	5.08	14.60	0.61	.55
Total Satisfaction	150.65	28.07	137.20	3.36	.002

Note. * Normative data for Higher Education sample (Spector, 2011).

The overall satisfaction mean score of 150.65 is representative of satisfied as

compared to the normative sample mean score of 137.20 which indicates ambivalence.

Of the other facets with significant differences, pay and promotion on the normative

sample scored at dissatisfied while the current sample scored satisfied for pay and

ambivalent for promotion. Fringe benefits scored at ambivalent on the normative sample

but as satisfied on the current sample. Although the differences between the mean scores were significant for contingent rewards and nature of work, both the current and normative samples scored in the same range of ambivalent and satisfied respectively.

Finding 1B: Highest JSS facet ratings. Table 9 presents ratings for the nine facets of the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) sorted by highest to lowest mean ratings. These ratings were assigned using a 6-point scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 6 = strongly agree. To determine the facet rating, the scores for the four questions related to each facet were summated. The JSS facets that earned the highest rating were Nature of Work ($M = 20.98, SD = 3.62$), Supervision ($M = 20.02, SD = 5.33$), Coworkers ($M = 18.63, SD = 4.03$), Fringe Benefits ($M = 17.35, SD = 4.80$), and Pay ($M = 17.16, SD = 4.43$).

Table 9

Ratings of Job Satisfaction Facets Sorted by Highest Mean (N=49)

Facet	*M*	*SD*
Nature of Work	20.98	3.62
Supervision	20.02	5.33
Coworkers	18.63	4.03
Fringe Benefits	17.35	4.80
Pay	17.16	4.43
Contingent Rewards	15.73	4.76
Communication	15.04	5.08
Promotion	13.16	4.84
Operating Conditions	12.57	4.29

The top five facets' means in this sample all ranged between 16 and 24; therefore, these scores indicated that the participants were satisfied with those facets.

Finding 1C: Lowest JSS facet ratings. The JSS facets with the lowest ratings

were Contingent Rewards ($M = 15.73$, $SD = 4.76$), Communication ($M = 15.04$, $SD = 5.08$), Promotion ($M = 13.16$, $SD = 4.84$) and Operating Conditions ($M = 12.57$, $SD = 4.29$).

The lowest four facets' means ranged between 12 and 16, which indicated ambivalence. No facets' means ranged from 4 to 12 which would have indicated dissatisfaction.

Table 10 presents the psychometric characteristics of the ten summated scale scores. The Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients ranged from $\alpha = .62$ to $\alpha = .93$ with a median alpha of $\alpha = .79$.

Table 10

Psychometric Characteristics for the Summated Facet Scores (N = 49)

Facet Score	Number of Items	*M*	*SD*	Low	High	α
Pay	4	17.16	4.43	7	24	.74
Promotion	4	13.16	4.84	4	24	.79
Supervision	4	20.02	5.33	4	24	.93
Fringe Benefits	4	17.35	4.80	7	24	.79
Contingent Rewards	4	15.73	4.76	6	24	.73
Operating Conditions	4	12.57	4.29	6	24	.62
Coworkers	4	18.63	4.03	4	24	.73
Nature of Work	4	20.98	3.62	8	24	.83
Communication	4	15.04	5.08	4	24	.80
Total Satisfaction	36	150.65	20.07	87	216	.93

Thus, the analysis indicated that all scales had adequate levels of internal reliability (Field, 2018). Furthermore, the analysis results were consistent with Spector's internal reliability findings (2011).

Findings for Research Question Two

Finding 2A: Perceptions on a good day. Table 11 displays the frequency counts for the eleven identified categories of factors leading to a "good" day at work or job satisfaction, sorted from highest to lowest frequency ($N=49$). The frequency counts were based on the number of respondents who identified the factor as contributing to their good day at work. The highest number of respondents indicated that Nature of Work ($n=36$, 73.5%) and Coworkers ($n=35$, 71.4%) as factors that contribute to their job satisfaction. The factors that were identified as least contributing to job satisfaction were Communication ($n=6$; 12.2%) and Other ($n=1$, 2.0%).

Table 11

Frequency Counts for Factors Leading to Job Satisfaction or "Good Day" at work (N=49)

Factor	*n*	%
Nature of Work	36	73.5
Coworkers	35	71.4
Progress	27	55.1
Pay	25	51.0
Supervision	22	44.9
Fringe Benefits	17	34.7
Contingent Rewards	15	30.6
Operating Conditions	8	16.3
Promotion	7	14.3
Communication	6	12.2
Other	1	2.0

Note. Multiple responses were allowed so totals equal more than 100%.

When analyzing the JSS facets, Nature of Work was the facet with the highest mean (Table 9). Based on that analysis, it would be expected that Nature of Work would also be

at the top of the list for factors leading to the participants' "good day" or job satisfaction as it is indicated in Table 11.

Finding 2B: Perceptions on a bad day. Table 12 displays the frequency counts for the eleven identified categories of factors leading to a "bad day at work," or job dissatisfaction sorted from the highest frequency (N=49). The frequency counts were based on the number of respondents who identified the factor as contributing to their bad day at work. The highest number of respondents indicated that Communication (n=29, 59.2%) and Operating Conditions (n= 25, 51.0%) as factors that contribute to their job dissatisfaction. The factors that were identified as least contributing to job dissatisfaction were Other (n=2; 4.1%) and Fringe Benefits (n=2; 4.1%) (see Table 12).

Table 12

Frequency Counts for Factors Leading to Job Dissatisfaction or "Bad Day" at work (N=49)

Factor	n	%
Communication	29	59.2
Operating Conditions	25	51.0
Pay	11	22.5
Contingent Rewards	10	20.4
Supervision	10	20.4
Setbacks	8	16.3
Coworkers	8	16.3
Nature of Work	5	10.2
Promotion	4	8.1
Other	2	4.1
Fringe Benefits	2	4.1

Note. Multiple responses were allowed so totals equal more than 100%.

Both communication and operating condition's mean scores were in the last two

positions when the nine JSS facets were categorized from highest to lowest mean score.

Therefore, the position of communication and operating conditions in Table 12 is

consistent with what would be expected based on the findings listed in Table 9.

Finding 3

The 10 JSS scale scores were compared against the years of service using

Spearman's Rho. Spearman correlations were used instead of the more common Pearson

correlations because of the smaller sample size (N=49). Years of service significantly

correlated with one scale at the $p<.05$ level. Specifically, years of service had a

significant positive correlation with pay ($r_s = .315, p = .028$) (see table 13).

Table 13

Correlations of Nine Facets of Job Satisfaction and Years of Service (N=49)

_____

Facet	Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pay	.315*	.028
Promotion	.052	.725
Supervision Pay	-.145	.320
Fringe Benefits	.193	.183
Contingent Rewards	.145	.322
Operating Conditions	-.096	.512
Coworkers	-0.83	.570
Nature of Work	-.137	.348
Communication	.029	.842

_____

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

In addition to the above, correlation analysis using Spearman's Rho was

conducted between the factors for a "good" and "bad" day with years of service. The

analysis yielded no significant results.

Summary

This chapter included a review of the study's purpose and the questions intended to be answered by the research. Also included were details regarding the population, survey reliability, and the results of the research questions. Forty-nine participants completed the survey instrument, Spector's (1985) Job Satisfaction Survey.

For research question #1, "What is the overall job satisfaction level for faculty at an urban health science community college?", five of the nine JSS facets mean ranged between 16 and 24 which indicated satisfaction with the highest rating for Nature of Work ($M = 20.98$). The remaining four facets mean ranged between 12 and 16, which indicated ambivalence with the lowest rating for Operating Conditions ($M = 12.57$). The overall summed scores for the 36 items on the JSS had a mean of 150.65, which falls within the range for satisfaction. Likewise, the overall satisfaction of the current sample was compared to the normative sample. The difference was significant ($p=.002$).

For research question #2, "What are the factors contributing to faculty's perception of job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction?", the highest number of respondents indicated that Nature of Work as the top factor that contributes to their job satisfaction and Communication as the top factor that contributes to their job dissatisfaction. The factor that was identified as least contributing to job satisfaction was Communication, while Other and Fringe Benefits were identified as least contributing to job dissatisfaction.

Chapter Five, includes discussion of the research results, presents the findings, limitations, implications, and areas for future study.

Chapter V

Discussion

Traditionally, health sciences faculty are a challenge to recruit and retain because they have an abundance of clinical employment opportunities in their respective fields of practice, most of which include higher compensation packages (Goldrick-Rab, 2010). As administrators engage in strategic planning, especially as it pertains to sustainable growth, they should understand their faculty's need to feel job satisfaction in order to retain current and future personnel. Qualified allied health faculty are very difficult to find, causing an allied health workforce shortage (Murray, Stanley, & Wright, 2014). Therefore, it ought to be a priority for administrators to keep their staff happy and satisfied because health science faculty positions are hard to fill. Studies show that "job satisfaction is a key predictor of intention to remain in or leave an academic position" (Seifert & Umbach, 2008, p. 357).

The purpose of this study was to determine the current level of faculty job satisfaction at an urban health science community college and to examine factors contributing to faculty job satisfaction. The study answered the following research questions for the population sample: 1) What is the overall job satisfaction level for faculty at an urban health science community college? and 2) What are the factors contributing to the faculty's perception of job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction?

The following chapter discusses the findings and conclusions for each of the current study's research questions. The various limitations of the study are also explained as well as the implications for practice and future research.

Findings

Table 13

Summary of Research Findings

RQ	Finding	Implication
1	The overall satisfaction score for the current sample was significantly higher (p=.002) at 150.65 as compared to the normative sample.	**Practice:** Consider more opportunities for faculty to engage in professional and leadership development
	Nature of Work ($M = 20.98$, $SD = 3.62$) and Supervision ($M = 20.02$, $SD = 5.33$) were the JSS facets that garnered the highest ratings.	**Research:** Narrative/qualitative research methodology to better understand job satisfaction. Research should focus on how and why the individual facet contributes to job satisfaction.
	The JSS facets with the lowest rating were Promotion ($M = 13.16$, $SD = 4.84$) and Operating Conditions ($M = 12.57$, $SD = 4.29$).	**Theory:** High rating of supervision leading to satisfaction opposes Herzberg's theory
2	The highest number of respondents indicated that Nature of Work ($n=36$, 73.5%) and Coworkers ($n=35$, 71.4%) as factors that contributed to their job satisfaction.	**Practice:** Provide professional development and implement team building activities to maintain. College can begin to implement methods to improve communication.
	The highest number of respondents indicated Communication ($n=29$, 59.2%) and Operating Conditions ($n=25$, 51.0%) contributed to job dissatisfaction.	**Research:** Research should focus on how and why the individual factors facet contributes to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction.
		Theory: Coworkers high rating challenges Herzberg's theory.
	At the $p<.05$ level, years of service had a significant positive correlation with pay ($r_s = .315$, $p = .028$).	**Practice:** Develop new compensation packages for entry level faculty that are more comparable to the health science professions.

Findings Research Question #1

The mean score for total job satisfaction ($M = 150.65$) indicated that overall, faculty were satisfied with their jobs. In addition, the sample mean (N=49) of 150.65 was compared to the normative sample (N=3764) of 137.20. The difference was significant ($p=.002$). Based on Spector's (2011) interpretation of the summative mean score, the current population rated as satisfied while the normative sample rated as ambivalent. The sample mean rating of satisfied is consistent with Linville, Anthon, & Hadyen (2011), whose research also indicated that community college faculty were satisfied with their jobs, in large part because they were happy with their "workload and perceived control, not financial rewards" (p. 375). This finding is also in line with the research that indicated that community college faculty have a higher level of overall job satisfaction than do the four-year faculty (Kim, D., Twombly, S., & Wolf-Wendel, L. 2008).

Faculty had a high satisfaction level with the Nature of Work with a mean of 20.98. Based on the JSS questions, the respondents felt their jobs are not meaningless, they enjoyed the things they do at work, they felt a sense of pride in their work, and enjoyed their jobs. The result from this sample is consistent with previous research results, which indicated employees who enjoyed the nature of their work had higher job satisfaction than those that did not (Dierdorff & Morgeson, 2013; Ling & Loo, 2012; Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006). Furthermore, faculty also indicated satisfaction with the facets of Supervision (M = 20.02), Coworkers (M = 18.63), Fringe Benefits (M = 17.35) and Pay (M = 17.15). All of these areas are also supported by literature as being indicators of job satisfaction.

According to Herzberg (2003), motivators such as promotion, nature of work, and

contingent rewards when provided appropriately are factors that lead to job satisfaction. Although all three of the factors were significantly higher than the normative sample, this study suggests that the only motivator for health science faculty that positively relates to job satisfaction is Nature of Work. The remaining motivators measured, promotion and contingent rewards, did not score as satisfied but as ambivalent. Herzberg (2003) also argued that "the opposite of job satisfaction is not job dissatisfaction, but rather *no* job satisfaction; and similarly, the opposite of job dissatisfaction is not job satisfaction, but *no* job dissatisfaction" (p. 56). Therefore, this ambivalence would suggest that faculty have no job satisfaction in these areas as opposed to having job dissatisfaction.

Likewise, hygiene factors such as pay, supervision, fringe benefits, communication, and co-workers, when absent or not provided properly, lead to job dissatisfaction. Using Herzberg's theory, hygiene factors when provided properly do not necessarily lead to job satisfaction but to no job dissatisfaction. Therefore, these results seem to oppose Herzberg's theory. In this study, four out of six hygiene factors measured, supervision, coworkers, fringe benefits and pay, all scored as satisfied. The remaining hygiene factors, operating conditions and communication were scored as ambivalent.

Findings Research Question #2

The factors in which faculty rated as highest in contributing to a "good day" at work or job satisfaction were Nature of Work (*n*=36, 73.5%) and Coworkers (*n*=35, 71.4%). As stated previously, Herzberg classified Nature of Work as a motivator, therefore it contributes to employee's job satisfaction as these results suggest. Dierdorff and Morgeson (2013), as well as Ling and Loo (2012), also found that nature of work is

predictive of job satisfaction. The results of research question #2 are consistent with the results of research question #1. Therefore, these results suggest that the health science faculty believe that the nature of their work is a significant contributor to their job satisfaction.

Overall, the research results also suggest that health science faculty's overall positive relationships with their co-workers which contributes to their satisfaction with their jobs. Herzberg's research considered coworkers a hygiene factor, therefore, the absence of this factor should lead to job dissatisfaction but having positive coworker relationships should not necessarily lead to job satisfaction. On the contrary, the results of this study showed that 71.4% of the respondents believed that coworkers contributed to their job satisfaction. Although in contrast to Herzberg, this result aligned with Brummelhuis, Bakker, & Euwema (2010) who found that positive relationships and interactions with co-worker's influence job satisfaction.

Defined as small wins or breakthroughs at work that provide forward movement towards goal completion, Amabile and Kramer's (2011) research found that progress was primarily responsible for job satisfaction. However, progress ($n=27, 55\%$) was only the third highest-ranking factor for job satisfaction with this population. Although faculty considered that their progress impacted their job satisfaction, it did not rate as high as would have been expected based on Amabile and Kramer's 2011 research. Perhaps the difference exists because faculty did not tell stories, they merely picked from pre-determined categories resulting in the participants being forced to label their experiences on their own. Amabile and Kramer (2011) analyzed participant lived experiences and the factors affecting their job satisfaction arose organically and were not forced.

Aligning with Herzberg's theory, communication ($n=29, 59.2\%$) was rated as the factor that most contributed to job dissatisfaction. At the same time, communication was one of the factors identified as least contributing to job satisfaction at ($n=6; 12.2\%$), which is also consistent with the results of research question #1. These results are similarly reflective of earlier research which found that communication was a robust predictor of job satisfaction (Jiang et al., 2018; Vermeir et al., 2018). These results suggest that health science faculty were dissatisfied with the type or level of communication within the college and communication was not a source of job satisfaction.

Operating conditions ($n=25, 51\%$) were also rated as being a common factor in faculty job dissatisfaction. These results are supported by research which found that employees who have or perceive to have poor working conditions such as uncomfortable temperatures or loud noises to more extreme conditions such as discrimination or violence are more likely to be dissatisfied with their jobs (Poggi, 2010; Van Aerden, Moors, Levecque, Vanroelen, 2015). Additionally, in contrast to Amabile and Kramer's (2011) findings, setbacks ($n=8, 16.3\%$) were not found to be a major factor in job dissatisfaction with this particular population. Again, this may be due to the quantitative nature of this study.

Finding 3

Years of service significantly correlated with one scale at the $p<.05$ level. Specifically, years of service had a significant positive correlation with pay ($r_s = .315, p = .028$). These results suggest that newer faculty are not as happy with their pay as those that have been with the college for longer periods. Furthermore, contrary to Herzberg's

beliefs, these findings are supported by Hagedorn's (1994) research in which pay was a determining factor of satisfaction for faculty at the mid-point of their careers through retirement.

Limitations

The sample population was limited to only full-time faculty at one urban health science community college. No adjunct faculty were invited to participate. Only health science faculty were included in the research with no other faculty from any area outside of health sciences were included. Only using this population restricted the scope of the study to a limited number of participants in one college system, therefore, not permitting for generalization of the total population.

Additionally, only the years of service were analyzed. No other participant demographic information was gathered or analyzed. Therefore, limiting the ability of the research to fully understand the composition of the faculty and how that may or may not influence job satisfaction.

Originally, the questions on the survey regarding good days and bad days were intended to be narrative questions regarding the participant's lived experiences. The responses would have been reviewed using deductive qualitative content analysis to determine the themes or commonalities that occurred between responses. Additionally, the researcher wanted to collect additional demographic data including age, gender, and education level. However, due to the 2nd level supervisory position of the researcher and to avoid any ethical issues, the narrative questions had to be changed to the multiple response questions that asked the participant to categorize their good and bad days into the predetermined factors. Without the narrative questions, the responses did not have

the depth needed to truly determine catalysts for job satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

Implications

Future research in health science faculty job satisfaction should include a qualitative study that would allow faculty members the opportunity to share their lived experiences. Using narrative research methodology would most likely increase the understanding of those job satisfaction experiences. Carless & Douglas (2017) state that narrative research is important "to understand the individual's subjective responses" and to "shed light on the meaning of personal experience" (p.307). A qualitative study would allow the researcher to get closer to the root cause of satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Adjunct faculty and staff, along with the capture of full demographics should also be included to gain an even more detailed picture of the job experiences of health science employees. Therefore, the research would need to be conducted by someone outside of the health science campus.

Future research should also delve deeper into the factors that have been identified as having the greatest impact on job satisfaction, nature of work, supervision, communication, and working conditions. Research should try to determine what exactly about the nature of their work and supervision contributes most to their job satisfaction. Likewise, future research could focus on determining the specific aspects of the current communication and working conditions within the college that cause job dissatisfaction?

Future research could also study the other motivation factors of promotion and contingent rewards to determine why health science faculty were ambivalent and why they were not satisfied. Likewise, future studies could look at why the hygiene factors of pay, supervision and fringe benefits all seem to provide faculty job satisfaction and are

not aligned with Herzberg's theory.

Because participants were not able to express their lived experiences of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction through narrative responses, the information gathered in this study is not necessarily precise enough to tell the entire story. However, it does give college administrators a baseline from which they can start to examine job satisfaction at the college. Knowing that faculty are satisfied overall with their job and especially with the nature of their work and supervision will now challenge the administration to maintain that level of satisfaction. They will need to develop and implement new professional development programs as well as promote a work environment focused on at least maintaining the current level of satisfaction. Team building activities most likely will help to maintain as well as enhance coworker relationships. Regular and consistent faculty acknowledgment and recognition for their contributions (big and small) can also help with job satisfaction. Providing professional development that targets teaching and learning may also help to maintain job satisfaction with the nature of their work. College instructional leaders should be supportive regarding their leadership style that allows for the encouragement and empowerment of faculty while maintaining a positive work environment.

College leadership ought to also look closely at working conditions. Fifty-one percent of the respondents felt their working conditions greatly contributed to having a bad day or being dissatisfied with their jobs. An effort needs to be taken to find out what about their working conditions is causing dissatisfaction. Although a start, just removing the dissatisfaction does not equate to satisfaction. The college will have to change the dissatisfaction with working conditions to satisfaction. Failure to determine the root

cause the dissatisfaction with working conditions and not making corrections to the perception of satisfied may cause the faculty's dissatisfaction to spill over into other areas, even into areas where they are now satisfied.

Undesirable operating conditions "restrict employees to portray their capabilities and attain full potential" (Raziq & Maulabakhsh, 2015, p. 724) so it is important for the college to understand the importance of achieving a more satisfactory work environment. Raziq and Maulabakhsh (2015) also state that job satisfaction increases when teamwork is encouraged, employees participate in decision making and when management provides consistent support. Even though this research does not provide college leaders with the specific concerns faculty have with their working conditions, leaders do have the responsibility to strive to provide faculty with an environment that promotes satisfaction.

Effective communication has been shown to be a critical predictor of job satisfaction. The results of this study suggest faculty find communication in the college is a major cause of job dissatisfaction. With these results, it is an even greater challenge to address the faculty's negative perception of communication within the college and why it can cause faculty to have a "bad day". Administrators should begin to educate the college on the significance of effective communication. The college should begin to continuously provide training workshops and programs that focus on effective communication on all levels.

Once faculty and staff have received communication training, the administration should then provide opportunities for everyone to come together, provide input on existing policies and present suggestions and concerns. Using their collective input, college and program leadership can collaboratively develop a college-wide

communication plan. The plan should address the improvement of both vertical, horizontal and instrumental communication channels within departments as well as within the college.

In the meantime, college leadership can begin to model an atmosphere of open communication. Instructional leaders should not expect their communication to be disseminated through an intermediary to program faculty but should begin to communicate directly to faculty. This could be done by informal emails at regular intervals or by a more formal means such as a newsletter. When communication comes directly from the sender, it is more likely faculty will receive the message as intended.

Another aspect that has to been looked more closely at is the ambivalence of faculty as it pertained to contingent rewards, communication, promotion and operating conditions. Ziegler, Schlett, Casel and Diehl (2012) describe job ambivalence as "the simultaneous existence of strong positive and negative evaluations of one's job" (p. 178). In another study, Ziegler, Hagen, and Diehl (2012) found that "individuals with lower job satisfaction were found to be more ambivalent regarding their jobs than were individuals high in job satisfaction" (p. 2032). Additionally, research has found that ambivalence correlated negatively with job satisfaction (Ziegler et al., 2012). Based on Ziegler et al.'s (2012) research, it would be expected that a faculty who were ambivalent towards any job satisfaction facet would have both good and bad feelings towards that particular facet and were then less satisfied with their jobs than faculty that were not ambivalent. In essence, any faculty that were ambivalent were on the low end of the job satisfaction spectrum.

Although, research has found that ambivalence correlates with low job satisfaction, others believe that it is not necessarily something that should be looked at as a negative. Job ambivalence should be considered a necessity for change in an organization. Piderit (2000) found that ambivalence is needed to stimulate unlearning (the discarding of obsolete and misleading knowledge), which is a necessary precursor to change" (p. 790). Piderit (2000) also showed that when acknowledged, ambivalence can offer a foundation for stimulating new behavior, instead of maintaining current behavior and practices. Furthermore, Piderit (2000) recommends "that by fostering ambivalence and reframing our understanding of the status quo, we are better able to generate new possibilities for understanding and action" (Piderit, 2000, p. 790).

Perhaps this ambivalence can be utilized in the college's favor as a catalyst for change. Traditionally, administration, when proposing change, usually look to those who agree or are satisfied with their jobs to champion the change and to help lead the way. However, maybe instead of catering to those who agree, it would be better to foster those who are ambivalent to the idea. Those that are for the change are already where you need them to be, those that are adamantly against change, require much more work and many times those minds never shift. Now when change is being proposed, perhaps it would be much more prudent to target those who are ambivalent in the hopes of bringing upon that change to fruition.

Implications for Practice

As a full-time faculty member of an urban health science community college for 22 years and for the last two years as dean, the information gathered in this study is not what the researcher would have anticipated. Based on countless interactions with faculty,

listening to their stories and complaints, it could have been concluded that the faculty were not very satisfied with their jobs. However, the results tell a much different story.

Outside of the overall satisfaction level, it is not a surprise to the researcher as to which facets rose to the top for satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Most faculty are very passionate and prideful regarding their profession and want to instill that passion into their students. Health science faculty want to produce the highest quality of entry-level healthcare professionals they possibly can. All faculty take their respective health science profession very seriously and want to instill that professionalism into their students.

Likewise, the facet of communication rising to the top of dissatisfaction was also not a surprise. Communication, or more specifically lack of adequate communication, has always seemed to be an issue for college employees. Messages from the top often give conflicting information or are not complete. Therefore, causing confusion on what procedures to follow or implement which then results in frustration with the system.

Another finding that was expected was that faculty with more years of experience are more satisfied with their pay than those who are newer. Many faculty have been at the college for 20 plus years, which means that they are at the top or fastly approaching the top of the pay scale. Subsequently, the college has implemented a maximum pay scale that new faculty can be hired under, regardless of the number of years of clinical and or teaching experience. Oftentimes this faculty entry-level maximum is less than what the person is currently making in their clinical practice. The inability to go above the maximum for new faculty is one of the reasons health sciences have had major difficulty hiring qualified clinicians to fill open faculty positions. This is especially true

for supervisory positions such as program directors.

It was also a disappointment that the methodologies had to change before conducting the study. It is believed that the results could have been richer had the research been able to collect the stories and lived experiences of faculty. Having faculty use stories to tell and explain their good and bad days at work would have given more information and would not have confined the participants into the predetermined categories therefore constricting the participants and limiting the data. Moreover, the contextualizing of these experiences would create better data and potentially recommendations for administrators to make change. Furthermore, it would involve the participants in future change and improvement processes in the institution.

Overall, as dean of health sciences, the information that was gathered from this study will be useful to researchers as well as other instructional leaders within a college setting. This study shows that our perceptions of job satisfaction among faculty is not always correct. It is possible that health science faculty are much more satisfied with their jobs than previously thought. One key learning for leaders of faculty is that perhaps not enough time is spent focusing on the things that are going well, therefore amplifying the negative aspects.

Likewise, it will be important to pay attention to the ambivalence uncovered in this study and focus on this to our advantage. Instead of focusing on those who are onboard or those who we need to "win over", we should focus on those who display ambivalence. These folks may be the key to successful change within the college. Although there is quite a bit of essential work ahead for the college, recognizing that we have an overall satisfied group and that we may already be on the right path is very

promising for the future of the health science college.

Conclusion

The results of the study highly suggest that the health science faculty in this urban community college are relatively satisfied with their jobs. Nature of work, or the job tasks themselves, is considered a motivator and was the factor that faculty rated as most contributing to their job satisfaction. These results support Herzberg's assumptions. Coworkers, the people we work with and relationships we have with those people, are considered a hygiene factor; therefore, when absent or when coworker relationships are poor, the result can be job dissatisfaction. However, the results in this study suggest that coworker relationships are the impetus of job satisfaction, which is not aligned with Herzberg's theory.

The study also revealed that faculty found communication to be a factor in their job dissatisfaction. Although the research did not delineate why faculty felt communication was a cause of their dissatisfaction, it does give leadership some necessary baseline information that they can act on. De Nobile (2017) found an association exists between effective communication from leadership and job satisfaction, but also noted that supportive communication between colleagues was an even stronger antecedent of job satisfaction. If it is an academic institution's wish to improve job satisfaction in regard to communication, they should begin to develop a collaborative communication plan that provides faculty the environment that they desire.

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Appendix A

Survey Instrument

Edit Survey | Qualtrics Survey Software   https://epsyuh.co1.qualtrics.com/Q/EditSection

Faculty Job Satisfaction ⌄   Projects   Contacts   Library   Help   ⓐ

Survey   Actions   Distributions   Data & Analysis   Reports

You are currently making edits to this survey. Changes won't be live until you publish.   ✕

Faculty Job Satisfaction   iQ Score: Fair   ● Draft Version

⌄ Informed Consent   Block Options ⌄

Q1   Informed Consent For Research Study

Faculty Satisfaction at a Health Science Community College

You are invited to participate in a web-based online survey on Health Science Faculty Job
Satisfaction. This is a research project being conducted by Jeff Gricar, a doctoral student at the
University of Houston, School of Education. The purpose of this study is to examine the current level of
health science faculty job satisfaction and to determine factors contributing to health science faculty
job satisfaction. It should take approximately 15 minutes to complete.

PARTICIPATION
Your participation in this survey will involve completing a short survey. It should take you no more than
approximately 15 minutes to complete. Your participation is completely voluntary and anonymous as no
personally identifiable data will be collected. The voluntary electronic format in which this survey is
being delivered will not collect any survey tracking data, such as name, email address, or IP address and
does not collect any data as to who has or has not submitted or completed the survey. Furthermore, the
voluntary data that is collected will not directly or indirectly identify you should you choose to
participate. The voluntary nature of this survey allows for participants to skip question(s) they wish not
to answer. Participants can also exit the survey at any point without penalty. Participation or non-
participation in this survey does not in any way affect the participant's current status as a faculty
member at the college. You are free to choose not to participate, and you may withdraw your consent to
participate at any time by exiting the survey at any point. You will not be penalized in any way should
you decide not to participate or to withdraw from this study.

Your participation is completely voluntary and anonymous as no personally identifiable data will be
collected. The electronic format in which this survey is being delivered will not collect any survey
tracking data, such as name, email address, or IP address and does not collect any data as to who has or
has not submitted or completed the survey. Furthermore, the voluntary data that is collected will not
directly or indirectly identify you should you choose to participate. Your involvement in this research
survey does not in any way affect your current standing as a faculty member at HCC.

POTENTIAL BENEFITS
You will receive no direct benefits from participating in this research study. However, this research may
help to understand the factors that contribute to faculty job satisfaction at the college.

RISKS
There are no foreseeable risks involved in participating in this study other than those encountered in
day-to-day life.

CONFIDENTIALITY
Your survey answers will be sent to a link at Qualtrics where data will be stored in a password protected
electronic format. Qualtrics does not collect identifying information such as your name, email address,
or IP address. Therefore, your responses will remain anonymous. No one will be able to directly or
indirectly identify you. The responses given in the survey will not directly or indirectly identify any
participant. No one will know whether or not you participated in the study.

CONTACT
If you have questions at any time about the study or the procedures, you may contact my research
supervisor, Dr. Robert Hausman via email at rchausma@central.uh.edu or by phone at 713-743-0395.

If you feel you have not been treated according to the descriptions in this form, or that your rights as a
participant in research have not been honored during the course of this project, or you have any
questions, concerns, or complaints that you wish to address to someone other than the investigator, you
may contact the University of Houston Institutional Review Board at Houston, TX 77204, 713-743-9204
or email cphs@central.uh.edu .

UH Consent Information.pdf
ELECTRONIC CONSENT: Please select your choice below. You may print a copy of this consent form for
your records. Clicking on the "Agree" button indicates that

·   You have read the above information including the information provided in the UH Consent link
·   You voluntarily agree to participate
·   You are 18 years of age or older

○ I agree and I have read the UH consent information and agree to take part in the research

○ I do not consent, I do not wish to participate in the research

Add Block

▾ Survey   Block Options ⌄

- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - Page Break - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -

■ Q2   Choose the one answer for each question that comes closest to reflecting your opinion about it.

	Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
1. I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.	○	○	○	○	○	○
2. There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.	○	○	○	○	○	○
3. My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.	○	○	○	○	○	○
4. I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.	○	○	○	○	○	○
5. When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.	○	○	○	○	○	○
6. Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.	○	○	○	○	○	○

	Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
7. I like the people I work with.	○	○	○	○	○	○
8. I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.	○	○	○	○	○	○
9. Communications seem good within this organization.	○	○	○	○	○	○
10. Raises are too few and far between.	○	○	○	○	○	○
11. Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.	○	○	○	○	○	○
12. My supervisor is unfair to me.	○	○	○	○	○	○

	Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
13. The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.	○	○	○	○	○	○
14. I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.	○	○	○	○	○	○
15. My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.	○	○	○	○	○	○
16. I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with.	○	○	○	○	○	○
17. I like doing the things I do at work.	○	○	○	○	○	○
18. The goals of this organization are not clear to me.	○	○	○	○	○	○

- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - Page Break - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -

Q3 Choose the one answer for each question that comes closest to reflecting your opinion about it.

	Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
19. I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me.	○	○	○	○	○	○
20. People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.	○	○	○	○	○	○
21. My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.	○	○	○	○	○	○
22. The benefit package we have is equitable.	○	○	○	○	○	○
23. There are few rewards for those who work here.	○	○	○	○	○	○
24. I have too much to do at work.	○	○	○	○	○	○

	Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
25. I enjoy my coworkers.	○	○	○	○	○	○
26. I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization.	○	○	○	○	○	○
27. I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.	○	○	○	○	○	○
28. I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.	○	○	○	○	○	○
29. There are benefits we do not have which we should have.	○	○	○	○	○	○
30. I like my supervisor	○	○	○	○	○	○

	Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
31. I have too much paperwork.	○	○	○	○	○	○
32. I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.	○	○	○	○	○	○
33. I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.	○	○	○	○	○	○
34. There is too much bickering and fighting at work.	○	○	○	○	○	○
35. My job is enjoyable	○	○	○	○	○	○
36. Work assignments are not fully explained.	○	○	○	○	○	○

--- Page Break ---

Q4 Think of a time when you had a "good" day or experience at work or when you were satisfied with your job. Reflect on that experience, what happened and why you were satisfied with your job.

Based on your reflection or experience, choose the option(s) below that best describe the reason why you believe you had a "good" day or experience and were satisfied with your job. Choose all that apply

☐ Pay: You were satisfied with your job because of the pay and remuneration you received

☐ Promotion: You were satisfied with your job because you experienced a promotion opportunity

☐ Supervision: You were satisfied with your job because of your immediate supervisor

☐ Fringe Benefits: You were satisfied with your job because of the monetary and non-monetary fringe benefits you received

☐ Contingent Rewards: You were satisfied with your job because of the appreciation, recognition or rewards you received for good work

☐ Operating Procedures: You were satisfied with your job because you agreed and were happy with the institution's operating policies and procedures

☐ Coworkers: You were satisfied with your job because of the people you work with

☐ Nature of Work: You were satisfied with your job because of the type and scope of work you do

☐ Communication: You were satisfied with your job because of the communication within the institution

☐ Progress: You were satisfied with your job because you experienced a small win or breakthrough at work. You experienced forward movement towards goal completion

☐ Other: None of the above accurately describe why you were satisfied with your job

--- Page Break ---

Q5 Think of a time when you had a "bad" day or experience at work or when you were dissatisfied with your job. Reflect on that experience, what happened and why you were dissatisfied with your job?

Based on your reflection or experience, choose the option(s) below that best describe the reason why you believe you had a "bad" day or experience and were dissatisfied with your job. Choose all that apply.

☐ Pay: You were dissatisfied with your job because of the pay and remuneration you received

☐ Promotion: You were dissatisfied with your job because of the lack of promotion opportunities

☐ Supervision: You were dissatisfied with your job because of your immediate supervisor

☐ Fringe Benefits: You were dissatisfied with your job because of the monetary and non-monetary fringe benefits you received or did not receive

☐ Contingent Rewards: You were dissatisfied with your job because of the lack of appreciation, recognition or rewards you received for good work

☐ Operating Procedures: You were dissatisfied with your job because you disagree and were unhappy with the institution's operating policies and procedures

☐ Coworkers: You were dissatisfied with your job because of the people you work with

☐ Nature of Work: You were dissatisfied with your job because of the type and scope of work you do

☐ Communication: You were dissatisfied with your job because of the communication within the institution

☐ Setback: You were dissatisfied with your job because you did not experience any small wins or breakthrough at work. You experienced no movement towards goal completion

☐ Other: None of the above accurately describe why you were dissatisfied with your job

-- Page Break --

Q6 How many years have you been a health science faculty member at your current institution?

○ <5 years

○ 5 - 10 years

○ 11 - 15 years

○ 16 - 20 years

○ 21 - 25 years

○ >25 years

Add Block

⚠ End of Survey   Survey Termination Options...

UNIVERSITY of
HOUSTON
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

Qualtrics.com   Contact Information   Legal

Appendix B

IRB Approval Letters

UNIVERSITY of
HOUSTON
DIVISION OF RESEARCH
Institutional Review Boards

APPROVAL OF SUBMISSION

May 31, 2019
Jeffrey Gricar

████████████

Dear Jeffrey Gricar:

On May 31, 2019, the IRB reviewed the following submission:

Type of Review:	Initial Study
Title of Study:	Faculty Job Satisfaction at a Health Science Community College
Investigator:	Jeffrey Gricar
IRB ID:	STUDY00001690
Funding/ Proposed Funding:	Name: Unfunded
Award ID:	
Award Title:	
IND, IDE, or HDE:	None
Documents Reviewed:	• Gricar_HCC IRB Approval.pdf, Category: Additional IRB approval letters; • HRP-502e, Category: Consent Form; • Survey Instrument, Category: Study tools (ex: surveys, interview/focus group questions, data collection forms, etc.); • GRICAR_Recruitment & Reminder Emails .pdf, Category: Recruitment Materials; • Gricar_UH IRB HRP- 503_May2019_FINAL_REVISED.pdf, Category: IRB Protocol;
Review Category:	Exempt
Committee Name:	Not Applicable
IRB Coordinator:	Sandra Arntz

The IRB approved the study on May 31, 2019 ; recruitment and procedures detailed within the approved protocol may now be initiated.

As this study was approved under an exempt or expedited process, recently revised regulatory requirements do not require the submission of annual continuing review

documentation. However, it is critical that the following submissions are made to the IRB to ensure continued compliance:

- Modifications to the protocol prior to initiating any changes (for example, the addition of study personnel, updated recruitment materials, change in study design, requests for additional subjects)
- Reportable New Information/Unanticipated Problems Involving Risks to Subjects or Others
- Study Closure

Unless a waiver has been granted by the IRB, use the stamped consent form approved by the IRB to document consent. The approved version may be downloaded from the documents tab.

In conducting this study, you are required to follow the requirements listed in the Investigator Manual (HRP-103), which can be found by navigating to the IRB Library within the IRB system.

Sincerely,

Research Integrity and Oversight (RIO) Office
University of Houston, Division of Research 713
743 9204
cphs@central.uh.edu
http://www.uh.edu/research/compliance/irb-cphs/

HCC

HOUSTON COMMUNITY COLLEGE

Institutional Review Board

Jeff Gricar
University of Houston

██████████████

May 8, 2019

Dear Mr. Gricar:

This is to inform you that your research proposal

"Faculty Job Satisfaction at a Health Science Community College"

has been reviewed and is approved as modified.

All data collection and analysis are subject to the legal and procedural requirements of Houston Community College and other local, state and federal regulations. Approval by the HCC Institutional Review Board does not mean that HCC implicitly or explicitly endorses research projects.

The effective dates are May 1, 2019 through April 30, 2020. Extensions may be granted, but must be requested in writing.

You will be responsible for the coordination of the research with HCC faculty and staff.

If you have further questions, please contact me.

Cordially,

Martha Oburn, PhD
Chair, HCC IRB
Houston Community College

cc: Dr. Kurt Ewen, Vice Chancellor of Planning and Institutional Effectiveness
      Dr. Philip Nicotera, President Coleman College