

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF MOTIVATION TO WORK AND JOB
SATISFACTION BETWEEN MALE AND FEMALE FACULTY
MEMBERS AT A MIDWESTERN REGIONAL UNIVERSITY

by

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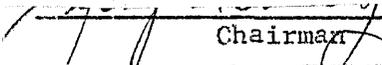
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In the name of Allah, Most Gracious, Most Merciful
Those to whom we have sent the book study it as it should be studied;
they are the ones who believe therein: Those who reject faith
therein, the loss is their own.

The Holy Qur-an

DEDICATION

This project is dedicated to all freedom-loving people, especially to my first teacher, my father, Mr. Ali Balazadeh, who taught me how to be taught. In addition, I also dedicate this project to my lovely wife, Mrs. Mariam Balazadeh, and my newborn son, a beautiful gift of God to this project.

Gabriel Balazadeh

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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the problem and its significance, the statement of hypotheses, the limitations of the study, and the definitions of terms. It also identifies the variables.

Work motivation has always been an important topic. Employers and researchers have been trying to find out what forces affect the energy that workers invest in work. What is behind the decision to take one job rather than another? What is the reason that workers continue to work every day?

In the late 1950's and early 1960's psychologists began to investigate seriously the relationship between job satisfaction and motivation to work. Since then, questions relating to what causes people to work and the degree of job satisfaction they receive from employment have been researched extensively in different types of organizations and institutions. But this very important area has rarely been investigated among university faculty members.

The main purpose of this study is to investigate and determine the degree of differences that exist in motivation to work and job satisfaction between male and female faculty members.

A university was needed in which to conduct the research. Several universities were checked, and finally a regional

university in the Midwest was selected. The faculty members were chosen by the simple random procedure.

To investigate the degree of motivation to work among male and female faculty members, the Educational Work Component Study was used. To study the degree of job satisfaction among male and female faculty members, the Job Descriptive Index was employed. The T-test was used to analyze male and female faculty members' mean differences about degree of motivation to work and job satisfaction. The Kendall tau b nonparametric correlation coefficient was utilized to analyze the correlation between the sex of male and female faculty members and their motivation to work and job satisfaction. The Multiple Regression Analysis was administered to analyze the relationship between demographic and background information of the faculty members with the job satisfaction and motivation to work.

The researcher assumed that faculty members' motivation to work and their job satisfaction have a great impact on students' learning. The university should not take motivation and job satisfaction of faculty members for granted. The fact that faculty members like and dislike their jobs could have a great influence on the main purpose of the university, educating the people and making a better community.

This study's findings about the degree of motivation and job satisfaction of faculty members should contribute to the future enhancement of education and the human aspects of society.

Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1. The female faculty members at the regional university tested in this study are more highly motivated to work than male faculty members.

Hypothesis 2. The female faculty members at the regional university tested in this study show a greater degree of job satisfaction than male faculty members.

Definitions of Terms

Faculty Members

Faculty members are defined as individuals who are employed full time for an academic year as instructors, assistant professors, associate professors, or full professors in higher education. Their main responsibilities relate to teaching although they may also be involved in research, public service, and/or administrative positions.

Motivation

Motivation is defined as the complex of forces, drives, needs, tension states, or other internal psychological mechanisms that start and maintain activity toward the achievement of personal goals individuals have identified for themselves (Hoy and Miskel, 1978).

Job Satisfaction

Locke (1969) defined job satisfaction as the "pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as

achieving or facilitating the achievement of one's job values." Furthermore, Locke recognized job satisfaction and dissatisfaction as a "function of the perceived relationship between what one wants from one's job and what one perceives it is offering."

Variables

Motivation

The cognitive approach to motivation, as stipulated by Maslow (1970), is that people decide what to do on the basis of their goals and their assessments of whether various behavioral alternatives will lead to these goals. Another rapidly emerging cognitive approach to motivation is the expectancy theory introduced by Vroom (1964). He maintained that motivation is the product of expectancy, valence, and instrumentality. Expectancy is defined as the belief by a person that a particular course of action will be followed by desired outcomes of goals. In other words, "what you expect is what you get" (Vroom, 1964, p. 64). Valence, according to Vroom, is "the degree of attractiveness or desirability that an individual attaches to a reward." (p. 66) The third factor, instrumentality, "is the belief that a given performance is essential for attaining a reward for satisfying a valence." (p. 69)

Many well-known authors and researchers have stated and/or theorized that "the individual worker is, in all probability, the most complex and least understood variable in the work organization" (Miskel and Hoy, 1978, p. 94). The lack of understanding

of this complex phenomenon, combined with the importance of coordinating and supervising individual educators and other workers to accomplish the school's goals, comprise a major source of the problems and concerns confronting education, in general, and higher education, in particular, and will create some inquiries. Such inquiries would include: "What causes a person to work? "What are his/her motivators?" "What are the rewards and incentives that relate to job satisfaction?" "Why would someone volunteer for certain duties and assume added responsibilities?" These and other questions must be answered if organizations are to structure and maintain working conditions that are productive and contribute to job satisfaction. Motivation, as defined previously, is the complex of forces, drives, instincts, tension states, or internal psychological mechanisms that start and maintain activity toward the achievement of personal goals (Hoy and Miskel, 1978). Many theories have been developed to describe and explain this somewhat complex variable. These theories include Taylor's idea that man's motivation is based wholly on economic rewards, Argyris' predisposition model, Maslow's Needs Hierarchy Model, and Herzberg's Two-factor Theory. According to Spuck (1974), the current tendency is to view patterns of motivation as an aspect of the interaction between the individual's personality and the organizational environment.

Job Satisfaction

Not long ago satisfaction was commonly thought to contribute directly to productivity. The general implication was that a

satisfied worker is a productive worker. However, research has failed to validate this relationship (Brayfield and Crockett, 1955). Job satisfaction came to be viewed by many researchers as an output derived from the rewards administered by the organization (Hinrichs, 1974). Job satisfaction continues to be of interest not only because of its relationship to organizational reward but also because many people believe job satisfaction contributes to the morale of the group and is valuable for an organization (Weis and Hubbard, 1973).

Although differences in perception, in work roles, and in organizational rewards appear to make a difference in job satisfaction, they are not viewed exclusively. Various personal reasons such as age, sex, and skill level have some effect on favorable and unfavorable levels of satisfaction in many cases (Invancevich and Donnelly, 1968). Hoy and Miskel (1978) pointed out that one of the most common approaches for studying the job-satisfaction level relates to work itself. The gender of a person is one characteristic that could show a relationship to job satisfaction.

Sex Differences

Despite the Equal Pay Act of 1963, Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act, as amended in 1972, Executive Order 11246, as amended by EO 11375; and Title IX of the Education Amendment of 1972 Epstein (1975) stated that the average of women's salaries was 56.6 percent of what men earned in 1973, and professional women earned only 65.2 percent of what professional men earned. A

study by Sweet (1975) found that in 1970 the proportion of women receiving doctorates was below the proportions in 1920 and 1930. Data on women in higher education during the 1970's indicate that women are increasing their numbers in higher education, but at the upper levels there remain large differences. Kreps (1975) compared the position of women in academia in today's market with that of several decades ago. She predicted that the future of academic women is based on what the economy and known demographic facts will do to the hiring and placement of both sexes. Scott (1973) estimated that, if universities hired only 182 women yearly from 1970 to 1982, the female proportion would reach almost 50 percent by 1982 and that a hiring pattern of 50 percent women would bring their proportion up to only almost 30 percent by that time. Since it is clearly not appropriate to restrict hiring to women during the next several years, one conclusion is inevitable: Men will continue to assure a majority of the academic posts for quite some time. The longer and more severe a "depression" in higher education, the slower the pace in changing the mix of women and men in university faculties.

Demographic Variables

The confidential personal demographic data requested from each faculty member included biographical information as follows:

1. Position
2. Sex
3. Unit of teaching

4. Years of experience in the university
5. Years of experience in current position
6. Tenure-track status
7. Instructional responsibilities
8. Administrative responsibilities

Assumptions, Scope, and Limitations

For this study certain assumptions were necessary. The writer assumed that the respondents (faculty members) to the questionnaires were capable of making objective judgments concerning their professional problems. Another assumption was that the responses to the questionnaires were the true perceptions of the respondents and that the procedures employed in the study yielded valid and reliable data.

It is assumed that, although the Job Descriptive Index and the Educational Work Component Study were not designed to be administered to university people, after the pilot study the instruments can be used with integrity in a university.

Organizations, generally, and colleges and universities, particularly, should take some important and decisive actions to create a motivational climate for employees. Most executives in all organizations try to create adequately motivating climates by enforcing well-established, standardized approaches to compensation, job design, promotion, and selection.

The study covered the male and female faculty members holding the ranks of full professor, associate professor, and assistant professor in the following units of a Midwestern regional university:

1. College of Education
2. College of Fine Arts
3. College of Engineering
4. College of Business
5. College of Liberal Arts and Science

The questionnaires were administered during the summer of 1980. Any generalizations drawn from this study must take into account the parameters established through specific identification of the population studied and the time frame of the study.

Organization of the Study

The dissertation is organized into five chapters. Chapter I is an introduction and a definition of the study. Chapter II contains the review of literature and theories about motivation to work and job satisfaction. Chapter III covers methodology and procedures. Chapter IV contains an analysis of the findings of the study. Chapter V consists of the summary, the conclusions, and the recommendations. Tables and figures appear either with the discussion of relevant topics or in the appendix.

CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

Researchers and managers are increasingly studying the way jobs are designed as an important factor in determining the motivation, the satisfaction, and the performance of employees at work. This is not to say that jobs previously have been seen as irrelevant to organizational administration. Earlier in this century, when scientific management was in its prime, considerable research effort was expended to find ways that jobs could be simplified, specialized, standardized, and routinized. At the same time industrial psychologists were developing rather complex and sophisticated procedures for describing and analyzing jobs in terms of their simplest components and as a means of evaluating the skill levels required for different jobs. The results of job analyses have been used for establishing fair rates of pay, for training purposes, and in personnel selection (Ghiselli & Brown, 1955; Lytle, 1946; Stigers & Reed, 1944). The general expectation of the scientific-management approach was that, by simplifying jobs, work could be carried out more efficiently; less-skilled employees would be required; the control of management over production would be increased; and, ultimately, organizational profits would be enhanced.

In recent years numerous scholars have documented a number of unintended and unfortunate consequences of the trend toward work simplification (Argyris, 1964; Blauner, 1964; Davis, 1957; Friedmann, 1961; Guest, 1955; Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1951; Walker, 1950; Walker & Guest, 1951). Simple, routine nonchallenging jobs often lead to high employee dissatisfaction, to increased absenteeism and turnover, and to substantial difficulties in effectively managing employees who work on simplified jobs. The expected increase in profitability from work simplification has not materialized as had been hoped, and the reasons apparently have much to do with the human problems encountered when jobs are standardized and simplified.

One of the most important factors in a faculty member's work is job security, which can give the faculty member a sense of belonging and involvement in his/her job. Stuart H. Blum (1961) found that emphasis on a desire for security in choosing a job or an occupation exists as a trait of some comprehensiveness that can be measured reliably and is positively related to the actual choice of a secure job situation.

Difference in Motivation to Work and Job Satisfaction between Males and Females

The impact of the current emphasis on sex equity, the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, and other legislatively mandated bodies, the Equal Pay Act, the Civil Rights Act, and the Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 concerning the hiring of more

female faculty professors for universities is considerable, but women are still facing basic sex discrimination in some universities.

Jessie Bernard (1964) stated:

Academic women constitute a different population, statistically speaking, from academic men. In the world of academic women, career patterns develop along different lines. Women tend to serve in institutions which emphasize different functions, and they themselves are attracted to different kinds of functions. Further, they tend to be in areas which are not in strategic positions in the academic market place and which are not as productive as the areas that attract men. (p. 15)

The purpose of the women's movement was basically to end discrimination against women. Lerner (1971) defined some terms that are important in understanding the new women's movement in an article in The American Scholar entitled "Women's Rights and American Feminism." She defined American Feminism as "freedom from oppressive restrictions imposed because of sex." She described the women's rights movement as "winning legal rights" and went on to say that the women's liberation movement was "a call for reappraising traditional male and female roles." (pp. 235-248) The fact that these terms and movements exist is an indication that the reappraisal of job satisfaction and motivation to work for working women is at hand. The ideas of the new feminism, according to Lerner (1971), are based on three general principles: First, equal opportunity for all women who want to work; second, consideration of individual capabilities and limitations; and, third, mutual responsibility and partnership.

Important contributors to job dissatisfaction among women faculty members have been lack of promotional opportunities and inequalities in access to better positions. A promotional satisfaction index shows that female faculties are significantly less satisfied than male faculties with their promotion prospects and with the university's promotion policies (Manpower Report of the President, 1974). Although a growing body of empirical research has examined barriers to ascent for women, some focusing on overt discrimination, others on the psychological barriers (especially in studies of the motive to avoid success), research has virtually ignored structural barriers to ascent. Epstein (1970) defined structural barriers such as the colleague system of the professions, the sponsor-protege relationship, and the patterns of social interaction that reinforce sex-role stereotypes, but her well-articulated speculations lack empirical corroboration. Even some of the most notable works on women in academe (Hendersen, 1967; Mitchell, 1968; Rossi & Calderwood, 1973) have not specifically researched these instructional issues.

The collegial relationship is very important to faculty members in general and to female faculty members specifically. This study reveals that the collegial relationship among the faculty members enhances the job-satisfaction level among the faculty members. Quite a few studies have been done on this important issue. The importance of collegiality would be understood well when we consider the crucial role collegial relations are presumed to play

in developing a professional identity and for advancement in the field. Epstein (1970) noted:

The professions depend on intense socialization of their members, much of it by immersion in the norms of professional culture even before entry; and later by the professional's sensitivity to his peers. These controls depend on a strong network cemented by bonds of common background, continual association, and affinity of interests. . . . Not only do contracts with professional colleagues act as a control system they also provide the wherewithal by which the professional may become equipped to meet the highest standards of professional behavior (p. 972).

Collegial relationships play a very important role on the faculty members' job satisfaction. Some researchers (Lauman, 1973; Orzack, 1963; Wilensky & Ladinsky, 1967) concluded that close personal friendships among professionals are frequently occupationally based. "By and large," reported Lauman, ". . . professionals are much more likely to select friends among themselves . . . than clerical and other bureaucratically employed workers" (1973, pp. 109-110). In fact, there is some empirical evidence (Wilensky & Landinsky, 1967) that within the professions, occupationally based friendships are more predominant among individuals of minority, religious, and ethnic groups than others. Bearing a minority status as professionals, women might, like minority men, seek occupationally based friendships even more than their male colleagues. The difficulties women face as professionals, whether originating from outright discrimination, poor professional socialization, exclusion from the protege system and informal channels of communication, or any other structural barriers so well articulated

by Epstein (1970), may lead them to seek personal friendships within the occupational setting even more than men.

Fewer women are employed in higher education, as compared with the number in the public schools, and their absence from the higher ranks and the patterns of sex segregation are apparent. Grant & Lind (1977) in Digest of Education Statistics stated:

In 1975-1976 of all the instructional faculty in institutions of higher education, 76% were men and 24% were women; and among the higher rank of full professors less than 10% were women. Of the associate professors, 17% were women, and of the assistant professors only 29% were women. Most of the women who teach at colleges and universities are at the lowest ranks of instructor and lecturer, positions that often do not even lead to tenure. Within each rank, women faculty earn less than men do. (p. 29).

Administration also remains male dominated in higher education where 6.8 percent of all college presidents are women--132 compared with 1,808 male presidents. Gribskov (1978) reported that there were 55 women among the 652 university and college presidents in 1928, an 8 percent representation. At the present time the woman faculty member devotes considerably more time to student-related services while men claim to be more involved in research (Eckert, 1971).

Women held the fewer representatives in higher education positions and possessed the lower proportion in the higher ranks and in the more prestigious universities, as Harris (1970) stated: "The role is a simple one: the higher the fewer." (p. 50)

Maccoby & Jacklin (1974) found that the sexes are quite similar with respect to the aspect of motivation to work; that is, there

is no evidence that one sex works more than the other because of intrinsic interest in a task rather than for praise and approval.

Baldrige et al. (1978) reviewed women faculty members on the following five issues:

1. The distribution of women within higher education
2. The career activities of women as contrasted to men
3. The academic reward system as it applies to men and women
4. Role of women in governance
5. Satisfaction and morale of women in higher education

Baldrige et al. (1978) postulated:

. . . The more prestigious the institution, the fewer the women on the faculty. Among the elite, research oriented multiversities, only 13 percent of the faculty are women. In the middle group of institutions, the percentage of women jumps to 21 to 25 percent. In the private junior colleges the percentage of women faculty is very high 42 percent. (p. 178)

In the work and career activities for women Baldrige et al. (1978) stated:

1. Women tend to be in traditionally "women's disciplines." Women teach mainly in the humanities, nursing, and in vocational areas in two-year college terminal programs.
2. Women faculty are only about half as likely to hold earned doctorates as their male counterparts. Only about 32 percent of women faculty members hold doctorates, as compared to about 61 percent for male faculty members.
3. Women are mainly involved in teaching whereas men are more often in research as well. (pp. 180-181)

In the reward system on issues such as rank, tenure, salary, and teaching loads Baldrige et al. (1978) found that "The ranks of professor and associate professor appear to be a male dominate. Overall, 61 percent of all faculty men and 50 percent of all faculty women have full-time tenured positions. Within all institutions women are more likely than men to be in marginal, irregular, nonladder, part-time, exceptional, or fringe positions." (p. 187) Women also are paid less than their male colleagues (Bayer, 1970). In teaching loads women are more likely than men to carry heavy responsibilities for undergraduate teaching while men faculty members spend more time teaching graduate students and doing research.

Baldrige et al. (1978) found that the female faculty members are badly underrepresented in administrative ranks, are less likely than men to participate in policymaking activities such as committees and senates, and the attitude of women toward unions presents a mixed picture.

Finally, about morale and satisfaction rates of female faculty members Baldrige et al. (1978) stated:

In general, it would be reasonable to guess that women, given their disadvantaged status as shown throughout the study would be very unhappy, dissatisfied, and restless. Actually the picture is much more complex than that. In some ways women are unhappy, but in other ways they report higher levels of satisfaction and morale than men. (p. 195)

The way jobs are designed has a great influence on faculty members' motivation to work and job satisfaction. The degree of participatory decision making and job involvement among the male

and female faculty members produce "intrinsic" or internal motivation far more powerful than motivation produced by external or intrinsic rewards the internal motivation give the person a sense of accomplishment, personal growth, and satisfaction.

During the past few years concern about the status of women in higher education has been increasing. Recently public opinion, legislation, and the judiciary have called for an end to sex discrimination in hiring and promotion, in decision making, and in salaries for both academic and nonacademic employees. This pressure would have a great impact on male and female faculty members and their degrees of motivation to work and job satisfaction.

The potential importance of departmental differences in decentralization of the decision-making process and also job satisfaction between male and female faculty members can be illustrated simply thus: Some departments may treat male and female faculty the same without discrimination so that men and women have the same opportunity in decision making and job involvement. Other departments may have the opposite view. They involve more of their male than female faculty members in decision making. There are several reasons that women faculty members may be differentially involved in decision making and job involvement.

(a) In general, universities tend to employ relatively few women on their faculties (Carnegie Report, 1973; Bayer and Stein, 1975).

(b) Although in recent years women have been moving toward equal work and, consequently, equal satisfaction with that of men, they

still face some basic sex discrimination. The Women's Bureau in the Department of Labor established in 1920 (Monts and Rice, 1970) tried to regulate the work conditions for all employees regardless of their sex. The Equal Pay Act of 1963 called for an end to discrimination on the basis of sex in regard to pay, but differences remain.

(c) In 1971, women, compared with men, experienced more disadvantages in employment than they did in 1940 (Koontz, 1971). "In 1940 . . . women held 45 percent of all professional and technical positions. In 1969 they held only 37 percent of such jobs" (Koontz, 1971, p. 45). The degree of job satisfaction among women increased because they had difficulty finding jobs that met their aspirations.

(d) In the mid-1970's, women constituted only 24 percent of the faculty at institutions of higher education and were heavily concentrated at the lower teaching levels: 10 percent were professors, 17 percent were associate professors, 29 percent were assistant professors, 41 percent were instructors, and 40 percent of the lecturers were women (Higher Education Daily, February 2, 1976).

(e) Furthermore, women faculty members tended to be at lower-status colleges or at two-year junior colleges. Even women teaching at prestigious four-year colleges and universities were clustered in disciplines that have traditionally been women's fields (Ladd et al., 1974). The concentration of women in lower ranks is perpetuated by a system that keeps women at the same level for a

substantially longer time than men with equivalent qualifications (Robinson, 1973). This practice results in such disparities as 42 percent of the men with doctorates being made full professors compared with only 16 percent of the women with doctoral degrees holding this rank (Rossi, 1970).

Several documents indicated that not only have academic women been discriminated against in hiring and promotion but also have been paid less than their male colleagues for doing the same job. Estimates are that academic women as a group earn from \$150 million to \$200 million less a year than male faculty members in comparable positions (1973). ("Making Haste Slowly: The Outlook for Women in Higher Education," Carnegie Quarterly, 21, p. 50). In 1975 men earned on the average \$3,000 more than what faculty women received (1976) (Women Faculty Lose a Little Ground, NCES Reports). Pay differentials exist at all ranks and at all types of institutions, indicating that the discrepancy could not be entirely explained by different wages paid at different ranks and at different types of schools (Dorfman, 1975).

Women have also been treated unequally in their teaching assignments and the granting of tenure. Women faculty members generally have been given the least desirable teaching assignments; many more women than men teach only undergraduate classes. In contrast, many more male faculty members have only graduate classes to teach (National Center for Educational Statistics, Digest of Educational Statistics, 1973). Women are also less likely to have tenure than

male faculty members. About 60 percent of the men but only 42 percent of the women had tenure in 1974 (Women Faculty Lose a Little Ground, NCES Reports, 1976).

Laws Against Sex Discrimination

Three laws and one Executive Order against sex discrimination have a significant impact on all faculties, in general, and female faculty members, in particular: Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, as amended in 1972; the Equal Pay Act of 1963, as amended in 1972 and again in 1974; Executive Order 11246, as amended by EO 11375; and Title IX of the Education Amendment of 1972 (Stockard et al., 1980).

Title VII as Amended in 1972. Title VII forbids discrimination against employees on the basis of race, color, religion, sex, or national origin. It covers all employers and is enforced by the office of Equal Employment Opportunities within the Department of Labor. If an institution violates this law, a variety of remedies is available to the employee suffering from discrimination, including back pay, reinstatement, and/or money damages. The 1972 amendments to Title VII extended protection against employment discrimination based on race, color, sex, religion, and national origin to employees within state and local governments and educational institutions.

Equal Pay Act as Amended in 1972 and 1974. The Equal Pay Act prohibits discrimination against employees on the basis of sex while employers are paying them wages, including fringe benefits.

Under the 1971 amendments all employers are covered by this act. The Wage and Hour division of the Department of Labor is responsible for enforcing the law. Employers who violate this law may be ordered to abstain from doing further unlawful acts and may have to give salary raises or back pay to employees suffering discrimination.

Executive Order 11246 as Amended by Executive Order 11375.

Executive orders that forbid discrimination against employees on the basis of race, color, religion, sex, or national origin require the development of affirmative-action plans. All employers who are federal contractors and earn more than \$10,000 are covered by these laws. Both the Office of Civil Rights within HEW and the Office of Federal Contract Compliance within the Department of Labor are responsible for enforcing the law. If a violation of this law occurs, federal contracts may be suspended or terminated; and future contracts may be barred.

Title IX. Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 prohibits discrimination against students and educational employees on the basis of sex. All educational institutions receiving federal assistance are covered by this law, which is enforced by the Office for Civil Rights of HEW. If an institution fails to comply with the law, federal money may be suspended or terminated, and future federal money may be denied.

Goals and Organization of Universities

Universities, like other organizations, have their goals and objectives. The International Encyclopedia of Higher Education (1977) describes the purpose of universities thus: "the transmission and advancement of learning" (p. 249). Further, "Knowledge of the processes of education must form the basis for effective achievement of this purpose." (p. 250)

The research of Gross and Grambsch (Changes in University Organization, 1964-1971) established that, in practice, there were 47 goals for universities.

1. Protect academic freedom
2. Ensure confidence of contributors
3. Maintain top quality in important programs
4. Increase or maintain prestige
5. Train students for scholarship/research
6. Ensure favor of validating bodies
7. Keep up to date
8. Carry on pure research
9. Involve faculty in university government
10. Prepare students for useful careers
11. Maintain top quality in all programs
12. Disseminate new ideas
13. Protect students' right of inquiry
14. Cultivate students' intellect
15. Carry on applied research
16. Provide community cultural leadership
17. Ensure efficient goal attainment
18. Keep costs down
19. Give faculty maximum opportunity to pursue careers
20. Hold staff in face of inducements
21. Preserve cultural heritage
22. Reward for contribution to profession
23. Provide student activities
24. Develop students' objectivity
25. Prepare student for citizenship
26. Encourage graduate work
27. Run university democratically
28. Produce well-rounded student
29. Prepare students for status/leadership

30. Involve students in university government
31. Satisfy area needs
32. Affect student with great ideas
33. Let will of faculty prevail
34. Maintain balanced quality in all programs
35. Reward for contribution to institution
36. Assist citizens through extension programs
37. Develop pride in university
38. Protect students' right of action
39. Provide special adult training
40. Educate to utmost high school graduates
41. Develop students' character
42. Keep harmony
43. Accept good students only
44. Emphasize undergraduate instruction
45. Develop faculty loyalty in institution
46. Preserve institutional character
47. Cultivate students' taste

Among the 47 goals the following eight were rated as important in American universities in the Gross and Grambsch study.

1. Protect academic freedom
2. Cultivate students' intellect
3. Train students for scholarship/research
4. Keep up to date
5. Maintain top quality in all programs
6. Disseminate new ideas
7. Develop students' objectivity
8. Ensure efficient goal attainment

1. Protect academic freedom. The university must create such a climate so that faculties have maximum opportunity to pursue their careers in a manner satisfactory to them by their own criteria, such as the freedom to teach and feeling the campus is a sanctuary from external forces (Gross and Grambsch, 1964-71). Academic freedom can be justified several ways: epistemological, political, and moral. Probably the principal argument is the epistemological (Searle, 1972; Parsons, 1968). To insure the accuracy and validity of knowledge, the scholar must be able to pursue his or her activities

guided only by the canons of truth, a guidance independent of such extraneous pressures as those of church, state, or economic interests.

The attention paid by the supreme court to academic freedom showed that it was a political as well as an epistemological aspect. The former is the prerogative of every citizen, however expert, while the latter is limited to the guild of scholars. The two overlap in that each has a stake in preventing inhibition of the variety of viewpoints, but they are not therefore identical (Jaspers, 1959). This philosophy of the higher learning was incorporated in a landmark decision of the United States Supreme Court affirming academic freedom (Sweezy v. New Hampshire, 1957). Chief Justice Earl Warren declared that "to impose any straitjacket upon the intellectual leaders in our colleges and universities would imperil the future of the nation. No field of education is so thoroughly comprehended by man that new discoveries cannot yet be made. Particularly is that true in the social sciences where few, if any, principles are accepted as absolutes." The guarantee of freedom of speech in the First Amendment to the federal constitution is to be associated with political struggles of long standing (Brubacher, 1977).

2. Cultivate students' intellect. This means to produce a student who, whatever else may be done to him or her, has had his or her intellect cultivated to the maximum. It also means to produce a well-rounded student, that is, one whose physical, social, moral, intellectual, and aesthetic potentialities have all been cultivated (Gross and Grambsch, 1964-1971). John Stuart Mill expressed this

second view of university goals in a famous passage in his inaugural address as Rector of the University of St. Andrews (1875):

Universities are not intended to teach knowledge required to fit men for some special mode of making their livelihood. Their object is not to make skillful lawyers, or physicians, or engineers, but capable and cultivated human beings. It is very right that there should be public facilities for the study of professions. It is well that there should be schools of Law and Medicine. . . . But these things are not part of what every generation owes to the next, as that on which its civilization and worth will principally depend. . . . Men are men before they are lawyers, or physicians, or merchants, or manufacturers; and if you make them capable and sensible men, they will make themselves capable and sensible lawyers or physicians. What professional men should carry away with them from a university is not professional knowledge, but that which should direct the use of their professional knowledge, and bring the light of a general culture to illuminate the technicalities of a special pursuit. There may be competent lawyers without general education, but it depends on general education to make the philosophic lawyers--who demand, and are capable of apprehending principles, instead of merely cramming their memory with details. (pp. 334-335)

3. Train students for scholarship/research. That means training students in methods of scholarship and/or scientific research and/or creative endeavor and enhancing the students' skills, attitudes, contacts, and experiences which maximize the likelihood of his opportunities in occupying a high status in life and a position of leadership in society (Gross and Grambsch (1964-1971)). One of the goals of universities is to help students develop as persons in three respects: in order to fulfill the above-mentioned aspects Cognitive learning, by expanding their knowledge and intellectual powers: Learning, by expanding their knowledge and intellectual

powers; affective development, by enhancing their moral, religious, and emotional interests and sensibilities; and practical competence, by improving their performance in citizenship, work, family life, consumer choice, health, and other practical affairs (Bowen, 1977).

4. Keep up to date. This means the production of new knowledge or the solution of problems by carrying on pure research and applied research (Gross and Crabsch, 1964-1971).

The Carnegie Commission on Higher Education Report (1973) on The Purposes and the Performance of Higher Education in the United States indicated:

Higher education has a great responsibility for (1) developing and making available new ideas and new technology, (2) finding and training talent and guiding it to greater usefulness, and (3) generally enhancing the information, the understanding, and the cultural appreciation and opportunities of the public at large. (p. 23)

5. Maintain top quality in all programs. This means increasing the prestige of the university maintaining the position of the university in terms of the kind of place it is compared with other universities (Gross and Crabsch, 1964-1971).

The Carnegie Commission on Higher Education Report (1973) on "A Classification of Institutions of Higher Education" indicated that there are four types of universities and colleges in the United States: (1) Doctoral-granting institutions, (2) Comprehensive universities and colleges, (3) Liberal arts colleges, (4) Two-year colleges and institutions. All of the above-mentioned higher-education institutions have their own way of competing to enhance their reputations and their qualities. The following are some of the main

programs that almost all of the universities and colleges try to maintain at the top to compete with other similar universities and colleges.

(a) Institutional size. A considerable body of opinion and some documented research supports the proposition that the universities and the colleges, whether they are large or small, always have tried to enlarge their size (Chickering, 1965; Rock, Centra, and Linn, 1969). The research and documents also indicated that small institutions produce more desirable change in students than large institutions. Nevertheless, many researchers have found evidence that smallness is associated with educational advantage (Chickering, 1965; Rock, Centra, and Linn, 1969; Withey, 1971; Clark and Others, 1972; Astin, 1972; Feldman and Newcomb, 1969; Pace, 1974; Bayer, 1975).

(b) Student-faculty relationships. Institutions apparently differ considerably in the nature and closeness of student-faculty contacts (Feldman and Newcomb, 1969). The universities and colleges always try to compete about the degree of student-faculty relationships. As Gaff (1973) pointed out, the involvement of college teachers with students significantly affected educational outcomes as perceived by both teachers and students.

(c) Institutional environment and institutional quality. Astin (1973) found that students of selective institutions are less likely to drop out than students of nonselective institutions. In a series of reports, Solmon (1973, 1975, 1976) found that "the quality of institutions of higher education has an important impact

on lifetime earnings of those who attend." Most studies confirm that students who go to colleges of higher quality earn more money and are more successful in graduate study (Hansen, 1971) than students of equal ability and background who go to colleges of lesser quality.

6. Disseminate new ideas. This means spreading the new knowledge and new ideas, such as ideas in science, literature, the arts, or politics, to enhance the university's prestige and to solve the community's problems (Gross and Grambsch, 1964-1971). As higher education brings changes in individuals through its educational function, as it contributes toward the advancement of knowledge and the arts, and as it renders various public services, its work is bound to have broad social consequences. Therefore, goals for society and spreading the new knowledge in the community, as well as individuals, must be considered (Bowen, 1977).

7. Develop students' objectivity. This means to assist students to develop objectivity about themselves and their beliefs and hence examine those beliefs critically and develop the inner characteristics of students so that they can make sound, correct moral choices (Gross and Grambsch, 1964-1971).

Bowen (1977) indicated that to enhance the students' objectivity, the universities and colleges should try to develop the following:

- A. Cognitive learning
- B. Emotional and moral development
- C. Practical competence

D. Direct satisfactions and enjoyments from college education

8. Ensure efficient goal attainment. This means that the university must govern by those knowledgeable and selected professional groups according to their expertise, abilities, and enthusiasm to attain the goals of the university in the most efficient manner possible (Gross and Crambsch, 1964-1971).

Bowen (1977) stated:

Each college or university employs resources in the form of labor, land, durable capital, and nondurable services and supplies purchased from other industries. The labor includes the services of paid faculty, administrative officers, and supporting personnel. It also includes the valuable but uncompensated time and energy of students and of volunteer workers (for example, trustees). The land and durable capital consists of campus, buildings, and equipment. The nondurable services and supplies include legal advice, auditing, artistic performances, fuel, stationery, books, chemicals, and so on. All of these resources are deployed within a unified organization to "produce" learning through instruction, research and public service. In this way, higher education "transforms" resources into the desired product.
(p. 11)

Administration and Organization of Universities

The organization of universities is very complex. Their basic organizational structure is based on their objectives, size, complexity, and philosophies of education. Typically, most universities are organized on a line-staff basis. Line-staff relationships in universities are complicated by faculty-policy control in the academic areas of admissions, standards, curriculum, and other related areas. The degree of faculty influence on the governance

of the universities depends on the history, the traditions, and the emerging purposes of the institution.

The type of governance and leadership in the universities has a direct effect on university employees, in general, and on faculty members, in particular. Baldrige, Curtis, Ecker, and Riley (1978) outlined these four models of organizational structure in universities:

1. Bureaucratic model
2. Collegial model
3. Organized anarchy model
4. Political model

Table 1 illustrates these four models of organizational structures.

Bureaucratic Model of University Governance

Stroup (1956) is the most prominent advocate of the bureaucratic model of university governance. He adopted the Max Weber (1947) bureaucratic paradigm and applied it to university governance. Stroup postulated the following characteristics of the bureaucratic model:

1. Competence is the criterion used for appointment.
2. Officials are appointed, not elected.
3. Salaries are fixed and paid directly by the organization rather than determined in "free-fee" style.
4. Rank is recognized and respected.
5. The career tends to be exclusive; little other work is done.

TABLE 1

COMPARISONS OF ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURES

	Bureaucratic	Collegial	Political	Organized Anarchy
THEORIST	Weber (Stroup, 1956)	Millett (1962)	Baldrige (1971)	Cohen & March (1974)
APPROACH	Static	Static	Dynamic	Dynamic
GOALS	Unity of Purpose	Unity of Purpose	Pluralistic, Fragmented Goals	Ambiguous, Problematic Goals
CONFLICT	Abnormal	Abnormal	Normal	Expected
THEORY	Formal Hierarchical Structure --Division of labor based on specialization --Hierarchy of authority --Rules and regulations --System of Procedures for dealing with work situations --Impersonality that assures promotion/selection upon competence	"Community of Scholars" --Unity of purpose minimizes conflict --Humanistic approach --trust, openness valued --Shared authority with respect for wishes of constituencies	--Tasks of organization, active and nonroutine --Technology demands professional work force --Environment is competitive and unstable	--Organization has unclear technology and fluid participation --Task requires a professional staff that makes them decision makers and muddles the process
D-M PROCESS	Minority-- from top down	Consensus-- from bottom up	Majority	Flight--don't deal with that topic any more Oversight--Ignore the question purposely Resolution--Ignore the question

6. The style of life is centered around the organization.
7. Security is present in a tenure system.
8. Personal and organizational property are separated.

The bureaucratic paradigm of governance is applicable to universities and, as Baldrige et al. (1978) pointed out, the following factors involve in university administration:

. . . The university is a complex organization chartered by the state and in this respect is like most other bureaucracies. This seemingly innocent fact has major consequences, for the university is thus a corporate "person" with public responsibilities. Second, the university has a formal hierarchy, with offices and a set of bylaws that specify the relations between those offices. "Professors," "instructors," and "research assistants" are bureaucratic officers in the same sense as "deans," "chancellors," and "presidents." Third, there are formal channels of communication that must be respected, as many a student or young professor finds out to his dismay. Fourth, there are definite bureaucratic authority relations in which some officials exercise authority over others. In a university the authority relations are often blurred, ambiguous, and shifting, but no one would deny that they exist. Fifth, there are formal policies and roles that govern much of the institution's work. The library regulations, budgetary guidelines and the procedures of the university senate are all part of the system of regulations and procedures that hold the university together and control its work. Finally, the bureaucratic elements are most vividly apparent to students in the "people-processing" aspects of record-keeping, registration, graduation requirements, and a thousand other routine, day-to-day activities that enable the modern university to handle efficiently its masses of students. (pp. 10-11)

Collegial Model of University Governance

Millett (1962) is one of the proponents of the Collegial Model of University governance. He does not believe that the hierarchy

represents a realistic interpersonal relationship within the university. He emphasized:

. . . I would argue that there is another concept of organization that is just as valuable a tool of analysis and perhaps even more useful as a generalized observation of group and interpersonal behavior. This is the concept of community. The concept of community presupposes an organization in which functions are differentiated and in which specialization must be brought together, or the coordination, if you will, is achieved not through a structure of superordination and subordination of persons and groups but through a dynamic of consensus (1962, pp. 234-235).

Parsons (1947) described the Collegial Model as the "professional authority of faculty." He emphasized that the faculties hold the authority based on their "know" and "can do," not on their official positions.

Organized Anarchy Model of University Governance

Cohen and March (1974) described the following characteristics for the Anarchy Model of University Governance:

1. Problematic goals. The loose collection of changing ideas than as a coherent structure.
2. Unclear technology. Trial-and-error procedures.
3. Fluid participation. Individual participation and amount of time and effort they devote to the organization is uncertain.

Cohen and March said that in the organized anarchy model of governance the decision situations are based on a "garbage can," into which problems and preconceived solutions are poured and kept until a satisfying solution emerges to fulfill the organization's needs.

Cohen and March (1974) are proponents of the organized anarchy model of university governance. They defined the organized anarchy paradigm of university governance as follows:

In a university anarchy each individual in the university is seen as making autonomous decisions. Teachers decide if, when, and what to teach. Students decide if, when, and what to learn. Legislators and donors decide if, when, and what to support. Neither coordination (except the spontaneous mutual adaptation of decision) nor control are practiced. Resources are allocated by whatever process emerges but without explicit accommodation and without explicit reference to some superordinate goal. The "decisions" of the system are a consequence produced by the system but intended by no one and decisively controlled by no one. (p. 33)

Cohen and March (1974) described the following characteristics for the anarchy model of university governance:

1. Problematic goals. It is difficult to impute a set of goals to the organization that satisfies the standard consistency requirements of theories of choice. The organization appears to operate on a variety of inconsistent and ill-defined performances. It can be described better as a loose collection of changing ideas than as a coherent structure. It discovers preferences through action more often than it acts on the basis of preferences (p. 3)
2. Unclear technology. Although the organization manages to survive and (where relevant) produce, it does not understand its own processes. Instead it operates on the basis of a simple set of trial-and-error procedures, the residue of learning from the accidents of past experiences, imitation, and the inventions born of necessity.
3. Fluid participation. The participants in the organization vary among themselves in the amount of time and effort they devote to the organization; individual participants vary from one time to another. As a result, standard theories of power and choice seem to be inadequate; and the boundaries of the organization appear to be uncertain and changing.

Cohen and March said that in the organized anarchy model of governance the decision situations are based on a "garbage can," into which problems and preconceived solutions are poured and kept until a satisfying solution emerges to fulfill the organization's needs. Cohen and March stated that within a garbage-can process decisions are made in three ways:

- a. By oversight. If a choice is activated when problems are attached to other choices and if there is energy available to make the new choice quickly, it will be made without any attention to existing problems and with a minimum of time and energy.
- b. By flight. In some cases, choices are associated with problems (unsuccessfully) for some time until a choice "more attractive" to the problems comes along. The problems leave the choice and thereby make it possible to make the decision. The decision resolves no problems (they having now attached themselves to a new choice).
- c. By resolution. Some choices resolve problems after some period of working on them. The length of time may vary greatly (depending on the number of problems). This is the familiar case that is implicit in most discussion of choice within organizations (p. 83).

Political Model of University Governance

Baldrige (1971) proposed a new model of university governance called "Political System." He said that universities are complex organizations that could be studied as a small political system. He pointed out the following criteria for the political model:

1. Social structure
2. Interest articulation
3. The legislative stage

4. Formulation of policy

5. Execution of policy

Baldrige (1971) described the political paradigm of university governance as follows:

The political model assumes that complex organizations can be studied as miniature political systems, with interest group dynamics and conflicts similar to those in city, state, and other political situations. The political model has several stages, all of which center around the university's policy forming processes. Policy formation was selected as the central focal point because major policies commit the organization to definite goals, set the strategies for reaching those goals, and in general determine the long-range destiny of the organization. Policy decisions are critical decisions, those that have a major impact on the organization's future. In any practical situation it may be difficult to separate the routine from the critical, for issues that seem minor at one point may later be considerable importance, or vice versa. In general, however, policy decisions are those that bind the organization to important courses of action. (p. 34)

Historical Perspective of Job Satisfaction and Motivation

The most formal recognition of job satisfaction and motivation to work as separate areas of study and research began with the work of Kornhauser in 1930. He stated:

Vocational selection procedures, training programs, and rest periods are evaluated in terms of efficiency. Why not also be references to satisfaction? Of course the two are not independent; often a study of morale is highly significant in its bearing on output. But even where it is not, we may be interested in the individual and social effects of the work. . . . (p. 348)

The terms motivation to work, satisfaction, morale, and attitudes have been used in thousands of social and psychological studies. In this study the term "satisfaction" is used to cover all aspects

of feeling about work as male and female university professors view it.

The study of job satisfaction was rare until the distinguished reviews of Hoppock (1935), Chase (1951), Brayfield and Crockett (1955), and Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, and Capwell (1957).

Since 1957, researchers and sociologists like Robinson (1957, 1958, 1959); Robinson & Connors (1960, 1961, 1962, 1963, 1964); Katzell (1958); Robinson, Connors, & Witacre (1966); Vroom (1964); Smith (1967); Fuller and Miskell (1972); Miskel, Glasnapp, & Hatley (1972); Schmidt (1976); and Korman (1977) have done studies about job satisfaction.

The study of motivation to work began with the work of McClelland, et al. (1953). French (1958) found that the ability to solve problems was a function of both intelligence and achievement, the effect of intelligence being greater for more highly motivated subjects, which shows that the relationship is multiplicative, i.e., $\text{performance} = \text{ability} \times \text{motivation}$.

Intrinsic and extrinsic reinforcement has a great impact on the worker's motivation to work, in general, and on the university faculty member, in particular. Extrinsic reinforcers include pay, fringe benefits, and promotions. Intrinsic reinforcers are those over which the employees exert a high degree of control and that are a naturally occurring function of the work itself. Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) found that positive events are dominated by references to intrinsic, motivator, or satisfier aspects of the

job, such as achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, and advancement.

Herzberg also stated that a vehicle for increasing work motivation is job enrichment, which provides a maximum amount of intrinsic satisfaction. Porter and Lawler (1968) expressed the effect of job enrichment on the basis of the different nature of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. Deci (1972-1976) found that, when extrinsic rewards are tied to performance, intrinsic motivation suffers. Blum (1961) found that the desire for security can be a deciding factor in one's occupation. The evidence shows that intrinsic reinforcement and extrinsic reinforcement are incompatible with each other (Miller, 1976; Pinder, 1976; Foster and Hammer, 1974). Bandura (1969) found that there is a good reason to believe that intrinsic reinforcement is conditioned by extrinsic reinforcement.

One of the most studied areas of organizational behavior is job satisfaction. The interest in job satisfaction is due to its role as a potential predictor of other organizational facets, such as performance and desirable job outcome (Korman, 1977). Lawler (1970) in his study of job attitudes and employee motivation indicated:

. . . satisfaction is an indicator of an employee's motivation to come to work. Research studies have consistently found relationships between satisfaction and absenteeism and turnover (Broyfield & Crockett, 1955; Herzberg et al., 1957; Schuh, 1976; Vroom, 1964). This relationship can be explained by using an expectancy theory approach to motivation (Lawler, 1967). According to this view a person's motivation to attend his job is strongly influenced by the relative attractiveness of attending the job (Vroom, 1964, p. 12).

In university premises the degree of motivation and job satisfaction show different aspects: a most important criterion that has a great impact on faculty satisfaction and dissatisfaction in the university is the qualification of the faculty in the decision-making process. Several studies have shown a direct and an obvious relationship between professionalization and so-called decentralization of organization, which are the most powerful causes of satisfaction and dissatisfaction among instructors in the university. Blau et al. (1966) in their study of 156 public personnel agencies found that "professionalization and centralization of authority seem to be alternative methods for organizing responsibilities." (p. 20) Pelz and Andrews (1962) found in a study of scientists employed by a research organization that the personnel with Ph.D. degrees participated more often than their colleagues in decisions regarding their work. Miller's study (1967) also indicated that scientists with Ph.D. degrees holding the professorial position had a higher degree of choice regarding the research projects in which they became involved than those with only M. A. degrees holding the same professorial position.

Keaveny, Jackson, and Fossum (1978) tested the assumption that gender does indeed make a difference in job satisfaction. They surveyed the work force in a western state and then compared men and women on overall satisfaction with their jobs as well as sources of dissatisfaction if dissatisfaction was indicated. Their findings pointed out that for the total combined sample there was no difference in the overall proportion of males and females satisfied with their

jobs; however, there was a significant difference among workers with graduate or professional degrees; males expressed more satisfaction than females. Weaver (1974) analyzed a cross section of males and females in various occupational categories and concluded that a greater proportion of males in the occupational category composed of professional, technical, and kindred workers tended to express more job satisfaction than their female counterparts.

Hollen and Gemmell (1976), who compared community college female and male professors on job satisfaction in decision making, job-related tension, job involvement, and job satisfaction, reported that male professors express greater levels of overall job satisfaction than female professors. Contradictory findings were reported more than 25 years ago by Chase (1951). He examined the satisfaction of elementary and secondary teachers and found women were slightly more satisfied with their jobs than male teachers were.

Grassie and Carss (1973) asserted that teachers have a different orientation to their profession. Teachers have differing motivations to work, differing primary interests, and differing economic backgrounds. These factors, when brought together with actual teaching experience, result in satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their jobs. Miskel, Glasnapp, and Hatley (1975) elaborated on this view when they concluded that individual work-motivation attitudes and perceived organizational incentives were related to each other and to job satisfaction.

Mitchell (1974) proclaimed that a worker's satisfaction with his/her job results from the instrumentality or attainability of the job for securing other outcomes and the value of those outcomes.

The researcher assumed that the primary goals of work are effectiveness and production; however, if the worker is not satisfied with his job, an overall decline in his effectiveness and productivity results. The happiness of an employee is not necessarily dependent on being productive or creative. A more accurate statement about high morale is that it indicates a predisposition to be more productive if effective leadership is provided and technical production factors are adequately coordinated. For example, a study of 385 production workers showed no significant correlation of attitudes with productivity.

The degree of job satisfaction among faculty members depends on various factors such as participation in the decision-making process, academic freedom, promotional opportunities and status, financial rewards, and supervision. Organizations must maintain a certain level of satisfaction among their members. Jerald Hage (1965) in "An Axiomatic Theory of Organizations" said: "Job satisfaction, or morale, is measured by standard attitude of batteries and the amount of turnover. The higher the morale and lower the turnover, the higher the job satisfaction in the organization." (p. 42) The relation of morale to productivity is further complicated by confusion of high morale with some of the variables that comprise it, such as satisfaction or happiness.

Morale can be considered high when a person's happiness, satisfactions, and adjustment are related to enthusiastic accomplishment of organizational objectives. In other words, morale is high when each person feels he is reaching his goals by "contributing" himself to the organization's objectives. Simple satisfaction with one's progress toward personal goals is an inadequate indicator of morale. In this way a modern definition of morale emphasizing job motivation developed.

Satisfaction and similar factors are still a part of high morale, but only a part of it. There is evidence that job satisfaction does reduce turnover, absence, and tardiness but is not necessarily a strong work motivating factor.

The easiest way to find out how much a person enjoys his work is to ask him. A number of the early surveys were conducted by Hoppock (1935) and by Hulin and Smith (1967).

Sociologists approached the problem of satisfaction in terms of the concept of "alienation." Later sociologists expanded the concept of alienation, and these four kinds are now recognized:

1. Powerlessness--Lack of control over management policy, the conditions of employment, or the immediate work process.
2. Meaninglessness--Inability to see the purpose of the work done or how it fits into the whole production process.
3. Isolation--Not belonging to working groups or guided by their norms of work behavior.

4. Self-estrangement--Failure to regard the work as a central life interest or means of expression, experiencing a depersonalized detachment while at work (Seeman, 1959; Blauner, 1964).

Michael Argyle (1972) said:

The first three factors correspond to traditional aspects of job satisfaction. Powerlessness is closely related to lack of autonomy in work, and also to lack of satisfaction with supervision, and inability to participate in decisions. Meaninglessness is primarily related to the nature of the task and to the extent to which the work of individual workers and members of groups adds up to a meaningful whole. Isolation is identical with lack of satisfaction with the group of co-workers. Self-estrangement is a new concept. Workers may be alienated in all these ways but still be satisfied with their pay. On the other hand, there is a strong general factor of job satisfaction, and the various aspects of alienation will correlate fairly highly with this so that it may be unnecessary to treat it as a separate feature of work attitudes (p. 226).

There appear to be no all-embracing theories of job satisfaction. Work on the subject has been focused on certain factors thought to be related to satisfaction or dissatisfaction in work. Few researchers have made a wide and simultaneous survey of a large number of related variables. Job dissatisfaction has been easier to identify and measure than job satisfaction, and it has been customary to look at labor-turnover figures as one indication of this.

Determining how many people are satisfied with their jobs is difficult. In 1935 Robert Hoppock started a classic study of job satisfaction. He said, "To formulate an adequate definition of anything about which we know so little is an extremely difficult if not impossible task."

Causes of Job Satisfaction

Intrinsic Nature of the Work

Herzberg, et al. (1959) found that positive events are dominated by references to intrinsic aspects of the job itself while negative events are dominated by references to extrinsic aspects of the job situation. Centers and Gugental (1966) demonstrated that at higher occupational levels; intrinsic nature of work plays a very important role in satisfaction of employees.

- (a) Autonomy. People like to be free to choose how they will work. The faculty members would like to have a greater autonomy.
- (b) Use of skills and abilities. Several surveys found that satisfied workers say that they are able to use their skills or abilities. Self-expression leads to satisfaction (Vroom, 1962).

How important is the intrinsic nature of work as a source of job satisfaction? The surveys that asked about its importance have all found it very high on the list (Herzberg et al., 1959). However, a very interesting study by Turner and Lawrence (1966) has shown that some workers are not made happier by having interesting work. Blood and Hulin (1967) found that satisfaction did not correlate at all with interest in work.

Hours of Work

Shift work is generally disliked. Vroom (1964) suggested that the dislike of shift work depends on how much the worker's leisure and family activities are disrupted by the hours of work and on how much the disrupted activities are valued. Absenteeism goes up when more hours are worked per week.

Incentive Conditions

Rewards and incentives are very important causations of job satisfaction among the workers.

- (a) Pay. Better-paid workers are more satisfied, but they also do different work and have higher status (Remitz, 1960). There is no doubt that when pay is too low, either relatively or absolutely, it is a source of dissatisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1959).
- (b) Status system or stratification. Jerald Hage said:

The satisfaction or status system is measured by determining the difference in rewards between jobs and the relative rates of mobility between them. Although the relative rate of mobility is called the amount of openness, the author suggests that it is also an indicator of the degree of stratification; that is, the more open the status system, the less stratified it is. The greater the disparity in rewards between the top and bottom status level and the lower the rates of mobility between them, the more stratified the organization. (p. 91)

Hage also stated:

The higher the stratification, the lower the job satisfaction because, if an organization gets more stratified, that organization will impose too much formalization, and as a consequence, even though the productivity will get higher, but the rate of job satisfaction among employees will be lower. (p. 92)

- (c) Promotion. Herzberg et al. (1959) found that achievement, recognition, and advancement were the main causes of positive satisfaction. The importance of promotion varies among social classes and at different skill levels. For managerial and professional people, work is part of a career, and promotion is of the highest importance. For unskilled and semi-skilled workers promotion is less likely and is less sought after.

Security

Viteles (1954) found that security is the most important feature of a job. Wilkins (1950) found that even the most intelligent people are also very much interested in long-term job security.

Participation in Decision Making

Participation in the decision-making process is a very important cause of job satisfaction among faculty members. Due to the vital importance of employees' participation in the decision-making process in organization structure, it is discussed in broad terms.

L. Coch and J. R. P. French (1948) conducted an early study on the effects of participation in decision making in a series of field experiments at the Harwood Manufacturing Corporation.

Daniel E. Griffiths (1969) commented:

The key concept in this discussion is that of directing and controlling the decision-making process. It is not only central in the sense that it is more important than other functions, as some writers have indicated; it is also central in that all other functions of administration can best be interpreted in terms of the decision-making process. Decision-making is becoming generally recognized as the heart of the organization and the process of administration. McCammy states this clearly and concisely: "The making of decision is at the very center of the process of administration, and the discussion of administration will be more systematic if we accept a framework for the analysis of decision-making." Simon caps his argument on this line by stating: "A general theory of administration must include principles of organization that will insure correct decision-making, just as it must include principles that will insure effective action." Livingston, using the term management as administration is used in this paper, states: "If we expand the concept of decision-making to include, on the one hand, the process by which the decision is arrived at, and on the other hand, to include the process by which we implement or make the decision work, and if we further recognize that this is a continuing, dynamic process rather than an occasional event, then decisioning means something quite different than heretofore and becomes the basis of all managerial action. (p. 71)

Other causes of job satisfaction are:

Sex

Early studies showed that women are more satisfied than males with their jobs. Morse (1953) found that only 35 percent of the women were dissatisfied with their jobs while 55 percent of the men were discontented with their jobs. The findings of Chase (1951)

and Belasco and Alutto (1972) indicated that female professionals are more satisfied than their male counterparts with their jobs. In contrast, Weaver (1974) and Hollon and Gemmell's (1976) studies showed that the males and females in academic areas differ in their level of overall job satisfaction. Since 1974 research indicates that women professionals experience a lower level of satisfaction. Hollon and Gemmell in their study "A Comparison of Female and Male Professors on Participation in Decision Making, Job Related Tension, Job Involvement, and Job Satisfaction" (1976) indicated:

Female professionals report significantly less liking of their current job situations and less opportunity to do what they are best at than their male counterparts. On the other hand, no significant difference based on sex is found with respect to their rating of how good their superiors were in dealing with people. (p. 7)

See Table 2.

Age

A U-shaped relationship often revealed that young employees become rapidly disillusioned, are least satisfied in their twenties, but become increasingly contented as they get older. Shapiro and Wahba in their study of "Age and Job Satisfaction of Men and Women: A Test of an Instrumentality Model" (1973) found that age is a very important element of job satisfaction among male and female employees.

Personality

The studies have commonly found that neurotic people are less satisfied with their work as well as with other aspects

TABLE 2

COMPARISON OF FEMALE AND MALE TEACHING PROFESSIONALS
IN ACADEME ON SPECIFIC ITEMS IN THE MEASURE
FOR OVERALL JOB SATISFACTION

Items	Female Mean (N = 110)	Male Mean (N = 211)	Mean Difference	T Value	Significance ^a
How well one likes current job situation	3.97	4.25	.28	2.57	p < .01
Opportunity to do things you're best at	4.05	4.25	.20	1.98	p < .05
How good superior is in dealing with people	3.39	3.54	.15	1.03	p > .10

^aSince the t-tests are not statistically independent because the intercorrelations are from a single sample, the levels of significance should be interpreted with considerable latitude.

Source: Shapiro and Wahba (1973, 45)

of their lives, than normal people. Satisfaction also depends on how far a person can satisfy his particular set of needs in his job. Vroom (1960) in his research "Some Personality Determinants of the Effects of Participation" found that the correlation between satisfaction and the extent of participation in decisions was 0.55 for those deeming independence important and 0.13 for those to whom it was unimportant.

Relationship among Pay, Productivity, and Job Satisfaction

Salary is one of the most important factors contributing to workers' satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Pay that is too low,

either relatively or absolutely, is a source of dissatisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1959). Social scientists also contend that there is a positive relationship between satisfaction and productivity. Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) found a direct relationship between satisfaction and productivity.

Even though pay could not play an important and direct role in employees' productivity and job satisfaction, when pay is not adequate or fair, employees become dissatisfied because they feel less secure; consequently, their productivity drops drastically. Porter and Lawler's (1968) research showed that a positive relationship exists among satisfaction, pay, and productivity. They reported:

Adams (1965) stated a theory that makes predictions about the effect of perceived inequity of pay upon job performance. According to Adams, inequity exists when an individual's inputs (effort, skill, etc.) are not in balance with his outcomes--in this case, his pay. Adam's theory predicts that dissonance may cause an individual to reduce his inputs (e.g., lower his performance), in order to bring them in line with his outcomes. (p. 33)

Porter and Lawler (1968) also reiterated a statement by Haire et al. (1963) that the most motivating element in American society is pay. They repeated another statement by Brown (1962) saying that the wage system is not the only important criterion of work, but the key building block in motivating the employee toward better performance is pay.

Theories on Motivation to Work

Most popular among managers, trainers, and human-resource specialists are the motivation theories based on the work of Abraham Maslow (1943), Frederick Herzberg (1959), and Douglas McGregor (1960). Whereas motivation theories are based on a perception of the interaction between the individual and external environment, they are considered as individual motivational state, need, or drive.

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory of Human Motivation

Maslow's Theory of Needs Hierarchy has become one of the most popular and the most studied theories for human motivation. Maslow summarized his theory as follows:

(1) There are at least five sets of goals that we may call basic needs. These are briefly, psychological, safety, love, esteem, and self-actualization. (2) These basic goals are related to one another, being arranged in a hierarchy of prepotency. This means that the most prepotent goal will monopolize consciousness and will tend of itself to organize the recruitment of the various capacities of the organism. The less prepotent needs are minimized, even forgotten or denied. But when a need is fairly well satisfied, the next prepotent ("higher") need emerges to dominate, in turn, the conscious life and to serve as the center of organization of behavior, since gratified needs are not active motivators (Maslow, 1943, p. 44).

The physiological needs are those for food, shelter, clothing, water, sex, and so on. They are first to be perceived by the individual and must be fulfilled to a "tolerable" degree

before the individual will perceive any of the needs that reside above them in the hierarchy. Similarly, the need for safety (or security) must be fulfilled to some degree before the individual will attempt to fulfill his needs for love and belongingness. Furthermore, as each successive need becomes prepotent, lower-order needs diminish in strength. It should be noted that the theory presented by Maslow does not assume that a person, under normal circumstances, will attempt to completely fulfill any one need before progressing to the next. In fact, the assumption is that it is impossible completely to fulfill needs other than certain physiological needs. (See Figure 1.)

Wahba and Bridwell (1976) suggested that Maslow's Needs Hierarchy Theory suffers from both conceptual and operational shortcomings.

The most problematic aspect of Maslow's theory, however, is that dealing with the concept of need itself. What is meant by the concept of need is not clear. Does need have a psychological and/or physiological base? Does a need develop because of deficiency only, or does need always exist even if it is gratified? How can we identify, isolate, and measure different needs? There is ample evidence that people seek objects and engage in behaviors that are in no way related to the satisfaction of needs. In a discussion of this point Cofer and Apply (1964) concluded that this is probably also true for animals. Vroom (1964) argued that the concept of valance is

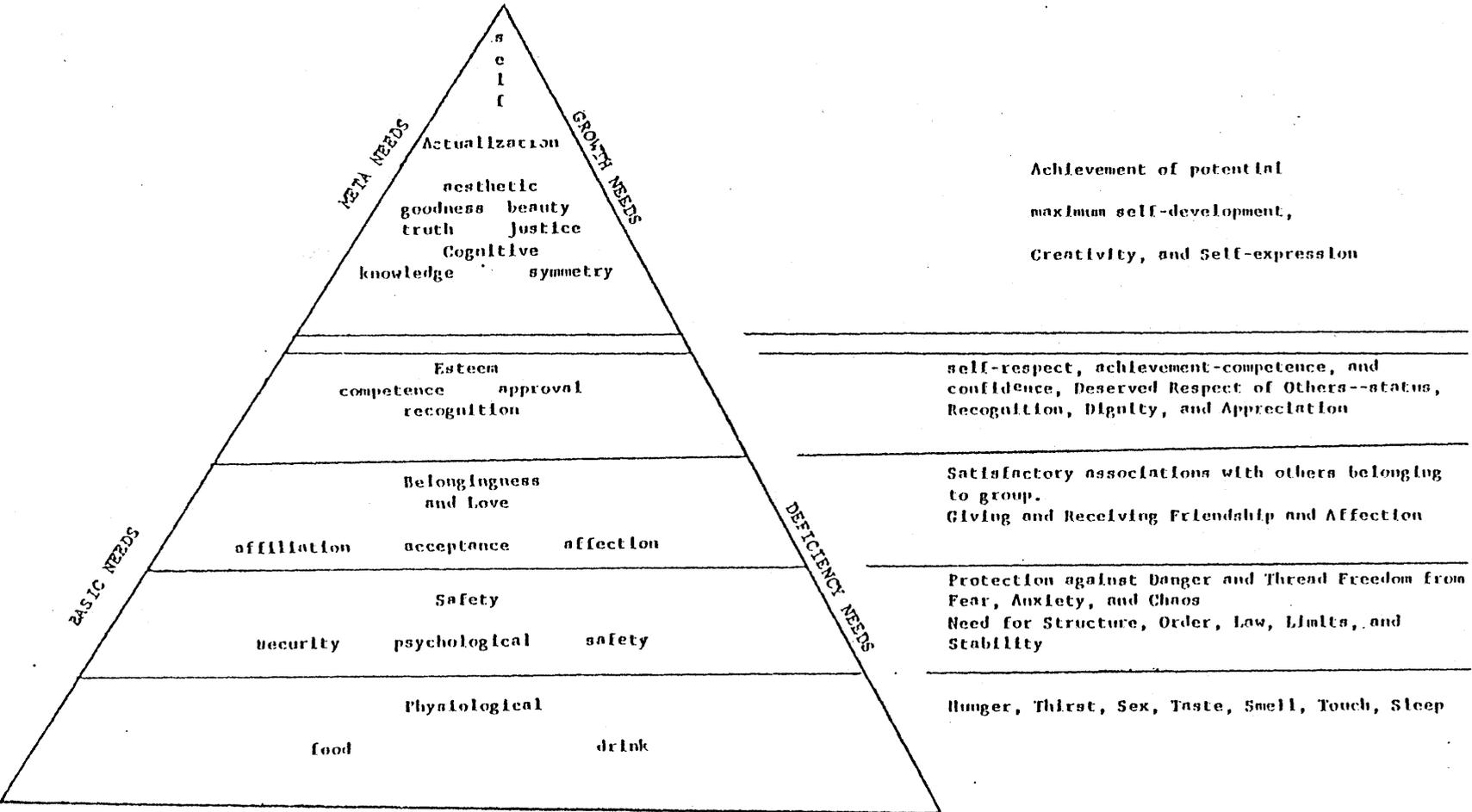


FIGURE 1
MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS

related to that of needs, e.g., objects acquire valance because of their instrumentality for meeting the basic or not basic needs of people. Lawler, however, (1971) limits the use of the term to certain stimuli (or outcomes) that can be grouped together because they are sought by people. Even if we accept such a limited view of needs, the remaining questions should be: Why should needs be structured in a fixed hierarchy? Does this hierarchy vary for different people? What happens to the hierarchy over time? How can we have a fixed hierarchy when behavior is multidetermined?

Alderfer's ERG Theory

Alderfer (1969, 1972) suggested a theory called the ERG theory. In contrast to Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, which suggested the five levels of need, Alderfer considered the individual to have three basic sets of needs:

1. Existence needs: the basic and material needs of human beings satisfied by environmental factors such as food, water, salary, fringe benefits, and the condition of work.
2. Relatedness needs: the relationship of a person with others such as peer groups, superiors, subordinates, family, friends.
3. Growth needs: the unique development of a person and the opportunity to fulfill it. Growth needs are comprised of

all needs that involve a person's becoming creative or productive and his/her interpersonal relationship with the environment.

Maslow's and Alderfer's theories differ in two ways: (1) content and (2) process. Maslow proposed five needs. Alderfer suggested three needs. For Maslow the process is one of fulfillment-progression; for Alderfer, both fulfillment-progression and frustration-regression are important dynamic elements (Landy & Trombo, 1980).

Behaviorism

The major emphasis of this theory is based on: Stimulus-Response-Reward associations. The most attention has been paid to the Response-Reward association.

In a typical study of behaviorism model, the investigators found that individuals rewarded for successful job performance show a greater degree of job satisfaction than individuals not rewarded for successful job performance, so reinforcement plays an important role on a person's job satisfaction (Yukl & Latham, 1975; Yukl, Latham, and Pursell, 1976).

One of the best-known behaviorists is B. F. Skinner, who (1971) proposed that all human and animal behavior can be attributed to Stimulus-Response association. He assumed that behavior at any given time is determined by the person's reinforcement history

and the contingencies in his or her present environment. Skinner further (1) asserted that autonomous man is a myth and (2) contended that man is clearly controlled by the environment (Skinner, 1971).

Behaviorism proposes that behavior is a function of its consequences. To elicit the desired employee behavior, management must see that the consequences of behavior are designed to increase the frequency of desired behavior and decrease the frequency of undesired behavior. The important point in motivating an employee is that rewards follow performance on an effective and appropriate schedule.

Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory

In this theory the two factors are known by many names. One has been called the hygiene factor, the maintenance factor, the extrinsic factor, the dissatisfiers, and the job context factor. The other has been called the motivator factor, the intrinsic factor, the satisfiers, and the job content factor.

Herzberg (1959) stated: Man has two sets of needs: (1) his need as an animal to avoid psychological pain and deprivation--corresponding to Maslow's lower-level needs, (2) his need as an individual to grow intellectually--corresponding to Maslow's higher-level needs (1966).

The process that Herzberg terms "motivation factors" involves mostly rich and potent high-level needs, often called self-fulfillment or self-actualization needs, which he believes to be the key to work performance.

When the motivation factors are entirely fulfilled, an employee's performance can be expected to rise from neutral to high productivity. Motivation factors are: (1) achievement, (2) recognition, (3) work itself, (4) responsibility, and (5) advancement.

Herzberg's second process of motivation is concerned with what he called hygiene factors, which serve primarily to prevent job dissatisfaction. This process involves the "lower-order" needs, such as the physiological ones and some of the simpler elements of the psychological needs. The hygiene factors are (1) salary, (2) possibility of growth, (3) interpersonal relations--subordinate, (4) status, (5) interpersonal relations--superiors, (6) interpersonal relations--peers, (7) supervision--technical, (8) company (university) policy and administration, (9) working conditions, (10) personal life, and (11) job security. Many of these are the needs that every worker in an organization expects will be fulfilled.

The motivation-hygiene theory (Herzberg, 1965) states: (a) job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are not the obverse of each other; rather they are best viewed as separate and parallel continua. (b) Herzberg (1964) commented:

The opposite of job satisfaction would not be job dissatisfaction, but rather no job satisfaction; and similarly the opposite of job dissatisfaction is no job dissatisfaction--not job satisfaction. The statement of the concept is awkward and may appear at first to be a semantic ruse, but there is more than a play with words when it comes to understanding the behavior of people on jobs.

(p. 4)

Herzberg further suggested that factors that satisfy the worker are related to the work itself, and factors that dissatisfy him or

her are related to the environment of work. He also found that the motivation factors tended to affect job attitudes in only a positive direction. The absence of these factors did not necessarily cause job dissatisfaction. The presence of the motivation factors tended to increase the performance of workers.

Argyris' Predispositions Model

The predispositions model introduced by Chris Argyris has been his main interest since 1957. Argyris said that human personality is not given sufficient and proper opportunity to mature in most organizations. Schools are perhaps the only organizations that generally offer such opportunities for their employees to grow.

In a comparison of the mature (grown) and immature (ungrown) personality, Argyris listed the following seven processes:

1. The healthy human being tends to develop from a state of passivity as an infant to a state of activity as an adult.
2. He moves as an infant from a state of dependence upon others to an adult state of relative independence and finally to interdependence.
3. He tends to develop from being capable of behaving in only a few ways as an infant to being capable of behaving in many ways as an adult.
4. He tends to develop from unpredictable, shallow, causal interests of short term as an infant to deeper interests as an adult.

5. He tends to develop from having a short-term perspective as an infant to a much longer time perspective as an adult.

6. He tends to develop from a subordinate position in the family and society as an infant to aspiring to occupy an equal and/or superordinate position in reference to his peers.

7. He tends to develop from lack of awareness of self as an infant to an awareness of and control over self as an adult.

Douglas McGregor's X-Y Theory

During the late 1950's Douglas McGregor proposed a set of theories about human motivation. He called them Theory X and Theory Y. Like Maslow, McGregor believed that man has several needs as follows:

1. Physiological needs
2. Safety needs
3. Social needs
4. Ego needs
5. Self-fulfillment needs

According to McGregor, Theory X is the traditional view of the worker and his attitude toward work. People are lazy and dislike and avoid work, and administrators must use the "carrot and stick" to motivate them. About the carrot-and-stick approach McGregor (1957) stated:

The carrot-and-stick theory of motivation (like Newtonian physical theory) works reasonably well under certain circumstances. The means for satisfying man's physiological and (within limits) his

safety needs can be provided or withheld by management. Employment itself is such a means, and so are wages, working conditions, and benefits. By these means the individual can be controlled so long as he is struggling for subsistence. (p. 150)

Douglas McGregor defined Theory X as follows:

1. The average man is by nature indolent--he works as little as possible.
2. He lacks ambition, dislikes responsibility, prefers to be led.
3. He is inherently self-centered, indifferent to organizational needs.
4. He is by nature resistant to change.
5. He is gullible, not very bright, the ready dupe of the Charlatan and the demagogue.
(p. 152)

The assumption of Theory X and the approaches to motivation and control that result from it may indeed exist in many organizations. Theory X does not reflect inherent human nature; rather, such human behavior is, in part, the result of management's philosophy and practice. McGregor considers Theory X as an extreme and unacceptable one.

McGregor introduced another alternative to Theory X. He called it Theory Y and described it as follows:

1. The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest. The average human being does not inherently dislike work. Depending upon controlled conditions, work may be a source of satisfaction (and will be voluntarily performed) or a source of punishment (and will be avoided if possible).
2. External control and the threat of punishment are not the only means for bringing about effort

toward organizational objectives. Man will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which he is committed.

3. Commitment to objectives is a [result] of the rewards associated with their achievement. The most significant of such rewards, e.g., the satisfaction of ego and self-actualization needs can be the direct product of effort directed toward organizational objectives.
4. The average human being learns under conditions not only to accept but to seek responsibility. Avoidance of responsibility, lack of ambition, and emphasis on security are generally consequences of experience, not inherent human characteristics.
5. The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organizational problems is widely, not narrowly, distributed in the population.
6. Under conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilized. (pp. 153-154)

According to Theory Y, McGregor believes that people are not by nature passive, lazy, irresponsible, or resistant to organizational needs. Thomas Sergiovanni said:

Theory X oriented administrators are: (1) the hard sell, where authoritarian and coercive leadership is exerted; and (2) the soft sell, where human relations or "democratic" and paternal administration prevails. In each instance, subordinates must be persuaded, rewarded, punished, and controlled. (p. 130)

The Theory Y administrator believes that feelings, attitudes, and the performance level of subordinates are a direct reflection of his own attitudes and actions (Sergiovanni, 1973).

Vroom's Motivation Model

Herzberg's and McGregor's theories of motivation are based on the implicit assumption that there is only one best way to motivate the workers: Theory Y with job enrichment. Herzberg thought that the key to meeting the needs of a person is increasing a person's freedom on the job. Each person should be given additional responsibility and greater opportunity to use his expertise and talents. Herzberg called this "job enrichment" and said: "With job enrichment the emphasis was placed on using more of the employee's talents and skills rather than simply giving the person more to do." (Herzberg, 1968, p. 17).

The satisfiers or motivators of Herzberg's theory are similar to those of McGregor's Theory Y. These factors emphasize employee self-control and greater use of the individual's talents. Vroom developed a theory of motivation that recognizes the similarity between Herzberg's and McGregor's theories. He emphasized that the "Motivation to Produce" is a very important factor in an employee's career life. He said:

An individual's level of productivity is believed to be dependent on three major forces:

1. The perceived ability to influence one's own productivity level.
2. The perceived relationship between productivity and goal achievement.
3. The strength of desire for goal achievement. (p. 42)

According to Vroom's (1964) theory, these three factors determine one's motivation to produce at a given time. The theory may

also be called a "contingency model of motivation" because it emphasizes the differences among persons and among jobs. Thus, the employee's level of motivation is contingent upon both forces inside oneself and those built into one's work situation.

Expectancy Theory

The Expectancy Theory was first proposed as an explanation of work behavior by Victor Vroom (1964). It contains three essential and important concepts:

1. Expectancy is based on the belief that the employee's task and effort will bring success and performance to the organization and the person himself. Vroom (1964) pointed out that expectancy is an "action-outcome association." He defined it as the subjective probability that a given act will be followed by a good outcome.

2. Valance is the degree of attractiveness or desirability that an individual attaches to a reward (Miskel, 1978). Valance is also defined as an affective orientation toward an outcome. The Expectancy Theory attributes motivation to the expectancy that an act will be followed by a reward and to the value (valance) that reward holds for the individual. This is a close interpretation of the behavioral process of reinforcement by a given outcome and varies between 0 (certain nonoccurrence) and 1 (certain occurrence) (Vroom, 1964, p. 37).

3. Instrumentality has been described thus: a given performance is necessary for gaining a given reward or satisfying a

valance. Instrumentality is also defined as the degree to which the person sees the outcome in question as leading to the attainment of other outcomes (Vroom, 1964, p. 38).

Vroom proposed three related models for the Expectancy Theory: a job satisfaction model, a work motivation model, and a job performance model.

The job satisfaction model states: "The valance of an outcome to a person is a monotonically increasing function of the algebraic sum of the products of the valences of all other outcomes and his conceptions of the specific outcome's instrumentality for the attainment of these other outcomes." (Vroom, 1964, p. 39)

The work motivation model emphasizes that:

the force on a person to perform an act is a monotonically increasing function of the algebraic sum of the products of the valance of all outcomes and strength of his expectancies that the act will be followed by the attainment of these outcomes (Vroom, 1964, p. 201).

The job performance model is "a function of the product of multiplying ability and motivation" (Vroom, p. 202).

Vroom continued about job performance thus:

Performance = $f(\text{ability} \times \text{motivation})$. It follows from such a formula that, when ability has a low value, increments in motivation will result in smaller increases in performance than when ability has a high value. Furthermore, when motivation has a low value, increments in ability will result in smaller increases in performance than when motivation has a high value (Vroom, 1964, p. 203).

According to the Expectancy Theory, the motivation of an individual engaged in a specific activity is a function of the sum of

the products of the expectations that the act will be followed by a given outcome (goal) and of the value of the outcome (Evans, 1970; Vroom, 1964). Thus, the Motivation for Act A =
 (Expectation that Act A will lead
 to outcome X value of outcome)

An individual is predicted to engage in actions that lead to his important outcomes. If the individual values high pay and sees high production as leading to high pay, then he will tend to be a high producer. Similarly, if the individual values keeping his job and sees high performance as leading to this outcome, he will tend to be a high performer. Lawler (1973) summed up the main propositions of his expectancy theory in the following four statements:

1. People have expectancies about the likelihood that certain outcomes will follow their behavior (p. 49).
2. People have a preference about the various outcomes that are potentially available to them (p. 49).
3. People have expectancies about the likelihood that an action (effort) on their part will lead to the behavior or performance needed to produce the outcomes (p. 49).
4. In any situation, the actions a person chooses to take are determined by the expectancies and the performances that the person has at the time (p. 49).

Expectancy Theory is a cognitive theory. Cognition is the thought process. It is, therefore, an internal approach to motivation and behavioral causation. Expectancy theory presents an explanation of the causes of motivation, which, in turn, influences the behavior of the individual. Expectancy theory is an "incentive theory" of motivation.

Incentive theories describe behavior as being consciously purposeful and goal directed (Lawler, 1971, 1973, p. 122).

Theories on Job Satisfaction

Needs Satisfaction Theory

The conceptualization of job satisfaction is presented in the work of Porter (1961) and Porter and Lawler (1967). In essence, the strategy used was one that substantial perceived need satisfactions of the work environment for job satisfaction.

Haire, Ghiselli, and Porter (1966) defined need satisfaction as "the difference between the perceived fulfillment and the perceived expectation of fulfillment" (p. 167). The measurement of need satisfaction is the difference between how much "there is" of a characteristic and how much there "should be," i.e., the smaller the difference, the more need satisfaction or job satisfaction.

Another contemporary approach to determining job satisfaction follows Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory. In this theory lower-level needs will serve as motivators. Investigators who follow this assumption attempt to find differences in need satisfaction for differing levels of organizational management.

Mixed support for using Maslow's need categories for viewing dimensions of job satisfaction was found by Roberts et al. (1971).

They found:

Maslow's theory arranges the needs which exist within the person's cognitive framework, and not what exists within the environment. The Maslow categories

might be most accurately reflected in response to the importance scale . . . and least well defined by responses to the now scale, on which respondents indicate what currently exists in these jobs and organizations. . . . (p. 11)

In Maslow's needs hierarchy theory unfulfilled lower needs represent a deficiency in the individual; consequently, a person experiences discomfort and frustration.

The Porter-Lawler Model (Instrumentality)

Porter and Lawler (1968) presented the choice of an instrumentality model and summarized their choice of it as follows:

1. The terminology and concepts are more applicable to the problems of human motivation; the emphasis on rationality and cognition is appropriate for describing the behavior of managers.
2. The expectancy theory greatly facilitates the incorporation of motives such as status, achievement, and power into a theory of attitudes and performance. (See Figure 3.) (p. 121)

Porter and Lawler (1968) suggested that job satisfaction depends on the match between expected and obtained rewards. The research by Liddell and Solomon (1977) showed that individuals do consistently order rewards in terms of their desirability.

Equity Theory

In Equity Theory, dissatisfaction is an unpleasant after effect of cognitive discrepancies. As such, dissatisfaction represents a source of tension to be reduced, and the person expends energy (is motivated) to reduce this tension. The Equity Theory is based on the assumption that people strive to maximize their

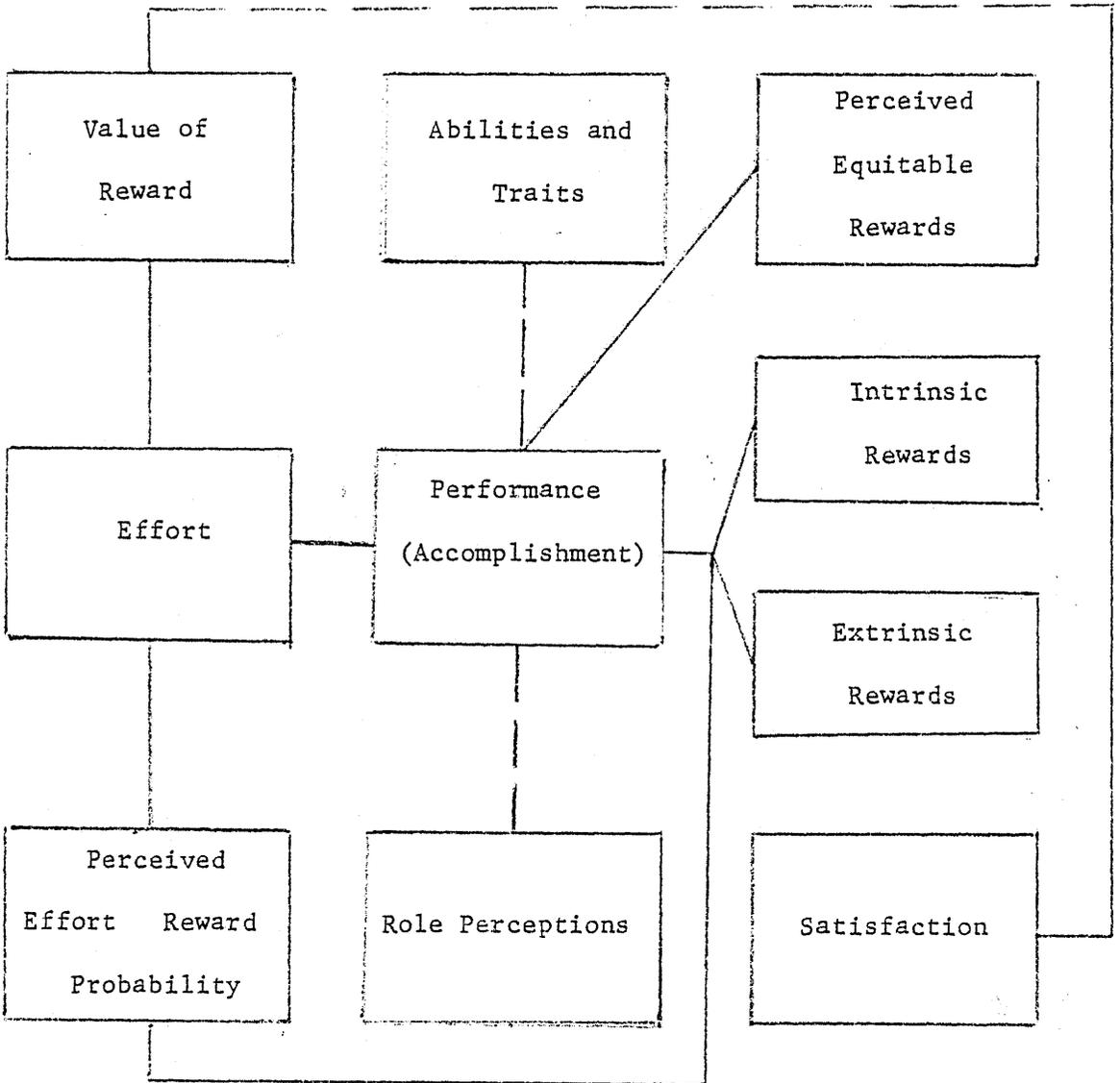


FIGURE 3

DIAGRAM OF THE THEORETICAL MODEL OF PORTER AND LAWLER

Source: L. W. Porter and E. E. Lawler. Managerial Attitudes and Performance. Homewood, Illinois: Irwin-Dorsey, 1968.

outcome, and they are most comfortable when they believe that they are receiving a fair return on their social investment.

Adams (1975) suggested the following equity theory:

Inequity exists for a person whenever he perceives that the ratio of his outcomes to inputs and the ratio of other's outcomes to other's inputs are unequal. This may happen either (a) when he and others are in a direct exchange relationship or (b) when both are in an exchange relationship with a third party and a person compares himself with others. (p. 325)

The findings of Miskel et al. (1975) reveal:

If the needs of the individual are greater than the reward he receives for his work, an inequity exists that leads to dissatisfaction. But if the rewards exceed needs, the inequity yields positive job satisfaction. (p. 52)

The Equity Theory emphasizes the role of social stimuli in general emotional states of employees. The absence of discomfort in the work condition will have a great impact on the employee's sense of satisfaction. To be effective, appraisal conferences should be frequent, and merit raises should be awarded immediately following meritorious performance of employees on an equal basis.

The Two-Factor Theory

The study of Herzberg et al. (1959) is the most important one about job satisfaction. The research of Brayfield and Crockett (1955) also is worth mentioning, but their work seems to be more traditional while the Herzberg study led indirectly to some revolutionary proposals.

Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman's (1959) study with 203 accountants and engineers revealed that achievement and salary

are the good factors about their jobs while company policy and administration, technical supervision, salary, interpersonal relations with supervisors, and working conditions are the bad conditions of their jobs. This study led Herzberg to propose his famous Two-Factor Theory or Motivation-Hygiene Theory.

Locke's Value Theory

Locke (1976) proposed the value theory and distinguished between value and need. He thinks of needs as elements that insure an individual's survival; values represent what a person desires at either a conscious or a subconscious level. Regarding theory of job satisfaction, Locke stated:

Job satisfaction [is] the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the perception of one's job as fulfilling or allowing the fulfillment of one's important job value, providing these values are compatible with one's needs (p. 1342).

Opponent-Process Theory

Landy (1978) suggested a new approach to job satisfaction. He maintained that some mechanisms within individuals help maintain some equilibrium in emotional states. Since job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are thought to be, at least in part, emotional phenomena, these mechanisms of emotional balance are thought to play a role in job satisfaction. Opponent-process theory holds that there are opposing processes for dealing with emotional states. The theory assumes that extreme emotional states are damaging to the individual and that physiological mechanisms attempt to protect the individual from these extreme states.

Landy suggested these three components: Primary emotion, opponent process, and stimulus.

When a stimulus is introduced, it produces a positive or a negative emotion. Once this primary emotion passes some threshold, an opponent process is automatically activated to bring the primary emotion under control.

Summary of the State of Art

There are several classes of theories for explaining human motivation in work settings. Most work-motivation theories suggest a more complicated choice process on the part of individuals than current data support. Job enrichment is the strategy for increasing work motivation. The impact of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards on motivating employees is out of the question. Job satisfaction plays a very important role in theories of work motivation. The Howthorne, Hoppock, Schaffer, Brayfield and Crockett, and Herzberg et al. studies look at the various aspects of job satisfaction, which is generally measured as an attitude. Various factors, such as events and agents, have been found to influence job satisfaction.

The four types of university governance models are Bureaucratic Model, Collegial Model, Organized-Anarchy Model, and Political Model. Among the 47 goals of universities, eight were rated as important in American universities. In the areas of hiring and promotion, status, and salaries sex differences exist for female faculty members.

CHAPTER III

METHOD AND PROCEDURES

To investigate the motivation to work and job satisfaction among male and female faculty members at a regional university, two questionnaires were administered. The Educational Work Component Study (EWCS) Questionnaire consisting of 34 items (see Appendix A) was used to investigate the motivation to work of male and female faculty members. The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) questionnaire consisting of five items (see Appendix A) was employed to investigate the degree of job satisfaction among male and female faculty members.

Sampling Procedures

The population in this study was male and female faculty members holding the ranks of assistant professor, associate professor, and full professor in the following colleges:

1. College of Education
2. College of Fine Arts
3. College of Engineering
4. College of Business
5. College of Liberal Arts and Science

Permission for conducting this research was obtained from the Advisory Committee on Human Experimentation at the University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kansas.

The sample of the study was selected by a random sampling from 870 faculty members. The list of faculty members at the regional university was obtained from the Associate Dean of the College of Education. The sample consisted of 280 faculty members. The names of the male and female faculty members along with their code numbers were placed in a fish bowl. The drawn names were charted and again returned to the fish bowl until 200 male faculty members were selected because the proportion of female faculty members was low; the drawing continued until almost all the female faculty, consisting of 80 members, were selected. A copy of the consent form, along with the questionnaire, was mailed to each selected person on July 15, 1980; data collection began shortly thereafter. (See Appendix A.)

Pilot Study

A slight revision was made on the Educational Work Component Study (EWCS) Questionnaire to adapt it to university faculty members. The statements that "lighting would be good" and "the ventilation would be modern" were omitted from the questionnaire, and the word "school" was changed to "university" in the revised questionnaire. The instrument is in Appendix A.

The pilot study was conducted to ascertain whether the reliability and the validity of the revised questionnaire were still the same as that of the original questionnaire developed by Miskel et al. The pilot study was done during the summer of 1980. Subjects were graduate students in education classes. Approximately 40

subjects participated, and desired outcomes were identified. The statistical-factor analysis revealed that there is a consistency among the items, and the reliability still ranged between .73 and .83.

Design of the Study

The study was designed to determine whether the differences in sex had an impact on the faculty members' degree of motivation to work and job satisfaction. Two dependent variables were identified. The primary dependent variable was the male and female faculty members' motivation to work. The secondary dependent variable was job satisfaction. The independent variable was sex. The degree of differences among male and female faculty members on their motivation to work and job satisfaction was the manner in which respondents answered the items on the Educational Work Component Study Questionnaire and the Job Descriptive Index Questionnaire.

Instruments

The Educational Work Components Study (EWCS) Questionnaire was used to determine the motivation to work. The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) Questionnaire was administered to find the job satisfaction. The original Work Components Study Questionnaire was developed by Edgar F. Borgatta, Robert N. Ford, and George W. Bohrnstedt to operationalize and study Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory with Blum's (1961) security-risk orientation. Miskel and Heller

modified the Work Components Study and developed a new questionnaire called Educational Work Components Study (1973).

Miskel, et al. said about the Educational Work Components Study:

The Work Component Study (WCS) Questionnaire is a measure of work motivation with predictive powers as a selection device on a probabilistic basis for industrial managers. This study established the factorial validity and reliability of a modified WCS, the Educational Work Components Study (EWCS) Questionnaire. (p. 403)

Miskel, et al. continued:

The Educational Work Component Study (EWCS) was administered as a self-report form. The respondents read: "How desirable would YOU consider each of the following items in a job for YOU? A job where. . . ." The items followed, each with a five-choice Likert-type response varying from "completely undesirable, would never take the job" to "extremely desirable, would favor job greatly." (p. 45)

The categories were assigned arbitrary values of one to five.

The reliability of the Work Component Study (EWCS) Questionnaire ranged from .73 to .83. The Work Component Study (EWCS) consisted of six factors that can be used to measure motivation to work in the educational organization, generally, and in this study, particularly; the six factors are as follows:

1. Potential for personal challenge and development
2. Competitiveness desirability and reward of success
3. Tolerance for work pressure
4. Conservative security
5. Willingness to seek reward in spite of uncertainty
6. Surround concern

The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) developed at Cornell University by Patricia Cain Smith and her associates (1961) was selected as a measure of satisfaction with the Components because of the extensive validation involved in its construction. Vroom (1964) commented thus about it:

[The JDI] is without doubt the most carefully constructed measure of job satisfaction in existence today. . . . The extensive methodological work underlying this measure as well as the available norms should insure its widespread use in both research and practice (p. 100).

During the mid-1960's Smith, Kendall, and Hulin developed this instrument, which contains the following five subscales:

1. Work on present job
2. Supervision
3. Present pay
4. People on your present job
5. Opportunities for promotion

About the Job Descriptive Index Smith et al. (1969) stated:

The one finally settled upon measured five areas of job satisfaction: satisfaction with work, satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with opportunities for promotion, satisfaction with supervision, and satisfaction with co-workers. These categories were arrived at after considerable review of the factor analysis literature on job satisfaction, and after an extensive analysis of our own preliminary categories.

For each area there is a list of adjective or short phrases, each with a blank space beside it. The respondent is instructed to show how well each word or phrase describes the aspect of his job in question (for instance, his pay). If a word describes the pay on his present job (or his supervision, etc.), he is instructed to write the letter

"Y" for "yes" beside that word or phrase. If the word does not describe his present pay (or supervision, etc.), he is asked to write "N" for "no" beside that word or phrase. If he cannot decide, he is asked to place a "?" in the blank for "cannot decide." (p. 70)

The JDI (Job Descriptive Index) is an adjective checklist that measures satisfaction with five aspects of the job. All JDI scales have reliabilities of .80 or higher. (Smith, et al., 1969)

Data Collection and Follow-up Procedures

Individual packets for the 280 subjects were sent to the university office of each faculty member. The subject's packet included a personal letter explaining the project and requesting the subject's participation (see Appendix A) and a consent form, which had already been submitted to the Advisory Committee in Human Experimentation, to be signed by the subject participating, an Educational Work Components Study, and a Job Descriptive Index Questionnaire, plus a preaddressed return envelope. All questionnaires were number coded to assure confidentiality. After ten days the return rate was 70 percent for males and 80 percent for females. A post card was designed to follow up on the questionnaires not returned by July 15, 1980. After the card was mailed, the returned questionnaires increased to 80 percent for males and 85 percent for females. A telephone call was placed to the office or the residence of the nonresponding faculty members. After the calls, the percentage of returns increased to 84.5 for males and 90 for females. The analysis began thereafter.

Statistical Analysis

The t-test was conducted to analyze male and female faculty members' mean differences about degree of motivation to work and job satisfaction.

The Kendall tau nonparametric measurement was used rather than Pearson Product-moment Correlation Coefficients to analyze the coefficients between male and female faculty members because the Pearson Product-moment Correlation Coefficient is applicable for the interval based data. The t-test is a statistic that may be computed for a normally distributed variable. The formula for the t-test is

$$t = \frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}{S_{1-2}}$$

where

\bar{X}_1 = Mean for male faculty members

\bar{X}_2 = Mean for female faculty members

S_{1-2} = the standard error of difference between means

The formula for the standard error of difference between means is:

$$S_{1-2} = \sqrt{\frac{S_1^2}{N_1} + \frac{S_2^2}{N_2}}$$

To conduct the t-test, three assumptions were necessary. First, the samples must be randomly selected. Second, the two population variances are heterogeneous. Third, the population distributions are normal (McCall, 1970).

Kendall tau b Correlation Coefficient Nie, et al. in Statistical Package of Social Science (SPSS) 1970-75 stated:

Kendall's tau b is quite similar to r_s in that both are techniques for producing a standardized coefficient based on the amount of agreement between two sets of ordinal ranking. While we arrive at r_s by manipulating (in order to standardize) the square of the differences in the two sets of rankings Kendall's tau begins by computing a statistic called S. Given that the rankings of one variable are placed in their natural order (i.e., arranged by their ranks in order from 1 to N), S is computed by comparing the number of pairs of second-variable rankings which are also arranged in their correct or natural order when they are sorted according to the natural order of the ranking of the first variable. S is then computed by beginning with the observation ranked 1 on the first variable and counting the number of ranks on the second variable which are greater than the rank of that case on the second variable. Once this has been done, the number of ranks below this observation which are smaller than its rank on the second variable are subtracted from the first quantity. When this procedure is repeated for all ranks, the sum of these remainders is equal to the Statistic S. The computed or actual S is then divided by the maximum possible S, which could have been obtained with that number of rankings had the two sets of rankings been in total agreement. This number can be expressed as $\frac{1}{2}N(N - 1)$, where N is the number of observations or cases. The general formula for tau is then

$$T = \frac{S}{\frac{1}{2}N(N - 1)}$$

When the correction for tied ranks is introduced, the formula becomes

$$T = \frac{S}{\frac{1}{2}N(N - 1) - T_x \quad \frac{1}{2}N(N - 1) - T_y}$$

where $T = \frac{1}{2}t(t - 1)$, t is the number of tied observations in each group of ties on the S variable,

and T_y is the same quantity for the y variable (SPSS, p. 290).

Because the sample size was relatively large, the confidence intervals of 95 percent and 99 percent were employed to test the significance of the hypothesis.

The Multiple Regression Analysis also was administered to test the relationship between demographic variables as independent variables (see Chapter IV) and the five subscales in job satisfaction questionnaire and the motivation to work questionnaire as dependent variables.

The Multiple Regression is a general statistical technique through which one can analyze the relationship between a dependent or criterion variable and a set of independent or predictor variables.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

The following demographic information was added to the questionnaires:

1. What is your position/rank?
2. What is your sex?
3. In which of the following units are you teaching: Education, Fine Arts, Business, Engineering, or Liberal Arts and Science?
4. How long have you been at the University?
5. How long have you been in your current position?
6. Are you in a tenure-track position?
7. Do you have tenure?
8. Do you have administrative responsibilities?
9. What percentage of your time is devoted to administrative responsibilities?
10. Are your instructional responsibilities (a) entirely undergraduate, (b) mostly undergraduate, some graduate, (c) mostly graduate, some undergraduate, (d) entirely graduate?

Demographic Analysis

As described in Chapter III, 280 faculty members (200 males and 80 females) were randomly selected as the respondents for this study. Of the 280 in the sample, 241 faculty members returned the

questionnaires. Of this number, 169 (84.5%) were male faculty members, and 72 (90%) were female faculty members.

Table 3 indicates the number and the percent of males and females who returned the questionnaires.

TABLE 3
NUMBER AND PERCENT OF RESPONSES ACCORDING TO SEX

Sex	Responses	
	Number	Percent
Male	169	84.5
Female	72	90.0

Unit

The units or the schools with which the selected faculty members were affiliated are shown in Table 4.

TABLE 4
NUMBER AND PERCENT OF RESPONSES ACCORDING TO UNIT

Unit	Responses			
	Number		Percent	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
Education	41	12	24.26	16.66
Fine Arts	40	16	23.66	22.22
Engineering	20	6	11.83	8.33
Business	30	12	17.75	16.66
Liberal Arts and Science	44	20	26.03	27.77
Total	169	72	100.00	100.00

Position

Faculty members in this study were categorized according to the following ranks:

1. Assistant Professor
2. Associate Professor
3. Full Professor

See Table 5.

TABLE 5

NUMBER AND PERCENT OF RESPONSES ACCORDING TO POSITION

Position	Responses			
	Number		Percent	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
Assistant Professor	68	41	40.23	56.94
Associate Professor	61	24	36.09	33.33
Full Professor	40	7	23.66	9.72
Total	169	72	100.00	100.00

Length of Time in University

The length of time the responding male and female faculty members had been at the University ranged from 1 to 48 years (Table 6).

TABLE 6

NUMBER AND PERCENT OF FACULTY CLASSIFIED ACCORDING
TO YEARS OF SERVICE AT THE UNIVERSITY

Years at University	Responses			
	Number		Percent	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
1-4	50	27	29.58	37.5
5-9	51	26	30.17	36.1
10-48	68	19	40.23	26.3
Total	169	72	100.00	100.0

Length of Time in Current Position

The length of time the male and female faculty members had been in their current positions ranged from 1 to 38 years (Table 7).

TABLE 7

NUMBER AND PERCENT OF RESPONSES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING
TO YEARS OF SERVICE IN THE CURRENT JOB

Years in Current Position	Responses			
	Number		Percent	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
1-4	50	25	29.58	34.72
5-9	57	25	33.72	34.72
10-38	62	22	36.68	30.55
Total	169	72	100.00	100.00

Tenure Track

Among the 241 male and female faculty members responding to the questionnaires, 134 males (79.28%) and 56 females (77.77%) were in the tenure track. Two (0.8%) faculty members did not respond to the tenure-track category. See Table 8.

TABLE 8
NUMBER AND PERCENT OF RESPONSES ACCORDING
TO FACULTY MEMBERS' TENURE TRACK

Tenure Track	Responses			
	Number		Percent	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
Yes	134	56	79.28	77.77
No	33	16	19.52	22.22
No Response	2	0	1.18	--
Total	169	72	100.00	100.00

Tenure

Among the 241 male and female faculty members responding to the questionnaires, 125 (47.0%) males and 40 (55.5%) females were tenured. See Table 9.

TABLE 9

NUMBER AND PERCENT OF RESPONSES ACCORDING
TO FACULTY MEMBERS' TENURE

Tenured	Responses			
	Number		Percent	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
Yes	125	40	74.0	52.5
No	44	32	26.0	44.5
Total	169	72	100.0	100.0

Administrative Responsibilities

In the category of administrative responsibilities 65 (38%) male and 18 (25%) female faculty members' responses were positive. See Table 10.

TABLE 10

NUMBER AND PERCENT OF RESPONSES ACCORDING TO FACULTY
MEMBERS' ADMINISTRATIVE RESPONSIBILITIES

Administrative Responsibilities	Responses			
	Number		Percent	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
Yes	65	18	38.0	25.0
No	102	54	60.0	75.0
Total	169	72	100.0	100.0

Percentage of Time Spent on Administrative Responsibilities

For the percentage of time spent on administrative responsibilities for the male and female faculty members responding to the questionnaire see Table 11.

TABLE 11

PERCENT OF TIME FACULTY MEMBERS SPENT ON
ADMINISTRATIVE RESPONSIBILITIES

Administrative Responsibilities	Responses			
	Number		Percent	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
Below 25	38	14	22.5	19.5
25-50	12	4	7.1	5.5
50-75	4	0	2.4	0.0
75 up	11	0	6.0	0.0
Total	65	18	38.0	25.0

Instructional Responsibilities

The instructional-responsibilities category was based on the following four categories:

1. Entirely undergraduate
2. Mostly undergraduate, some graduate
3. Mostly graduate, some undergraduate
4. Entirely graduate

The percentages of male and female faculty members' instructional responsibilities are shown in Table 12.

TABLE 12

NUMBER AND PERCENT OF RESPONSES ACCORDING TO FACULTY
MEMBERS' INSTRUCTIONAL RESPONSIBILITIES

Instructional Responsibilities	Responses			
	Number		Percent	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
Entirely undergraduate	23	12	13.60	16.66
Mostly undergraduate, some graduate	75	38	44.37	52.77
Mostly graduate, some undergraduate	31	13	18.34	18.00
Entirely graduate	36	9	21.30	12.50
No response	4	--	2.36	--
Total	169	72	100.00	100.00

Testing of Hypotheses and Statistical Analysis

Testing of Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1. The female faculty members at the regional university tested in this study are more highly motivated to work than male faculty members. According to Table 13, the male faculty members are more highly motivated overall (overall motivation mean = 3.24), and scored higher on more individual items (22-12), but among the eight items on which males and females were significantly different, females scored higher on six.

Hypothesis 2. The female faculty members at the regional university tested in this study show a greater degree of job satisfaction than male faculty members. According to Table 13, the female faculty members are more satisfied than male faculty members and scored significantly higher on two subtopics of the job satisfaction questionnaire.

TABLE 13

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR INDEPENDENT AND DEPENDENT VARIABLES

Question	Kendall Tau	Probability Significance	Means		S. D.		Number		T Value	Estimated Degrees of Freedom	Probability Significance	
			Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females				
JDI	1	0.1015	.031	39.0651	41.7500	10.157	8.388	169	72	-2.13	160.87	0.035*
	2	0.956	.038*	38.5562	41.5833	11.716	8.727	169	72	-2.21	177.63	0.028*
	3	0.0302	.288	38.2544	39.1806	11.723	10.304	169	72	-0.61	151.43	0.541
	4	0.0191	.363	32.7811	33.1389	12.085	11.456	169	72	-0.22	140.90	0.828
	5	0.0331	.270	32.8876	33.7917	13.452	11.433	169	72	-.53	156.17	0.596
EWCS	1	-0.0553	.173	3.1893	3.0273	1.180	1.021	169	72	1.07	153.83	0.285
	2	-0.0960	.052	3.7337	3.4722	1.026	1.100	169	72	1.72	126.10	0.087
	3	-0.0459	.221	3.2130	3.1250	0.881	0.948	169	72	0.67	125.59	0.502
	4	-0.0474	.214	3.4320	3.3472	0.962	0.858	169	72	0.68	149.24	0.500
	5	-0.0369	.265	2.9527	2.8611	1.106	1.104	169	72	0.59	134.30	0.557
	6	0.0028	.481	3.2663	3.2639	1.126	1.63	169	72	0.01	130.29	0.988
	7	0.0569	.168	3.1243	3.2639	0.977	1.035	169	72	-0.97	127.44	0.331
	8	-0.0149	.400	3.6391	3.5833	1.173	1.230	169	72	0.33	128.44	0.745
	9	0.282	.014*	2.5799	2.9444	1.105	1.185	169	72	-2.23	126.01	0.028*
	10	-0.0414	.240	3.3609	3.2301	1.193	1.181	169	72	0.75	135.34	0.455
	11	-0.0243	.340	3.5621	3.5000	1.112	1.113	169	72	0.40	133.91	0.692
	12	0.0027	.482	3.3609	3.3750	1.099	1.144	169	72	-0.09	129.40	0.930
	13	0.0201	.366	3.0000	3.0417	1.086	1.192	169	72	-0.25	123.53	0.799
	14	-0.0315	.297	3.2426	3.1806	1.009	0.924	169	72	0.46	145.55	0.643
	15	-0.0698	.118	3.2781	3.0833	1.128	1.148	169	72	1.21	132.07	0.228

TABLE 13 (Continued)

Question	Kendall Tau	Probability Significance	Means		S. D.		Number		T Value	Estimated Degrees of Freedom	Probability Significance
			Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females			
16	0.077	.448	2.7219	2.7500	1.195	1.172	169	72	-0.17	136.53	0.866
17	-0.0150	.400	2.8876	2.8611	1.043	1.104	169	72	0.17	127.46	.863
18	0.0306	.302	2.9763	3.0556	1.023	1.112	169	72	-0.52	124.62	0.605
19	-0.0441	.226	3.4793	3.3750	1.134	1.080	169	72	0.68	140.28	0.500
20	-0.0713	.114	3.4556	3.2639	1.023	1.163	169	72	1.21	120.06	0.227
21	0.1255	.016*	2.9349	3.2639	1.092	1.126	169	72	-2.10	130.45	0.038*
22	0.0227	.350	3.2722	3.3333	1.045	1.075	169	72	-0.41	130.76	0.684
23	0.0359	.271	3.2485	3.3333	1.016	1.138	169	72	-0.55	121.50	0.586
24	-0.0225	.351	2.8994	2.8889	1.039	1.145	169	72	0.07	123.11	0.947
25	0.0933	.056	2.8935	3.1667	1.097	1.088	169	72	-1.78	135.12	0.077
26	-0.1165	.023*	3.4793	3.1389	1.206	1.225	169	72	1.98	132.14	0.049*
27	0.2336	.001*	2.6923	3.4028	1.113	1.285	169	72	-4.08	118.46	0.001*
28	0.0780	.093	3.1716	3.3472	1.018	1.077	169	72	-1.18	127.53	0.241
29	-0.1070	.035*	3.1893	2.9444	0.976	1.086	169	72	1.65	122.10	0.101
30	0.1680	.002*	3.1006	3.5000	1.056	0.888	169	72	-3.01	158.04	0.003*
31	0.1243	.019*	3.0592	3.3750	0.857	1.013	169	72	-2.32	116.33	0.022*
32	-0.0103	.431	3.1953	3.1667	1.071	0.964	169	72	0.20	147.93	0.839
33	0.1625	.003*	2.8402	3.2917	0.947	1.261	169	72	-2.73	106.63	0.007*
34	-0.2038	.001*	3.8876	3.3194	0.909	1.97	169	72	3.61	107.47	0.001*
Total Motivation			3.24	3.20	1.15	1.12	169	72	0.39	133.40	0.070

EWCS

The two hypotheses were also examined by the Multiple Regression Analysis based on faculty members' demographic information (See Tables 4-12) as independent variables and the five subscales on the Job Satisfaction Questionnaire and the total scores of the Motivation to Work Questionnaire as dependent variables.

Statistical Analysis

The T-test was employed to investigate the difference between male and female faculty members' degree of job satisfaction and motivation to work. The Kendall tau b was adopted to investigate the relationship among the demographic variables and the Job Descriptive Index variables with Educational Work Components Study variables, based on male and female faculty members' responses to the questionnaires discussed in Chapter III. The Multiple Regression Analysis was administered to measure the contribution of each independent variable to each dependent variable, the Job Satisfaction and Motivation to Work variables. The results are in this chapter. All tables indicating significant and nonsignificant differences are in this chapter along with the T-test and the Kendall tau b tables and Multiple Regression that indicated significant and insignificant differences among the studied variables.

The T-test and the Kendall Tau B correlation coefficient results are shown in Table 13, which identifies the number of items in the Job Descriptive Index, in the Educational Work Component Study, Kendall Tau and its probability significance, male and female means, male and female standard deviations, the male faculty numbers, the

female faculty numbers, the T value, the estimated degrees of freedom, and the T-test probability significance. The estimated degree of freedom is the computed degree of freedom rather than the actual. It makes no assumptions about equal variances between two groups; it also does not depend on the variances' being equal. Two significant (.05 level) differences were found in job satisfaction, and eight significant (.05 level) differences were found in the motivation to work between male and female faculty members. Four variables were found to be significant at both the .05 and .01 levels on motivation to work among the eight significant differences.

Multiple Regression Analysis. To find the degree to which sex influenced faculty members' satisfaction with their jobs and motivation to work, the Multiple Regression Analysis was conducted.

The demographic information of the faculty members was treated as independent variables (see Tables 4-12), and the five subscales of the Job Descriptive Index Questionnaire--satisfaction with current job, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with colleagues and people, satisfaction with pay, and satisfaction with promotion --were treated as dependent variables for job satisfaction, and the total scores for the 34 items in the Educational Work Component Study Questionnaire were treated as dependent variables for motivation.

Table 14 indicates the combined, male, and female faculty members' satisfaction and motivation to work related to their demographic information. The scores on the table are the Regression

TABLE 14

SUMMARY TABLE OF REGRESSION SQUARE CHANGE OF
FACULTY MEMBERS' DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

	Current	Supervise	People	Pay	Promotion	Motivation
	<u>Males and Females</u>					
Position	.024	.037*	.037*	--	-.003	.012
Sex	.030	.020	.002	-.001	-.001	-.001
Time at University	-.017*	-.004	-.019	-.042*	-.037*	-.050*
Time in Current Position	.067*	.001	.001	.039*	.024	.010
Tenure Track	.001	--	-.065*	-.003	--	.001
Tenured Position	-.000	-.000	-.001	-.008	-.002	-.025*
Administrative Responsibility	--	--	--	--	--	--
Percent Administration	--	-.006	-.007	--	--	-.011
Instructional Responsibility	.007	.002	.012	.002	.004	--
Education	-.001	--	.002	-.064*	.001	.122*
Fine Arts	--	-.000	--	-.032*	--	.047
Business	-.007	-.030*	-.059	-.006	--	.002
Engineering	.023	.002	.000	.001	.017	.018
Liberal Arts	--	-.026	-.001	--	.056*	.001

TABLE 14 (Continued)

	Current	Supervise	People	Pay	Promotion	Motivation
	<u>Males</u>					
Position	--	.044*	--	--	.001	.003
Sex	--	--	--	--	--	--
Time at University	-.006	.002	-.004	-.067*	-.024	-.050*
Time in Current Position	.046*	-.009	-.019	.020	.012	.003
Tenure Track	.001	--	-.002	--	.003	--
Tenured Position	.018	.046*	.051*	-.026	-.018	-.010
Administrative Responsibility	--	.044*	--	--	.001	.003
Percent Administration	.013	-.001	-.002	-.003	-.002	.011
Instructional Responsibility	.003	-.001	.001	.002	-.001	--
Education	--	.026	.016	--	.019	.122*
Fine Arts	--	.009	--	.001	--	.042
Business	-.013	-.031*	-.082*	.022	.001	--
Engineering	.001	--	--	.026	.047*	.010
Liberal Arts	--	.001	--	.039*	.043*	.001

TABLE 14 (Continued)

	Current	Supervise	People	Pay	Promotion	Motivation
	<u>Females</u>					
Position	.001	.145*	--	-.144*	-.046*	-.008
Sex	--	--	--	--	--	--
Time at University	-.206*	-.012	.001	-.118*	-.035*	-.437*
Time in Current Position	.101*	.212*	-.096*	.020	.225*	-.024
Tenure Track	.028	-.005	-.156*	-.025	--	.003
Tenured Position	.184*	-.078	-.279*	.055	.013*	-.015
Administrative Responsibility	--	--	--	--	--	--
Percent Administration	.016	-.198*	.001	.115*	.013	.005
Instructional Responsibility	.163*	.010	.267*	-.003	.195*	.101
Education	--	--	-.007	-.092	--	-.042
Fine Arts	.001	.025	.116*	-.113*	.201*	.019
Business	.001	-.020	.117	-.010	--	--
Engineering	.094*	.029	--	--	.067*	--
Liberal Arts	-.072*	.156*	.001	-.007	.162*	-.178*

*Significant at the .05 level.

Square change for the faculty members combined and for male and female faculty members separately. The asterisk in front of each score indicates the significant relationship of the given item(s) to the related demographic information of the faculty members. The scores with the sign of minus indicate the negative relationship of the given item(s) to the related demographic information of the faculty members. The scores with the plus sign indicate the positive relationship of the given item(s) to the related demographic information of the faculty members.

The standard type of Multiple Regression Analysis was employed rather than the hierarchical one. In other words, the computer selected the order of variable entry rather than the researcher's doing so. Because the computer selected the equations, some blanks are noticeable in Table 14.

Results and Findings

The results and findings of the study were based on the following two procedures:

1. The statistical analysis of faculty members' responses to the Motivation to Work and Job Satisfaction Questionnaires.
2. The statistical analysis of faculty members' demographic information as independent variables and the Motivation to Work and Job Satisfaction subscales as dependent variables.

On the analysis of faculty members' responses to the questionnaires the T-test and Kendall tau b Correlation Coefficient were employed. On the analysis of demographic information with questionnaires the Multiple Regression Analysis was administered.

The study found that the female faculty members were satisfied with their current jobs and also with the university administration. The study found that the male faculty members, in spite of their dissatisfaction in the areas of their current jobs and university administration, were scored higher on most of the items on the Motivation to Work Questionnaire. Table 15 shows the comparison of female and male faculty members' degrees of difference in job satisfaction and motivation to work for those items for which the difference was significant.

The test of relationships between the female faculty members' demographic information as independent variables and the five subscales of the Job Satisfaction Questionnaire and the Motivation to Work Questionnaire as dependent variables revealed the following results:

1. Sex makes no significant contribution to the variance of any of the satisfaction measures or the level of motivation when other independent variables are held constant.
2. Variables associated with being at the University a relatively long time (University time, being tenured, and spending a larger share of

TABLE 15

COMPARISON OF FEMALE AND MALE FACULTY MEMBERS' DEGREE OF DIFFERENCES IN JOB SATISFACTION AND MOTIVATION TO WORK

	Mean		Mean Difference	T Value	Level of Significance
	Males (N = 169)	Females (N = 72)			
Current	39.0651	41.7500	2.6849	-2.13	p < .01
Supervision	38.5562	41.5833	3.0271	-2.21	p < .01
Question 9	2.5799	2.9444	0.3645	-2.23	p < .01
Question 21	2.9349	3.2639	0.329	-2.10	p < .01
Question 26	3.4793	3.1389	0.3404	1.98	p < .01
Question 27	2.6923	3.3472	0.6549	-4.08	p < .01
Question 30	3.1006	3.5000	0.3994	-3.01	p < .01
Question 31	3.0592	3.3750	0.3168	-2.32	p < .05
Question 33	2.8402	3.2917	0.4515	-2.73	p < .05
Question 34	3.8876	3.3194	0.5682	3.61	p < .01

time in administrative activities) are generally predictive of lowered satisfaction and motivation for all faculty members tested in this study.

3. Being in a relatively prestigious position (higher ranks and teaching relatively advanced classes) made the faculty members satisfied and more highly motivated to work.
4. The higher relative satisfaction of the female faculty members appears to be concentrated in the schools of Fine Arts, Business, and Engineering.

While the data do not provide an explanation, it is possible that in these fields in which women may not have expected to compete with men, their doing so is more satisfying than in the School of Education or the School of Liberal Arts, in which successful competition with men is more likely anticipated.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The purpose of the study was to compare male and female faculty members' differences about the degrees of motivation to work and job satisfaction. These people held assistant-professor, associate-professor, and full-professor ranks in the colleges of Education, Business Administration, Fine Arts, Engineering, and Liberal Arts and Sciences at a Midwestern regional university.

The research instruments used to collect the data were the Educational Work Components Study Questionnaire for Motivation to Work and the Job Descriptive Index Questionnaire for Job Satisfaction.

The Educational Components Study Questionnaire (See Appendix A) consisting of 34 items and the Job Descriptive Index Questionnaire (See Appendix A) consisting of five items along with a cover letter, a consent form, and a stamped return envelope were distributed to the sample of 280 faculty members, among whom were 200 males and 80 females. Of this sample 169 male faculty members and 72 female faculty members responded to the questionnaires, yielding a return of 84.5 percent of males and 90 percent for females.

The T-test Kendall Tau b Correlation Coefficient and the Multiple Regression Analysis were used to analyze the data. The T-test was

used to determine whether there is a significant difference between male and female faculty members' degree of motivation to work and job satisfaction. The Kendall Tau b Correlation Coefficient is a nonparametric statistical tool that was used to determine whether there was a significant relationship between the independent variable (sex) and the dependent variables (motivation to work and job satisfaction). The Multiple Regression Analysis was employed to analyze the faculty members' demographic information with job satisfaction and motivation.

The study found that the female faculty members, in spite of some findings in the literature, differed from male faculty members on the job-satisfaction area, and male faculty members showed greater degrees of motivation to work than female faculty members. (See the results and findings.)

Finally, Multiple Regression findings revealed that in view of the fact that the female faculty members have not generally been at the University and in their positions as long as the men faculty members, they were less likely to be tenured, had fewer administrative responsibilities, and were teaching fewer graduate classes (all of which are associated with dissatisfaction and lower motivation) but were satisfied with their jobs more than male faculty members.

Conclusions

The conclusions in this division of Chapter V are, in essence, general ones based on the summary tables in Chapter IV. To reach

logical conclusions and to make necessary comparisons easier, a summary table consisting of total responses to both questionnaires was developed. Table 13 indicates every item, along with each corresponding group and the obtained T-test and Kendall Tau b Correlation Coefficient. The asterisk (*) after the T-test and Kendall Tau b Correlation Coefficient value indicates there was a significant difference between male and female faculty members about job satisfaction and motivation to work.

Table 14 indicates the results of the Multiple Regression Analysis based on faculty members' demographic information (See Chapter IV, Tables 4-12) and the five subscales of the Job Descriptive Index (See Appendix A) and the total scores on the Educational Work Component Study Questionnaire (See Appendix A). The asterisk (*) after the F indicates there was a significant relationship between the independent and dependent variables.

This study was undertaken to detect whether any differences existed between male and female faculty members about job satisfaction and motivation to work. Table 13 indicates that in all five items of the Job Satisfaction Questionnaire, according to the T-test mean, female faculty members were more satisfied than male faculty members. In the Motivation to Work Questionnaire male faculty members seemed to be more highly motivated than female faculty members in 22 items out of 34 items.

The results of the Multiple Regression Analysis test indicates that, even though the female faculty members held lower proportion

in the five schools tested in the study; held lower rank and position; have been less time in the University and their current positions; held less proportion of the tenure track and tenured situation; held less administrative responsibilities; and were holding the higher undergraduate instructional responsibilities (See Tables 4-12); they were more satisfied with their current jobs in the Schools of Engineering and Liberal Arts; showed satisfaction with supervision and the length of time in their current positions at the University; showed satisfaction with people and colleagues; showed satisfaction with people and colleagues in the College of Fine Arts and the instructional responsibilities; showed satisfaction with promotions in the Schools of Liberal Arts, Fine Arts, Engineering; and instructional responsibilities. The most dissatisfying elements for faculty members were length of time at the University, percentage of administrative responsibilities, not being on the tenure track; and the female faculty members were not motivated at all.

The researcher assumes that, by and large, female faculty members do compete with male faculty members and expect to accomplish as much. Success, not the other elements such as length of time in the University and pay, motivated them. This is contrary to Crandall's (1969) finding that females tend to have lower initial expectancies than males and that relative to their actual ability, males tend to overestimate and females to underestimate the probability of success.

The more time in the University was the most dissatisfying factor for females and, as a consequence, made them less motivated than male faculty members.

The tenure track and tenured situation caused the male and female faculty members to feel satisfied with their jobs, but the longer length of time in the tenure situation caused the sense of dissatisfaction.

(Sex did not appear to be significant about the faculty members' satisfaction, dissatisfaction, and motivation to work.

The male faculty members were satisfied with their relationship with the university administration. Members in the College of Business Administration were dissatisfied with their colleagues and people. The male faculty members were dissatisfied with their salaries, in general, and were dissatisfied with their promotions, especially timewise. On the other hand, the length of time and employment at the University was the strong element of the male faculty members' dissatisfaction; however, the male faculty members were more highly motivated in the School of Education.

Recommendations

As described in Chapter II, the Hollen and Gemmell (1976) study showed that male professors showed a greater degree of job satisfaction than female faculty members. Hollen and Gemmell in their study used the Job Descriptive Index Questionnaire, and the same questionnaire was used in this study. The result is entirely

different. In this study the female faculty members showed greater degrees of job satisfaction than male faculty members.

This study was conducted with a sample of 280 male and female faculty members at a Midwestern regional university in the summer of 1980. It is recommended that other studies be made during the fall or spring semesters. The possibility always exists that the results would be different, especially in the job-satisfaction variable within the framework of the time interval. In addition, another study with a larger population in different institutions and universities is needed.

This study was conducted at a Comprehensive University of Group I, which offered a liberal-arts program as well as several other programs, such as engineering and business administration, with an extremely limited doctoral program. Other studies should be conducted at comprehensive universities and colleges II and research universities as well.

There should be a study done in another university on the sex differences, especially about pay, promotion, and faculty members who are not tenured. A study should be done to find out why male and female faculty members were not satisfied with their length of employment at the University. Also, a study should be made to find out why male and female faculty members were not satisfied with their tenured situation. Finally, a study should be made to ascertain why male and female faculty members who were dissatisfied in the College of Business Administration were motivated to work.

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APPENDIX A

Personal Letter, Consent Form, and Questionnaires



THE UNIVERSITY OF KANSAS

Department of Administration, Foundations
and Higher Education, School of Education
9 Bailey Hall, Lawrence, Kansas 66045
(913) 864-4432

Dear Professor:

I am attempting to take the final step in my academic career. With your help many years of study and anticipation will be completed. In 1977, I began my graduate work in Educational Administration at Wichita State University; now, I am writing my dissertation at The University of Kansas.

The purpose of my dissertation is to compare male and female faculty members' degree of satisfaction and motivation to work.

Enclosed you will find a set of short questionnaires. The code number is only for bookkeeping purposes. Be assured that your name will not be associated in any way with the research findings. Your participation is solicited, but strictly voluntary. Please do not hesitate to ask any questions about the study.

Your cooperation in filling out the attached questionnaire is appreciated very much. Could you sign the consent form, enclose it and the instruments in the envelope, and mail it to me by July 25? Thank you very much.

Sincerely yours,

Gabriel Balazadeh



THE UNIVERSITY OF KANSAS

Department of Administration, Foundations
and Higher Education, School of Education
9 Bailey Hall, Lawrence, Kansas 66045
(913) 864-4432

The Department of Administration, Foundations and Higher Education supports the practice of protection for human subjects participating in research. The following information is provided so that you can decide whether you wish to participate in the present study. You should be aware that even if you agree to participate you are free to withdraw at any time.

The research is concerned with the study of motivation to work and degree of job satisfaction between male and female faculty members. You will be asked to answer the questionnaire. Your name will be identified only by a code number. The code number is only for bookkeeping purposes.

Your participation is solicited, but strictly voluntary. Do not hesitate to ask any questions about the study. Be assured that your name will not be associated in any way with the research findings. We appreciate your cooperation very much.

Sincerely,

Gabriel Balazadeh
Principal Investigator
(913) 841-7990

Signature of subject agreeing to participate

Please answer the following questions:

Code Number _____

Position/Rank _____ Sex _____ Unit _____

Length of time at university _____ Length of time in current position _____

Are you in a tenure-track position? _____ If so, are you tenured? _____

Do you have administrative responsibilities? _____ If so, what percent of time do you devote to them? _____

Instructional responsibilities: () entirely undergraduate; () mostly undergraduate, some graduate; () mostly graduate, some undergraduate; () entirely graduate.

If you wish to add anything else concerning your feelings about your job, please add your comments on an additional sheet. Thank you.

Think of your present work. What is it like most of the time? In the blank beside each word given below, write Y for "Yes" if it describes your work, write N for "No" if it does NOT describe your work, and write ? if you cannot decide.

_____ Fascinating	_____ Good	_____ Pleasant	_____ Challenging
_____ Routine	_____ Creative	_____ Useful	_____ On your feet
_____ Satisfying	_____ Respected	_____ Tiresome	_____ Frustrating
_____ Boring	_____ Hot	_____ Healthful	_____ Simple
	_____ Endless	_____ Gives sense of accomplishment	

Think of the kind of supervision that you get on your job. How well does each of the following words describe this supervision? In the blank beside each word below, put Y if it describes the supervision you get on your job, N if it does NOT describe it, and ? if you cannot decide.

_____ Asks my advice	_____ Tactful	_____ Quick tempered
_____ Hard to please	_____ Influential	_____ Tells me where I stand
_____ Impolite	_____ Up-to-date	_____ Annoying
_____ Praises good work	_____ Doesn't supervise enough	_____ Stubborn
_____ Knows job well	_____ Leaves me on my own	_____ Bad
_____ Intelligent		_____ Around when needed
_____ Lazy		

Think of the majority of the people that you work with now or the people you meet in connection with your work. How well does each word describe these people? In the blank beside each word below, put Y if it describes the people you work with, N if it does NOT describe them, and ? if you cannot decide.

_____ Stimulating	_____ Responsible	_____ Smart	_____ Active
_____ Boring	_____ Fast	_____ Lazy	_____ Narrow interests
_____ Slow	_____ Intelligent	_____ Unpleasant	_____ Loyal
_____ Ambitious	_____ Easy to make enemies	_____ No privacy	_____ Hard to meet
_____ Stupid		_____ Talk too much	

Think of the pay you get now. How well does each of the following words describe your present pay? In the blank beside each word, put Y if it describes your pay, N if it does NOT describe it, and ? if you cannot decide.

_____ Income adequate for normal expenses	_____ Income provides luxuries	_____ Highly paid
_____ Satisfactory profit sharing	_____ Insecure	_____ Underpaid
_____ Barely live on income	_____ Less than I deserve	

Think of the opportunities for promotion that you have now. How well does each of the following words describe these? In the blank beside each word put Y for "Yes" if it describes your opportunities for promotion, N for "No" if it does NOT describe them, and ? if you cannot decide.

_____ Good opportunities for promotion	_____ Good chance for promotion
_____ Opportunity somewhat limited	_____ Unfair promotion policy
_____ Promotion on ability	_____ Infrequent promotions
_____ Dead-end job	_____ Regular promotions
_____ Fairly good chance for promotion	

Given below are a series of questions on things people want in jobs. However, people differ greatly in the things they want in a job, and jobs differ greatly, even within the same organization. This form is designed to gather information about things you consider desirable in a position in the University. Please respond to each of the items as follows:

"How desirable would you consider each of the following items in a job for YOU?
A job in which . . .

- | | | | | |
|--|--|--|--|---|
| 1. Extremely
undesirable.
Would never
take job. | 2. Undesirable.
Would avoid
the job. | 3. Neither
desirable
nor
undesirable. | 4. Desirable.
Would favor
the job. | 5. Extremely
desirable.
Would favor
job greatly. |
|--|--|--|--|---|

Write on the line preceding each statement the number that best describes your attitudes. For example, if you think the job would be Extremely Undesirable, you would write 1 on the short line preceding the statement, but if you think the job would be Desirable, you would put a 4 in front of it. Please respond to every item.

A Job in which . . .

- _____ 1. I could get fired easily, but the work would be very interesting.
- _____ 2. Salary increases would be strictly a matter of how much I accomplished.
- _____ 3. University related problems might come up that I would have to take care of myself outside regular hours.
- _____ 4. The community would have good recreational facilities.
- _____ 5. I would be involved in managing a small group of people doing routine jobs.
- _____ 6. The university would be highly competitive at the professional level.
- _____ 7. The work might be excessive sometimes.
- _____ 8. There would be opportunity for creative work.
- _____ 9. The work would be routine, but not hard to do.
- _____ 10. Salary increases would be determined by the amount of effort exerted.
- _____ 11. The climate would be pleasant.
- _____ 12. The community would be a wonderful place to raise a family.
- _____ 13. The position might be temporary, but it would be extremely interesting while it lasted.
- _____ 14. I might sometimes have to take work home with me.
- _____ 15. The physical working conditions would be attractive.
- _____ 16. I could get fired easily.
- _____ 17. The work would be routine, but the initial salary would be high.
- _____ 18. The work might build up "pressures" on me.
- _____ 19. There would be emphasis on individual ability.
- _____ 20. The university would encourage further specialized work.
- _____ 21. Promotions would come automatically.
- _____ 22. Competition would be open and encouraged.
- _____ 23. I would have a chance to further my formal education.
- _____ 24. I could get fired easily, but the rewards would be high.
- _____ 25. The work would be routine, but highly respected in the community.
- _____ 26. I would always have a chance to learn something new.
- _____ 27. The job would be insecure.
- _____ 28. The salary increases would be regularly scheduled.
- _____ 29. The work might come in big pushes sometimes.
- _____ 30. There would be emphasis on the actual production record.
- _____ 31. I might be on call when there is pressure to get jobs done.
- _____ 32. Salary increases would be a matter of how much effort you put in.
- _____ 33. Rewards would be high, but if one loses the job it would be very difficult to get another one.
- _____ 34. There would be emphasis on originality.

Thank you for completing this form. Please indicate below if you would like to receive a copy of the results of this study. _____ Yes _____ No