

2002

Job satisfaction among nurse educators of private colleges and universities

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**JOB SATISFACTION AMONG NURSE EDUCATORS
OF PRIVATE COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES**

A Dissertation


Submitted

In Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Education

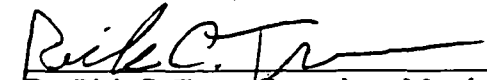
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An Abstract of a Dissertation

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In Partial Fulfillment


Of the Requirements for the Degree

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Approved:



Dr. Dale R. Jackson, Chair



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May 2002

ABSTRACT

It is widely known that a nursing shortage exists in the health care field today. Less well known is the existence of a nurse educator shortage. Most research has been directed toward investigating the nursing shortage in general rather than the nurse educator shortage in particular. Research on job satisfaction among nurse educators has received recent attention and has been regarded as the most urgent and immediate step in ameliorating the nurse educator shortage.

The purpose of this study was to investigate job satisfaction among nurse educators in private colleges and universities in a midwestern state. In addition to investigating overall job satisfaction, satisfaction with three job facets (the work itself, collegiality, and workload) and their effect on overall job satisfaction was assessed. Demographic factors consisting of years of teaching and level of education were also investigated to determine their effect on overall job satisfaction. Alderfer's E.R.G. theory consisting of three core human needs (existence, relatedness, and growth) was the theoretical foundation for the study.

Results of the study showed nurse educators ($N = 85$) were satisfied with their job in general, and satisfied with collegiality and the work itself in particular. Contrary to what was expected, about half of the nurse educators were not satisfied with their workloads while half were satisfied. Workload, collegiality, and the work itself were predictive of overall job satisfaction and moreover, collegiality was the most predictive of overall job satisfaction. No significant relationships were found between overall job satisfaction and the demographic factors consisting of level of education and years of

teaching. The interlinking characteristic of human needs postulated in Alderfer's E.R.G. theory was supported by the findings of this study. Further research on job satisfaction is recommended.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would first like to thank the people who helped in the development of this dissertation. Included are Dr. Larry Keig, former member of the UNI faculty, and my committee members, Dr. Dale Jackson, Dr. Bruce Rogers, Dr. Rick Traw, Dr. Frank Barrios, and Dr. Mike Waggoner.

Secondly, I would like to thank my sister, Nancy. Her continued interest and support fueled my motivation. In addition, her exemplary perseverance and tenacity to make the best of everyday helped me in balancing this work and life's normal activities.

Finally, I would like to acknowledge the support of my family – Don, my husband, and my daughters, Shelly and Carly. Your words of encouragement were always comforting, rewarding, and sustaining. Thank you!

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Registered nurses (RNs) comprise the largest group of health care professional in the United States, with more than 2 million RNs employed in health care organizations in 1998 (Buerhaus, Staiger, & Auerbach, 2000). This labor force has been declining since 1994 (National League for Nursing, 2001). Several factors have contributed to this including an aging workforce, job dissatisfaction, and declining enrollment in nursing programs (Blegen, 1993; Buerhaus, 1998).

The implications of a shrinking RN workforce are vast. Buerhaus et al. (2000) stated that several aspects of the health care system have been affected. Fewer RNs have diminished the quality of care provided to patients when RNs are forced to increase their number of patients beyond the normal nurse-patient care ratio. Access to health care has also been affected. Hospitals are restricting admissions due to the inability to supply an adequate number of RNs in patient care areas. An RN shortage will be critically felt in the next decade when 78 million baby boomers retire and enroll in Medicare. Employers will have little choice but to substitute other less qualified personnel for RNs.

In the Tri-Council for Nursing Policy Statement on strategies to reverse the nursing shortage, four nursing organizations (American Association of Colleges of Nursing, American Nurses Association, American Organization of Nurse Executives, and the National League of Nursing) have indicated that there is not only a concern about

declining numbers of practicing nurses but also a concern with the declining number of nurse faculty (National League for Nursing, 2001). Indeed, there are several reports of faculty shortages in the last decade, especially in the past five years (American Association of Colleges of Nursing, 1998a; Anderson, 1998; Boyden, 2000; Brendtro & Hegge, 2000; De Young & Bliss, 1995; Krisman-Scott, Kershbaumer, & Thompson, 1998; Mullinix, 1990; Princeton, 1992; Ryan & Irvine, 1994).

The notion of a faculty shortage occurring simultaneously with declining enrollments in nursing education programs requires a brief historical analysis. A decrease in nursing program enrollments in the 1980s has led to a decreased need for faculty followed by the elimination of faculty positions (Brendtro & Hegge, 2000). The decrease came about as women chose other career options with more lucrative salaries. In the same era, Fitzpatrick and Heller (1980) have reported that a physician shortage prompted graduate programs to redirect efforts from preparing nurse educators and nurse administrators to preparing clinical specialists and nurse practitioners. Clinical nurse specialists and nurse practitioners are authorized health care providers and perform many of the same functions as family physicians. DeYoung and Bliss (1995) have provided this historical account: "In 1978, almost 23 percent of master's degree graduates prepared for the teaching role. By 1981, they declined to 17 percent. In 1991, only 10 percent of students enrolled in master's programs were preparing for nursing education; all others were preparing themselves for advanced clinical practice" (p. 85). Zebelman and Olswang (1989) have found similar trends in their national study of doctoral students. They note: "About 35 percent of those who began doctoral study in 1986 or earlier said they were

planning to seek a faculty position. However, only about 10 percent of those beginning doctoral work in 1987 or later reported that their most important reason for pursuing doctoral study was preparation for being a tenured faculty member” (p. 85). They also found that many doctoral students who entered their program planning on a teaching career changed their goals to pursuing a career in nursing research.

Enrollment in undergraduate programs had grown at a time when there were fewer prepared faculty. Nurses’ salaries had increased and new community-based practice careers emerged creating a need for more nurses. As enrollment began to climb, the demand for faculty began to grow. As the demand for faculty began to grow, faculty shortages began to surface.

There are reports of colleges and universities limiting enrollment because of faculty shortages. Rosenfeld (1993) has reported that in 1992, 4.9 of 100 faculty positions were unfilled in baccalaureate and higher degree nursing programs. In associate degree programs and diploma programs, the figures are 3.4 and 2.7, respectively. The American Association of Colleges of Nursing has reported that among the 36% of baccalaureate programs experiencing faculty shortages, qualified nursing applicants were denied admission (American Association of Colleges of Nursing, 1992). A quick and easy solution would be to hire faculty, but administrators could not recruit qualified, full-time faculty (Princeton, 1992; Ryan & Irvine, 1994). DeYoung and Bliss (1995) have reported that nursing programs, unable to fill full-time faculty positions, responded by employing less qualified, part-time faculty, observing that the applicants for part-time positions were predominately graduate prepared clinicians. According to DeYoung and

Bliss, "The problem with this approach is that although clinical specialists bring wonderful clinical experience to the educational setting, they often know little about teaching, and end up teaching as they were taught" (p. 86). Current reports have indicated that an increased use of part-time faculty and less available qualified, full-time faculty recruits continue to exist today (Boyden, 2000; Brendtro & Hegge, 2000).

Several additional factors contributing to nurse faculty shortages have been reported including an increasing age of educators, burnout of faculty, noncompetitive salaries, and increased job opportunities outside of nursing education (American Association of Colleges of Nursing, 1998b; Copp, 1997; DeYoung & Bliss, 1995; Jeglin-Mendez, 1982; Mullinix, 1990; Phillips, 1984; Ryan & Irvine, 1994). Several research reports have linked job dissatisfaction with attrition (Blegen, 1993; Coward et al., 1995; Gillis, Franklin, & Child, 1990; Moody, 1996; Olsen, 1993; Oshagbemi, 1997; Robertson & Bean, 1997; Thompson, McNamara, & Hoyle, 1997). Factors described within the context of job dissatisfaction include role strain, isolation, tenure pressures, inadequate preparation for teaching responsibilities, lack of collegial relations, inequality of workloads, and lack of opportunities for promotion (Fain, 1987; Gillis et al., 1990; Herrmann, 1997; Langemo, 1988; Mobiliy, 1991; Moody, 1996; Mullinix, 1990; Oermann & Jamison, 1989; Rogers, 1989; Sleutel, 2000; Steele, 1991). Possible solutions to these problems are to recruit young faculty, restructure incentive and reward systems for nurse faculty, develop more comprehensive teacher preparation programs in master's and doctoral programs, redesign workloads for older nurse faculty, increase funding for master's and doctoral education, aggressively recruit faculty, establish

mentorship programs, and institute faculty development programs for new and tenured faculty (Acord, 2000; Bachman, Kitchens, Halley, & Ellison, 1992; Baiocco & DeWaters, 1995; DeYoung & Bliss, 1995; Grigsby & Megel, 1995; Kavooosi, Elman, & Mauch, 1995, Magnussen, 1997; Krisman-Scott et al., 1998; Moody, 1996; Tanner, 2001). There has also been a call for more research in the area of job satisfaction as the most urgent and immediate step in ameliorating the nurse educator shortage (Moody, 1996; Brendtro & Hegge, 2000). In contrast to the vast amount of empirical reports of practicing nurses' perceptions of job satisfaction, few studies have reported on nurse educators' perceptions of job satisfaction (Blegen, 1993; Coward et al., 1995; Cavanagh, 1992; Fletcher, 2001; Kennerly, 1989; Ryan & Irvine, 1994; Slavitt, Stamps, Piedmont, & Haase, 1978; Slocum, Susman, & Sheridan, 1972; Tumulty, Jernigan, & Kohut, 1994).

Statement of the Problem

Reports of nurse educator dissatisfaction, looming faculty shortages, fewer available faculty recruits, and low retention of faculty in academe threaten the integrity of higher education programs for nurses. It is a critical period in time to direct research efforts toward discovering the complexity of job satisfaction among nurse educators. While job satisfaction has been one of the most frequently studied phenomena in the fields of industrial and organizational psychology in recent decades, relatively few of these studies have involved college and university faculty and, in particular, faculty in schools of nursing (Bess, 1981; Locke, Fitzpatrick, & White, 1983; Thompson, McNamara, & Hoyle, 1997). Hegedorn (1994) has noted the importance of such research efforts by stating: "This area is worthy of exploration because the effectiveness of an institution of

higher education is dependent on the quality, morale, and conviction of its faculty” (p. 712).

Theoretical Framework

Alderfer’s E.R.G. theory of human needs has provided the theoretical foundation for this study (Alderfer, 1969, 1972). Human needs theories frequently have been the theoretical foundation for job satisfaction research. The premise of human needs theories is that all humans have specific basic needs that drive their behavior. Satisfaction of these needs is associated with positive job attitudes. Landy and Trumbo (1980) have explained: “Individuals will expend energy in maintaining or increasing pleasure or, conversely, in minimizing or decreasing displeasure. Thus, the reaction of an individual to work-related stimulus (job satisfaction) is thought to represent the potential power that stimulus has for affecting the individual’s behavior” (p. 388). Alderfer’s E.R.G. theory consists of three needs: *existence* (E), *relatedness* (R), and *growth* (G). Examples of existence needs include pay, fringe benefits, and favorable physical working conditions. People satisfy relatedness needs by mutually sharing their thoughts and feelings with significant others. Growth needs are satisfied by creative and productive efforts that require utilizing a person’s capacities fully and may require the development of additional capacities. Alderfer (1969) has recommended that people perceive these needs as being placed on a continuum in terms of their concreteness, concluding:

Existence needs are the most concrete. Their presence or absence is the easiest for the person to verify due to the fact that their objectives can be reduced to material substances or states. Relatedness needs are less concrete than existence needs. Their presence or absence depends on the state of relationships between two or more people. To verify the state of relatedness needs depends on the consensual validation of the people involved in the relationship. Finally, growth needs are the least

concrete. Ultimately their specific objectives depend on the uniqueness of each person. (p. 150)

The needs described in the E.R.G. theory closely parallel job facets that are typically investigated in job satisfaction research (Blegen, 1993; Moody, 1996; Mueller & McCloskey, 1990; Olsen, 1993; Oshagbemi, 1997; Pardee, 1990; Thompson et al., 1997). The job facet approach has a long history in empirical studies of college and university faculty. Bess (1981) has suggested that satisfaction is frequently measured with job facets of recognition and advancement, work itself, administrative policies, supervision, interpersonal relations, working conditions, salaries, wage and benefits, academic standards, institutional environment, student characteristics, and staff support. Salancik and Pfeffer (1977) have described the relationship between job facet satisfaction and needs by stating, "Ideally, those job facets which meet an individual's needs would be correlated with high satisfaction levels, while those facets which do not meet an individual's needs would be correlated with either absent or at minimum levels of satisfaction" (p. 430). The measurement of overall job satisfaction has been included in studies related to job satisfaction in addition to the measurement of satisfaction with specific job facets (Moody, 1996). Ironson, Smith, Brannick, Gibson, and Paul (1989) have described the merits of each measure of satisfaction as follows:

Facet scales are used to differentiate different aspects of job satisfaction, for example, to diagnose strengths and weaknesses in various sections of an organization. In contrast, general scales are used to estimate the respondent's general overall feelings about the job. These feelings are expected to predict important behavior, such as quitting or being absent. They are widely used as indexes of organizational effectiveness. (p. 194)

They have also stated that there is little empirical evidence that supports summing the scores of job facets scales for the measure of overall job attitudes. They explain that a respondent could incorporate other aspects not measured in the facet scales or items when asked about their overall feelings about a job. Bess (1981) offered the following explanation:

To ask a worker how satisfied he or she may be with the job as a whole is to combine unique and essentially dissimilar aspects of the job. To use the familiar analogy, asking a person to what degree "fruit" in general is liked leads to misrepresentations caused by averaging. Apples may be intensely disliked, while oranges may be loved, and the "average" liking does not have any meaning with external validity. (p. 7)

Researchers have noted few demographic factors associated with job satisfaction.

Education and job longevity are thought to moderate job satisfaction. Van Maanen (1976), a scholar in the field of organizational psychology, has described education as a mechanism to socialize individuals into the work setting. He explains that socialization fosters job satisfaction by the process of establishing an employee's professional role identity. The more education one has the more likely the individual will have a realistic role identity and, therefore, experience greater job satisfaction.

Job longevity has also been suggested as a factor associated with job satisfaction. Locke et al. (1983) have noted, "Studies have shown that, typically, job satisfaction increases linearly or curvilinearly with age and/or job tenure" (p. 346). It is thought that people who have been on the job longer have been fairly satisfied with their jobs or they would have sought different employment options. Hagedorn (1994) has found that faculty of long tenure in higher education were highly satisfied in several aspects of their

jobs. She states, “These findings may indicate that faculty of longer tenure have achieved greater control over their work lives” (p. 724).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to investigate the perceptions of nurse faculty in private colleges and universities to (a) describe overall job satisfaction; (b) describe satisfaction with job facets of the work itself, collegiality, and workload; (c) determine the relationships among satisfaction levels of the job facets; (d) determine the relationship between satisfaction levels of the job facets and overall job satisfaction; and (e) determine the relationship between overall satisfaction and selected demographic factors.

Definition of Terms

Satisfaction: A positive attitude or state (Alderfer, 1969).

Job Satisfaction: Satisfaction resulting from the self-appraisal of one’s job or job experiences in relation to needs (Alderfer, 1972). “The degree to which the job fulfills or allows the fulfillment of the individual’s needs determines his degree of job satisfaction” (Locke, 1976, p. 1303).

Overall Job Satisfaction: A state of satisfaction when perceiving the job as a whole rather than of its parts. “The overall evaluative judgment about one’s job” (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996, p. 5).

Sample item: The major satisfaction in my life comes from my job (Alderfer, 1972).

Sample item: All in all, I am satisfied with my job (Spector, 1997).

Job Facet: An aspect of a job. “The principal areas within the general domain of a job” (Ironson et al., 1989, p. 193).

Job Facet Satisfaction: A state of satisfaction for specific aspects of a job.

Work Itself: The job facet regarding the nature of work. Characteristics of the job that offer personal growth and feelings of accomplishment and challenge (Porter, 1962).

Sample item: The feeling of worthwhile accomplishment that I get from doing my job (Hackman & Oldham, 1975).

Collegiality: The job facet regarding supportive relationships among colleagues characterized by sharing of ideas, mutual respect, and mutual concern. Relationships among colleagues that includes a “mutual exchange of thinking and ideas” (Mauksch, 1982, p. 9). Supportive relationship with peers characterized by mutual respect and mutual concern (Grigsby & Megel, 1995).

Sample item: I can count on my coworkers to give me a hand when I need it (Alderfer, 1972).

Workload: Workload is the amount of work required in a given job (Sorcinelli, 1994).

Education: The demographic factor representing years of formal study, measured by type of degree.

Years of teaching: The demographic factor representing job longevity measured by number of years an individual has held a teaching position.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

This study has been designed to determine, according to nurse educator’s perceptions, overall job satisfaction and satisfaction with job facets consisting of the work itself,

collegiality, and workload. In addition, the study is intended to determine the relationships among the variables of overall job satisfaction, satisfaction levels of the job facets, and selected demographic factors.

The research questions are:

1. What are nurse educators' perceptions of their overall job satisfaction?
2. What are nurse educators' perceptions of their satisfaction with the work itself, collegiality, and workload?
3. What are the relationships among the satisfaction levels of the work itself, collegiality, and workload?
4. What are the relationships between overall job satisfaction and the satisfaction levels of the work itself, collegiality, and workload?
5. What are the relationships between overall job satisfaction and education and years of teaching?

The correlating hypotheses are:

1. Nurse educators will indicate satisfaction with their job overall.
2. Nurse educators will indicate satisfaction with the work itself, collegiality, and workload.
3. There are positive relationships among satisfaction levels of the work itself, collegiality, and workload.
4. There are positive relationships among overall job satisfaction and the satisfaction levels of the work itself, collegiality, and workload.

5. There are positive relationships among overall job satisfaction and nurse educators' level of education and years of teaching.

Significance of the Study

This study should provide information on the complexity of job satisfaction among nurse educators. Findings of this study may be useful to program administrators who have responsibilities for faculty recruitment and retention, orientation of new faculty, and faculty development programs. Nurse educators may learn of factors important in retention of their colleagues. In addition, the findings of this study may suggest implications for nurse educators of graduate programs when preparing curricula for future nurse educators.

Limitations of the Study

The following limitations have been identified for this study.

1. This study has investigated the perceptions of nurse educators in baccalaureate and graduate degree granting schools of nursing in private colleges and universities in a single state. This population may or may not be representative of the views of nurse educators elsewhere.
2. The population of nurse educators in private colleges and universities in a single state may limit generalizations from this study.
3. Job satisfaction in relation to existence needs of the E.R.G. theory has not been included in this study.

Assumptions

The following assumptions have been made.

1. Job satisfaction can be measured overall and dimensionally.
2. Job satisfaction varies with satisfaction of specific aspects of the job.
3. The respondents to the survey will answer honestly to survey items.
4. Perceptions of nurse faculty fairly represent reality.
5. The E.R.G. human needs theory has provided a pragmatic approach to measuring job satisfaction.

Organization of the Study

This chapter has presented an overview of the problem, research and theory, research questions, hypotheses, variables of the study, assumptions, and limitations. Chapter II, "Review of the Literature," will examine relevant literature in areas of job satisfaction among faculty in higher education and nursing education in particular. Satisfaction with job facets relating to existence, relatedness and growth will also be discussed. Overall job satisfaction and its relationship to the demographic factors of education and job longevity are also examined. Chapter III, "Research Methodology and Procedures," explains the methods used to carry out the study. The procedures to collect and analyze data are also described. Chapter IV, "Results," examines the findings of the study. Included are descriptive statistics, correlation coefficients, factor analysis, and multiple regression. The final chapter in the study, "Summary and Conclusions," summarizes the results of the study, as well as offers conclusions and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter has been organized by reviewing literature related to the theoretical foundation for the study, satisfaction with specific job facets and overall job satisfaction among higher education faculty in general and nursing education faculty in particular, and demographic factors associated with overall job satisfaction.

Theoretical Approach

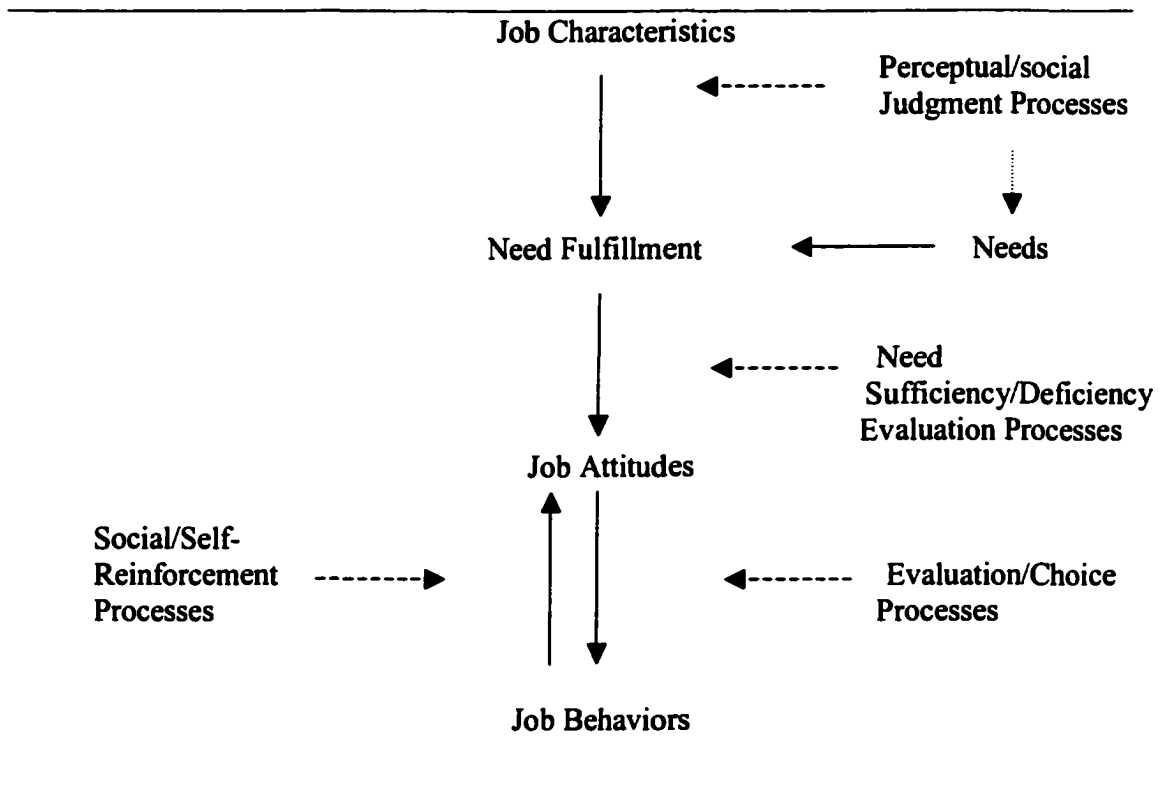
There are several theoretical approaches for the study of job satisfaction (Bess, 1981; Thompson et al., 1997). In a report on theories of professional work satisfaction, Bess (1981) provided the following list of the most recognized theoretical conceptualizations:

1. Role theory
2. Job facets theory
3. Expectancy theory
4. Equity theory
5. Need and need deficiency theory
6. Two-factor theory
7. Personality theory
8. Flow theory (p. 7)

Several authors have noted the dominance of need theory in job research (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1977; Schein, 1980; Spector, 1997; Thompson et al., 1997). Salancik and Pfeffer (1977) illustrated this perspective by stating, "It is fair to state that a need-satisfaction model has been the theoretical framework almost universally applied to understand job satisfaction and, occasionally, motivation" (p. 427). In the need satisfaction model of jobs, needs, attitudes, and behaviors depicted by Salancik and Pfeffer (1977, Figure 1),

job characteristics were considered the stimuli that elicited job attitudes. Individuals judged job characteristics as satisfying or less than satisfying in

Figure 1. Need satisfaction model of jobs, needs, attitudes, and behaviors.¹



¹From "An examination of need-satisfaction models of job attitudes," by G. R. Salancik and J. Pfeffer, 1977, *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 22, p. 429. Copyright 1977 by Cornell University. Reprinted with permission.

relation to the degree their needs had been fulfilled. Salancik and Pfeffer (1977) stated, "Jobs which fulfill a person's needs are satisfying; those that do not are not satisfying" (p. 428). The need satisfaction model of jobs, needs, attitudes, and behaviors also has

depicted the theoretical notion of a relationship between job attitudes and job behaviors.

Salancik and Pfeffer (1977) summarized the relationship by stating:

Job attitudes and, occasionally, motivation, are presumed to result from the correspondence between the needs of the individual and the characteristics of the job or the job situation. When the characteristics of the job are compatible with the person's needs, the assumption is made that the person is satisfied and, on occasion, the further argument is made that the person will be more motivated to perform the job. (p. 428)

In early research conducted by two prominent psychologists, Hackman and Lawler (1971) supported the relationship among job characteristics, job attitudes, and job performance. They predicted and found that in the presence of certain job characteristics, employees who desired to satisfy their needs tended to have high motivation and high job satisfaction, were absent from work infrequently, and were rated by supervisors as doing high-quality work. They concluded:

Standard organizational selection and placement procedures attempt to match the skills and abilities of a prospective employee with the skill requirements of the job for which he is being considered. The results of the present research suggest that it may be equally critical for long-term organizational effectiveness to achieve a match between the psychological makeup of the prospective employee and the psychological demands and opportunities of the job. (p. 284)

In light of information supporting a relationship between need satisfaction and job attitudes, a closer review of need satisfaction was warranted.

Need Satisfaction Models

Need satisfaction models have been described as one of the more traditional approaches used in investigations of job related attitudes (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1977; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Salancik and Pfeffer (1977) speculated that the popularity of need satisfaction models has been attributed to their simplicity noting:

The model posits that persons have basic, stable, relatively unchanging and identifiable attributes, including needs. The model also assumes that jobs have a stable, identifiable set of characteristics that are relevant to those needs of individuals. Job attitudes and, occasionally, motivation, are presumed to result from the correspondence between the needs of the individual and the characteristics of the job or the job situation. When the characteristics of the job are compatible with the person's needs, the assumption is made that the person is satisfied and, on occasion, the further argument is made that the person will be more motivated to perform the job. Jobs, which fulfill a person's needs, are satisfying; those that do not are not satisfying. If the person is satisfied with his job, it is presumably because the job has characteristics compatible with his needs. If the person is unhappy with his job, it is because the job is presumably not satisfying his needs. (p. 428)

A premise of needs satisfaction models has been that there are functional relationships among needs, job characteristics, attitudes, and behaviors. Empirical support for the relationship between negative job attitudes and negative job behaviors has been reported in the literature. Negative job behaviors have included absenteeism, turnover, and poor performance (Spector, 1997; Weiler, 1985). The relationship between job behaviors and job attitudes was explained by Landy and Trumbo (1980), "Individuals will expend energy in maintaining or increasing pleasure or, conversely, in minimizing or decreasing displeasure. Thus, the reaction of an individual to a work-related stimulus (job satisfaction) is thought to represent the potential power that stimulus has for affecting the individual's behavior" (p. 388).

Salancik and Pfeffer (1977) stated that an inherent assumption was that attitudes have been a function of the presence or absence of positively valued job characteristics. They explained: "This means that the higher the person's need for a certain characteristic, the higher the correlation between the presence of that characteristic and motivation or job satisfaction" (p. 431). Based on this assumption, it would be important to know the job characteristics that are highly valued by faculty in higher education. There has been

empirical evidence to suggest that faculty value the opportunity for independent thought and action, feelings of worthwhile accomplishment, opportunities for personal growth and development, and relationships with students and colleagues (Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Moody, 1996; Olsen, 1993; Thompson et al., 1997). Hackman and Lawler (1971) described these values as internal rewards. They stated: "Internal rewards are particularly salient for professionals, like academics, who experience higher order need satisfaction (e.g., needs for personal growth and development for or feelings of worthwhile accomplishment) on a continuing basis without the strength of desire for additional satisfaction of these needs diminishing" (p. 262). Human needs theories, in general, have addressed two levels of needs: higher order needs and lower order needs (Alderfer, 1969, 1972; Maslow, 1954, 1970; Thompson et al., 1997). Higher order needs have included growth, esteem, and belongingness. Lower order needs have included safety, shelter, food, water, and rest. It has been essential to know the needs individuals were trying to satisfy when job satisfaction and job motivation have been the concern. Landy and Trumbo (1980) elaborated, "Need theory implies that individuals will instigate, direct, and sustain activity to satisfy certain needs. It further implies that a personnel manager can set up a systematic program of motivation if she knows which needs are most important to an individual at a particular time and provides the environment necessary for the fulfillment of these needs" (p. 337).

Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory

Maslow's Need Hierarchy has been noted as the most widely known theory in literature on organizations (Bess, 1981; Locke, 1976; Schein, 1980; Thompson et al.,

1997; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). According to Maslow (1970), individuals have been driven to fulfill five basic human needs, which are arranged in a hierarchical order. The most basic unsatisfied need at any given time was considered to be the most important, dominating behavior until satisfied. Maslow described the lowest need level, called physiological, as needs consisting of food, water, and sleep. Maslow referred to the second level as safety needs, explaining, “If the physiological needs are relatively well gratified, there then emerges a new set of needs, which we may categorize roughly as the safety needs (security; stability; dependency; protection; freedom from fear, from anxiety and chaos; need for structure, order, law, limits; strength in the protector; and so on)” (Maslow, 1970, p. 39). Maslow (1970) described the third level of needs:

If both the physiological and the safety needs are fairly well gratified, there will emerge the love and affection and belongingness needs. Now the person will feel keenly, as never before, the absence of friends, or a sweetheart, or a wife, or children. He will hunger for affectionate relations with people in general, namely, for a place in his group or family, and he will strive with great intensity to achieve this goal. (p. 43)

Maslow (1970) described esteem needs, the fourth level in the hierarchy, as: “All people in our society have a need or desire for a stable, firmly based, usually high evaluation of themselves, for self-respect, or self-esteem, and for the esteem of others” (p. 45). In Maslow’s view, self-esteem was satisfied when individuals perceived respect from others for their competence and ability. The final and highest need level Maslow called the need for self-actualization. Maslow (1970) explained:

It [self-actualization] refers to man’s desire for self-fulfillment, namely, to the tendency for him to become actualized in what he is potentially. This tendency might be phrased as the desire to become more and more what one idiosyncratically is, become everything that one is capable of becoming. (p. 46)

The process of fulfillment-progression explained the progression within the hierarchy. As needs were fulfilled at one level, the individual desired the needs of the next level. Schein (1980) has suggested:

The strength of the theory lies in drawing attention to the variety of needs and motives which operate, but the evidence for the hierarchical notion is weak and the need categories tend to be very general. For example, self-actualization can be achieved in many different ways, and the meaning of self-actualization may change with developmental stages, so it may not be very helpful to know that everyone is concerned about achieving it. (p. 85)

Alderfer's E.R.G. Theory

A later need fulfillment model was proposed by Alderfer (1969, 1972). Instead of the five levels of needs suggested by Maslow, Alderfer's E.R.G. theory addressed three basic sets of needs – existence (E), relatedness (R), and growth (G). Alderfer (1969) described existence needs as follows:

Existence needs include all the various forms of material and physiological desires. Hunger and thirst represent deficiencies in existence needs. Pay, fringe benefits, and physical working conditions are other types of existence needs. One of the basic characteristics of existence needs is that they can be divided among people in such a way that one person's gain is another's loss when resources are limited. (p. 145)

Relatedness needs were described as:

Relatedness needs include all the needs which involve relationships with significant other people. Family members are usually significant others, as are superiors, coworkers, subordinates, friends, and enemies. One of the basic characteristics of relatedness needs is that their satisfaction depends on a process of sharing or mutuality. People are assumed to satisfy relatedness needs by mutually sharing their thoughts and feelings. This process markedly distinguishes relatedness needs from existence needs because the process of satisfaction for existence needs prohibits mutuality. The exchange of acceptance, confirmation, understanding, and influence are elements of the relatedness process. (p. 146)

Alderfer described the third category of needs:

Growth needs include all the needs which involve a person making creative or productive effects on himself and the environment. Satisfaction of growth needs comes from a person engaging problems which call upon him to utilize his capacities fully and may include requiring him to develop additional capacities. A person experiences a greater sense of wholeness and fullness as a human being by satisfying growth needs. Thus satisfaction of growth needs depends on a person finding the opportunities to be what he is most fully and to become what he can. (p. 147)

Schein (1980) stated that these categories were useful when it was important to know the degree of need a given adult has at a given point in time. Alderfer acknowledged that not everyone had an equal amount of each of the basic needs, as Maslow's theory had implied. Alderfer (1972) elaborated:

One practical value [of the theory] is the ability to diagnose motivational problems which are related to human needs. The theory proposed an exhaustive list of general human needs and mechanisms for defining specific cases of these needs. This itself can serve as a check list for anyone wishing systematically to think through the motivational issues involved in any action he might take. (p. 164)

Alderfer (1969) posited that existence, relatedness, and growth vary on a continuum of concreteness, with existence needs being the most concrete, relatedness needs being moderately concrete, and growth needs being least concrete. The process of need fulfillment consisted of moving along the continuum in relation to satisfaction progression, which was similar to Maslow's theory, with the addition of another process called frustration regression. Alderfer (1969) described the frustration regression process:

The sense in which frustration regression is employed in the E.R.G. theory concerns the tendency of persons to desire more concrete ends as a consequence of being unable to obtain more differentiated, less concrete ends. Thus a person is thought to desire existence needs when relatedness needs are not satisfied because he is using them as an easier, more concrete way of establishing his connectedness with other people. He seeks relatedness needs when he is

unsatisfied with his growth because he is searching for opportunities for more clarity and support in the quest to stretch, develop, and expand himself. Thus when a person is not satisfied in attaining less concrete, more uncertain ends, he regresses to needs which are somewhat more concrete and less uncertain as to their attainment. (p. 151)

Alderfer (1969) provided the following example of the frustration regression process relating *regression* to the existence level when *frustration* occurred at the relatedness level:

It is in this sense [frustration regression] that a person may use the size of his paycheck as an indicator of the esteem in which he is held by his boss, colleagues, or organization. According to the E.R.G. theory one would expect him to do this less, the more open, trusting, and mutually respectful his relationship is with those significant others. Given that increasing amount of data showing the lack of relatedness-need satisfaction in organizational life, it is not at all surprising to find that persons rely on pay to assess the esteem by which they are held. (p. 151)

Alderfer (1972) claimed that this notion of satisfaction progression and frustration regression had important implications for managers:

E.R.G. theory proposes that the kinds of satisfactions which are provided to a person determine the kind of rewards he will seek. If the theory is valid, then a manager may attempt to adjust his behavior and design his organization to foster either the existence deficiency cycle or the growth enrichment cycle. To keep the prime emphasis on existence needs would entail making sure that relatedness needs remained relatively dissatisfied. In practice, it would probably mean only that managers would choose to relate in traditional ways without work being given to develop relationships with mutuality in the exchange of feelings and ideas. The normal scarcity of most material factors when combined with dissatisfying interpersonal relations would probably serve to foster the existence deficiency cycle. A manager wishing to aid the growth abundance cycle, on the other hand, would have to invest in developing unusually satisfying interpersonal relations and opportunities for people to utilize their capacities to a high degree. Satisfying relationships tend to aid the growth cycle; dissatisfying relationships tend to support the deficiency cycle. (p. 165)

A Comparison of Maslow and Alderfer

The difference between Alderfer and Maslow has been described in both content and process terms (Landy & Trumbo, 1980). They differed in content terms on the basis of the needs proposed. For Maslow there were five needs; for Alderfer there were three. They also differed in process terms: for Maslow the process was one of fulfillment-progression; for Alderfer, both fulfillment-progression and frustration-regression were important dynamic elements.

Maslow's theory has been criticized for its fixed hierarchical order by several researchers (Locke, 1976; Locke et al., 1983; Strauss, 1976). Locke (1976) described the hierarchical order as a limitation in understanding the nature of human needs:

The basis for Maslow's hierarchy theory is the premise that a satisfied need is not a motivator. While this, strictly speaking, may be true, it is also true that no human need is ever permanently satisfied as the result of a single act or series of actions. It is in the nature of needs that they must be continually and repeatedly fulfilled if the organism is to survive. (p. 1309)

Strauss (1976) criticized the assumption that all people desired to progress up the hierarchical ladder saying, "The Maslow scheme is highly flattering to professors and managers, two occupations which place a high value on self-actualization. Not all people in all occupations desire self-actualization" (p. 27). Locke et al. (1983) questioned the assumption that needs drive behavior:

Research studies have found little support for the concept of a fixed hierarchy of motives. There are many possible options in setting action priorities; such priorities depend not upon built-in needs but on acquired values (wants). Many different value hierarchies can be observed among individuals. Contrary to Maslow, there is no one-to-one correspondence between needs and values (p. 344).

Alderfer's theory has provided an alternative to Maslow's hierarchical process (Alderfer, 1969; Landy & Trumbo, 1980; Schneider & Alderfer, 1973). Alderfer described E.R.G. needs as arranged on a continuum rather than a hierarchy. Individuals vacillated on the continuum by a two-fold process described as satisfaction progression and frustration regression. Alderfer (1969) explained,

Often people express their wants in the form of complex goals which may include mixtures of the basic needs. One such compound need would be for a promotion, where as a result of the promotion the person would obtain more material rewards in the form of pay, a different constellation of interpersonal relationships, an new opportunities to develop and use his talents. (p. 145)

Maslow and Alderfer also differed in their notions about environmental influences. Schneider and Alderfer (1973) compared the conceptual differences:

Maslow's discussion seems to imply that a person is born with what he must become. The E.R.G. concept of growth places the source of man's potential in closer interaction with his environment than Maslow's theory does. Consequently, according to the E.R.G. view, one is never fully sure of the qualitative elements of an individual's potential until one knows the individual's environment. This is the central theme of recent research in organizational psychology, personnel selection, and theories of career development. (p. 491)

Consequently, according to Alderfer, an understanding of the work environment has been critical when researching job satisfaction. In early literature, the work environment was described as the objective make-up of work itself (Porter, 1962). More recent literature has expanded descriptions to include job characteristics and job facets (Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Ironson et al., 1989; Sims, Szilagyi, & Keller, 1976; Spector, 1997; Wanous, 1974). Research efforts have been directed toward measuring individuals' perceptions of satisfaction with specific job characteristics. Hackman and Lawler (1971) reviewed the importance of measuring perception:

It should be emphasized that it is not their objective state [job characteristics], which affects employee attitudes and behavior, but rather how they are experienced by the employees. Regardless of the amount of feedback (or variety, or autonomy, or task identity) a worker really has in his work, it is how much he perceives that he has which will affect his reactions to the job. Objective job characteristics are important because they do affect the perceptions and experiences of employees. But there are often substantial differences between objective job characteristics and how they are perceived by employees, and it is dangerous to assume that simply because the objective characteristics of a job have been measured (or changed) that the way that job is experienced by employees has been dealt with as well. (p. 265)

Alderfer (1972) also described the significance of perceptions in relation to satisfaction:

E.R.G. is not intended to be a theory to explain how people learn, make choices, or perform. It is a theory about the subjective states of satisfaction and desire. Although both satisfaction and desire are subjective states of a person, they differ in the degree of subjectivity. Satisfaction concerns the outcome of an event between a person who has obtained what he was seeking and is synonymous with getting and fulfilling. Because satisfaction involves interaction with a person's environment, its assessment (for both the person and a researcher) hinges in part on the objective nature of a person's external world. Satisfaction depends both upon the way the world "actually" is and how this reality is perceived by the person. (p. 7)

Job satisfaction has been more than an individual's perception of satisfaction with specific job characteristics. Spector (1997) explained, "Job satisfaction can be considered as a global feeling about the job or as a related constellation of attitudes about various aspects or facets of the job" (p. 2). Each aspect, overall job satisfaction, and satisfaction with specific job facets, has unique implications in job satisfaction research.

Overall Job Satisfaction and Satisfaction with Job Facets

The complexity of job satisfaction has been illustrated in the work of Ironson et al. (1989). In their development of the Job in General Scale, they described the importance of including *both* job facets and global scales to provide a complete picture of job satisfaction. They explained, "Global scales ask the respondent to combine his or her

reactions to various aspects of the job in a single integrated response. A sort of processing takes place asking for an end product. During this process, the respondent may incorporate other aspects not measured in the facet scales or items” (p. 194). Each measurement has contributed unique and useful information. Ironson et al. (1989) elaborated:

Facet scales are used to differentiate different aspects of job satisfaction; for example, to diagnose strengths and weaknesses in various sections of an organization. In contrast, general scales are used to estimate the respondent’s general overall feelings about the job. These feelings are expected to predict important behavior, such as quitting or being absent. They are widely used as indexes of organizational effectiveness. (p. 194)

Spector (1997) described job facets as any characteristic of a job. He identified frequently assessed facets including rewards such as pay or fringe benefits, other people such as coworkers or supervisors, the nature of work itself, and the organization itself. In Spector’s review of satisfaction research, he noted that people differ in their satisfaction across facets. In addition, these same facets only modestly related to one another. Spector (1997) summarized, “This pattern of results is convincing evidence that people have distinctly different feelings about the various facets of the job. They tend not to have global feelings that produce the same level of satisfaction with every job aspect” (p. 4).

Demographic Factors Associated with Job Satisfaction

Few demographic factors associated with job satisfaction have been reported in the literature. Two factors, education and job longevity, have been reported in the literature and have been discussed from a theoretical perspective.

Education

Strauss (1976) reported that, in general, the more education individuals have the greater their degree of overall job satisfaction. According to role theory, education has been a means of socialization into the work environment (Hardy, 1978; Mobily, 1991; Van Maanen, 1976). Van Maanen (1976) explained, “The educational institution prepares its students not for a particular socializing experience, but for a vast number of such experiences with similar requirements. Socialization into the so-called professional organization relies extensively upon this method” (p. 104). According to Hardy (1978), “Socialization is a complex process directed at the acquisition of appropriate attitudes, cognitions, emotions, values, motivations, skills, knowledge, and social patterns necessary to cope with the physical, cultural, and social environment” (p. 79). Lack of socialization experiences has led to socialization deficits (Hardy, 1978). Socialization deficits have been associated with role stress, which have also been associated with job dissatisfaction (Mobily, 1991). Thus education was thought to mediate job satisfaction; the more education one has the greater the chance one will find their job satisfying.

Job Longevity

Job longevity has been another demographic factor associated with job satisfaction. People who were satisfied with their jobs generally remained longer in their jobs. Locke et al. (1983) explained:

Studies have shown that, typically, job satisfaction increases linearly or curvilinearly with age and/or job tenure. People who are older or have been on the job longer may have attained more of what they want and those who have not may either have left or have lowered their aspirations to reflect what they are able to get. (p. 346)

Turnover theories have provided the theoretical premise for the relationship between job tenure and job satisfaction (Locke, 1976; Locke et al., 1983; Schein, 1980; Spector, 1997). Spector (1997) explained:

Models of turnover place job satisfaction in the center of a complex process that involves factors both inside and outside of the employing organization. Characteristics of the individual combine with characteristics of the job environment in determining level of job satisfaction. If the job satisfaction level is sufficiently low, the person will develop the intention to quit the job. That intention may lead to job search activities, which if successful will lead to turnover. (p. 62)

Locke (1976) described factors outside the employing organization that could affect turnover:

While reported correlations between amounts of satisfaction and turnover have been consistent and significant, they have not been especially high (usually less than .40), the reason being that most employees do not act solely on the basis of their feelings. Other factors that would typically be considered in reaching a decision to terminate would include: financial need, location, and the availability of other jobs. (p. 1331)

Schein (1980) reported that turnover models typically included a number of other factors in addition to job satisfaction. However, job satisfaction has remained a constant concept in turnover theories.

Job Facets in Higher Education

Investigations of satisfaction with respect to specific aspects of a job, usually called job facets, have been an important index of organizational effectiveness (Ironson et al., 1989). The results of such research have provided diagnostic information to administrators, thus directing their efforts to improve particular aspects of a job. Bess (1981) has explained the value of job facet research in higher education, "Facet studies of faculty satisfaction have the advantage of identifying characteristics of faculty and their

work environment which may contribute to overall institutional morale and perhaps to improvements in productivity and the quality of work” (p. 9). In Spector’s review of several job satisfaction instruments, the job facets most frequently measured were:

1. Appreciation
2. Communication
3. Coworkers
4. Fringe benefits
5. Job conditions
6. Nature of work itself
7. Organization itself
8. Organization’s policies and procedures
9. Pay
10. Person growth
11. Promotion opportunities
12. Recognition
13. Security
14. Supervision. (Spector, 1997, p. 3)

Bess (1981) found similar categories in his review of published reports in higher education literature. Typical job facets have included faculty satisfaction with recognition and advancement, the work itself, administrative policies, supervision, interpersonal relations, working conditions, salaries, non-wage benefits, academic standards, the institutional environment, student characteristics, and staff support.

Thompson et al. (1997) have reviewed reports on job satisfaction in educational organizations published in Educational Administration Quarterly from 1965 to 1990.

They found two categories of job facets. The first category consisted of characteristics of job tasks including autonomy, level and variety of challenge, and role tensions. The second category consisted of characteristics of the organization including supervision, feedback, organizational culture, and type of organization.

Aldefer (1969) included characteristics relating to job facets in his description of existence, relatedness, and growth. In regard to existence, he stated, “Existence needs include all the various forms of material and physiological desires. Hunger and thirst represent deficiencies in existence needs. Pay, fringe benefits, and physical working conditions are other types of existence needs” (p. 145). The facets of pay, fringe benefits, and working conditions have been frequently investigated in job satisfaction research.

Several facets have been studied in relation to the relatedness category. These included appreciation, communication, coworkers, supervision, recognition, staff support, role tensions, feedback, promotion opportunities, and organizational culture. Alderfer (1969) described relatedness needs as needs that involve relationships with significant other people including family, superiors, coworkers, subordinates, friends, and enemies. He described these relationships as “the exchange of acceptance, confirmation, understanding, and influence are elements of the relatedness process” (p. 146).

The third category, growth, has been described in terms of individual behaviors and also in terms of the individual’s environment. Job facets relating to growth needs have included the nature of work itself, personal growth, challenge, and autonomy.

Alderfer (1972) elaborated:

Satisfaction of growth needs depends on a person’s being able to find ways to utilize his capabilities and to develop new talents. Ecological environments vary in the degree to which they permit or encourage the use of a person’s full capabilities. Some settings contain very little opportunity for discretion and offer little stimulation or challenge. A prototypic example of this kind of setting would be an assembly-line job. Other settings offer a high degree of stimulation and choice to persons. The job of a high level executive might be a case of this type of setting. Growth satisfaction depends on a person’s taking a proactive stance toward his environment, but if the setting is unresponsive, it matters little if the person wants to produce effects because he cannot. Thus, the major mediating

effect of the environment concerns whether the setting offers challenge and choice. (p. 20)

Several authors have noted the uniqueness of the faculty role and the faculty environment. Olsen and Sorcinelli (1992) found:

Faculty differ from other workers and even other professional groups in the extent to which their job satisfaction derives from the intrinsic aspects of work. Faculty evidenced consistently high levels of satisfaction with the autonomy that their career provided, the opportunities for intellectual discovery and growth, and the sense of accomplishment. (p. 20)

Olsen (1993) offered similar conclusions, “The intrinsic rewards of an academic career have traditionally been viewed as central to faculty satisfaction. Intrinsic rewards have been variously defined but, in general, pertain to the nature of the work itself” (p. 454). The higher education environment has been described as one that provides individuals with opportunities for creative expression (Bess, 1981). Locke et al. (1983) provided the following description of the faculty role:

The work [faculty member’s job] is relatively unstructured in that the faculty member chooses what subject he or she wants to research and is left entirely on his or her own to do it. Similarly, in the classroom, the professor has a virtual free rein to teach what and how he or she wants, so long as the general topic of the course is adhered to. (p. 360)

Job Facets Related to Existence in Higher Education

Alderfer (1969) described existence needs as pay, fringe benefits, and working conditions. Several researchers have investigated satisfaction with pay. Few have included working conditions and fringe benefits. Reports of higher education faculty in general indicated that educators are generally not satisfied with their pay (Bellott & Tutor, 1990; Hagedorn, 1994; Olsen, 1993; Robertson & Bean, 1997; Thompson et al., 1997; Weiler, 1985; Willie & Stecklein, 1982). In contrast, reports of satisfaction with

pay among nurse faculty have shown inconsistent findings (Brendtro & Hegge, 2000; Kennerly, 1989; Marriner & Craigie, 1977; Moody, 1996; Plawecki & Plawecki, 1976; Sorensen, Van Ort, & Weinstein, 1985). Gappa and MacDermid (1997) concluded:

While faculty often experience the tensions of multiple roles and competing interests, they still remain a relatively privileged group, both on and off campus. Consider this: Earners raise their income, on average, by about 30 percent for each graduate degree obtained. The average annual earnings of an assistant professor (\$38,500 in 1993) were greater than the median income for all American families (\$36,959). Among families in which a member has a doctorate, 64 percent are in the top 20 percent of American family incomes and 27 percent are in the top 5 percent (in excess of \$113,182). In contrast, among families in which the head of the household has less than a ninth-grade education and families in which the head of the household has just a high school diploma, 75 percent and 43 percent, respectively, fall into the bottom 40 percent of the family income distribution, earning less than \$30,000 per year. This bottom 40 percent of families includes many of the clerical and service workers on college campuses. Even if their employer offers benefits programs such as flexible spending accounts, optional insurance coverage, subsidized child care, or retirement savings plans, such employees may not have the “extra” money necessary to take advantage of them. (pp. 3-4)

The most recent report on nurse faculty’s salaries published by the American Association of Colleges of Nursing for 1997–1998, confirmed Gappa and MacDermid’s notion that employees with higher degrees tend to earn higher salaries (American Association of Colleges of Nursing, 1998b). Salaries for academic year 1997-1998 ranged from a low of \$21,318 for an instructor without a doctoral degree in a public institution to a high of \$140,556 for a doctorally prepared professor in a private secular institution. The report indicated that nurse faculty’s salaries have increased when compared to the previous year. The mean salaries for the academic year 1997-1998 for full-time nurse faculty ranged from .06 to 4.5% above the mean salaries for salaries reported in 1996-1997. Nondoctorally prepared instructors had the largest percentage

increase (4.5%; \$36,777) followed by doctorally prepared instructors (3.9%; \$42,033), nondoctorally prepared assistant professors (3.5%; \$39,691), and doctorally prepared professors (3.4%; \$64,369). Nondoctorally prepared professors experienced essentially no increase.

Reports in nursing literature indicated inconsistent findings of satisfaction with pay and the degree to which satisfaction with pay influences overall job satisfaction. Kennerly (1989) explained, "The overwhelming tendency of faculty to indicate a high level of satisfaction with the job in the absence of significant correlation with pay, structure, and tenure suggests that faculty do not perceive these variables as substantial factors influencing their work environment" (p. 202). Tang, Arocas, and Whiteside (1997) suggested that high pay alone would not lead to job satisfaction. Several studies found satisfaction with pay accounted for only a small amount of the variance in relation to overall job satisfaction (Marriner & Craigie, 1977; Olsen, 1993; Plawecki & Plawecki, 1976; Sorensen et al. 1985; Thompson et al., 1997; Willie & Stecklein, 1982). Nurse educators' salaries been compared with nurses who hold similar degrees and responsibilities. De Young and Bliss (1995) explained:

The issue of salary cannot be ignored. Nursing faculty often make less money than nurses with similar responsibility. Faculty salaries fell 19 percent in real terms between 1970 and 1984, whereas other occupations kept up with or exceeded inflation. Clinical nursing salaries for example, increased substantially in the late 1980s, amplifying the difference between clinician and faculty salaries. Twenty-four percent of nondoctorally prepared faculty who resigned from colleges and universities to take executive or clinical nursing positions did so because of salary. A comparison of statistics shows that in 1992 a nondoctorally prepared assistant professor was paid \$40,486, a clinical specialist was paid \$42,253, and a head nurse was paid \$45,501. For nurses seeking doctoral preparation, a faculty salary may not seem a very good return on the amount of money invested in education. (p. 86)

Mullinix (1990) also commented on nurse educators' abandonment of academe for higher paying positions:

Rising nurse salaries in practice settings have attracted potentially new nurse educators into nursing service. A PhD heading a hospital's nurse education and research department is no longer an oddity. Other health-related research efforts have attracted the versatile masters prepared or doctorally prepared nurse to conduct or manage research involving patients. Likewise, continuing education efforts housed outside schools of nursing have hired nurse educators. The doctorally prepared nurse, in years past, was employed exclusively by schools of nursing, where both education and research were accomplished. The PhD nurse's options for employment now extend beyond schools of nursing. (p. 133)

Leaders in nursing education have expressed their concern about low salaries affecting recruitment into doctoral programs, thus contributing to even fewer fully prepared nurse faculty. McNeal (1990) stated:

High school graduates seeking to make viable career options are very much interested in combining intellectually satisfying careers with significant financial rewards, realized over time. The investing, of well over six figures to obtain the earned doctorate and related professional certification, will not be an option many will take, given the current poor return on the investment and the lack of scholarly recognition associated with the credential. (p. 1)

Anderson (1998) also commented on the unwillingness of nurses to pursue doctoral degrees in relation to salaries:

Real disincentives may exist for nurses not to pursue a doctorate. Our evolving health care system, which is characterized by integrated networks that provide care across the continuum, a heightened inpatient acuity, increased use of technology, and mandates to improve quality, enhance efficiency and access, and reduce costs, has an increased need for advanced practice nurses who function with a fair amount of independence and are compensated with attractive salaries. Persons in these positions may be quite satisfied with their careers. (p. 6)

Several studies reported that satisfaction with pay was not as influential as other job facets on retention and recruitment. In an early study conducted by Plawecki and

Plawecki (1976), salary was found to be least important in affecting retention. The researchers surveyed 92 nurse educators who held a minimum of a master's degree and were employed as nurse faculty in schools of nursing in Iowa to determine factors that influenced recruitment and retention. They found that work itself was the most important factor influencing recruitment and retention; salary was least. They summarized their findings:

The data supported the conclusion that all factors were not equally influential in attracting and /or retaining qualified nursing faculty. Respondents agreed that the work itself and responsibility had greater influence than other factors on both attraction and retention. The factors salary, personal life, and environment were less influential than other factors on attraction and retention of nurse educators. (p. 135)

Sorensen et al. (1985) surveyed the deans of 40 National League for Nursing accredited baccalaureate and higher degree nursing programs to determine factors associated with turnover of tenure track faculty. The deans completed a questionnaire listing 14 reasons for faculty departure. The deans answering the questionnaire wrote in 9 additional reasons for a total of 23 stated reasons. Salary ranked fifth (8.21 %) of 10 top reasons for leaving. Nineteen percent of tenure track faculty left for family-related reasons.

Marriner and Craigie (1977) found similar results in their study of factors associated with faculty mobility among faculty in 36 National League for Nursing accredited baccalaureate and higher degree programs in the West. Four hundred and seventy-seven nurse educators rated job characteristics considered in accepting a position. The researchers summarized, "Although salary was cited most frequently, geographic location had the highest weighted response because it was more often

considered the most important variable” (p. 354). This study also included an investigation of the importance of fringe benefits and working conditions in relation to job satisfaction. The nurse educators rated the importance of 52 job characteristics in relation to job satisfaction. Fringe benefits accounted for only 3.9% of the total number. Six job characteristics were grouped together and called instruction. These included teaching load, class size, classrooms, courses, laboratory facilities, and media aids. This category accounted for 7.6% of the total number.

Kennerly (1989) found that pay did not significantly correlate with overall job satisfaction. The sample consisted of 189 nurse educators from private colleges. Nurse educators completed a questionnaire to determine perceptions of leadership behaviors and job satisfaction. Kennerly summarized the significance of her findings:

The absence of support for significant relationships between job satisfaction and pay, structure, tenure, or other aspects of program size should not be interpreted to lessen their importance. It is very likely that the restricted variability of these factors across organizational units may indicate a commonality that underlies the high level of satisfaction reported by faculty. Changes in these areas of the nursing program’s characteristics should not be made without careful consideration of how such a modification may affect the balance of variables by exerting an active moderating influence on faculty perceptions of the job. (p. 202)

In a recent study conducted by Brendtro and Hegge (2000), overall job satisfaction of nurse educators and nurses in other roles were found to be almost the same despite a disparity in pay. The sample consisted of 288 nurses with graduate degrees in one midwestern state. Nurse educators reported significantly lower annual salaries than nurses in other roles. The researchers reported that they could not make meaningful salary comparisons because of unspecified contract duration for nursing faculty

respondents. However, an interesting finding was that the number of nurses who reported overall job satisfaction was very similar between nurse educators (79.5%) and nurses in other roles (76%). When the researchers asked for suggestions to increase the pool of qualified nursing faculty, four themes were found: ground educators in clinical practice, provide scholarships for nurses pursuing advanced degrees, increase access to master's and doctoral education for nurses, and improve faculty salaries and benefits.

Conversely, Moody (1996) found salary to be a significant factor in relation to job satisfaction. Moody conducted a national survey of faculty in 45 universities and colleges offering doctoral and baccalaureate degrees. Two hundred and eighty-five nurse educators completed two standardized questionnaires: the JDI (Job Descriptive Index) and the JIG (Job in General). The findings revealed that nurses in the higher salary ranges were significantly more satisfied with the job in general, work itself, pay, and opportunities for promotion. The survey results also indicated that in general, nurse educators reflected neither positive nor negative feelings relevant to pay. Moody summarized the significance of the findings:

The growth of nursing education programs in institutions of higher learning has outpaced the supply of appropriately credentialed nurse faculty. Coupled with the fact that many nurses are choosing nursing service over academia because of increased job opportunities, higher salaries, and lower educational requirements, the higher education of nurses is an imperiled resource. If increased salaries are prohibited because of economic constraints, nursing education administrators should work with faculty to determine what incentives can be provided to enhance the attractiveness of a career in academia. (pp. 286-287)

Gmelch, Lovrich, and Wilke (1984) found similar findings in their study of faculty who were randomly selected from 40 private universities and 40 public universities. The purpose of their study was to identify factors contributing to faculty

stress. Stress has been associated with job dissatisfaction (Mobily, 1987). The findings indicated that 32% of respondents indicated that they were receiving inadequate salary to meet financial needs.

Job Facets Related to Relatedness Needs

Alderfer (1969) described relatedness needs as needs that involved relationships with significant other people including family, superiors, coworkers, subordinates, friends, and enemies. He explained, "One of the basic characteristics of relatedness needs is that their satisfaction depends on a process of sharing or mutuality" (p. 146). The elements of relatedness were described as exchange of acceptance, confirmation, understanding, and influence. Alderfer (1969) further explained:

It is not necessary for the formal power between two people to be equal, or nearly so, for relatedness need satisfaction to be possible. The essential conditions involve the willingness of both (or all) persons to share their thoughts and feelings as fully as possible while trying to enable the other(s) to do the same thing. (p. 146)

Job facets relating to relatedness needs in satisfaction research included categories of collegiality, peer support, and coworker relations. These categories have also been described in nursing literature. Mauksch (1982) described peer support:

It is appealing when practiced by others and is greatly appreciated when experienced by oneself. It is a source of comfort and self-confidence, but it must be pointed out that peer support is only helpful if it is honest, open, and constructive, and if it extends into critique. (p. 10)

Donohue (1986) addressed the benefit of peer support, "In the academic setting, peers can provide the needed support to help faculty colleagues recognize their abilities and to set realistic goals in order to reduce fear of failure" (p. 374). Magnussen (1997) described yet another dimension of peer support:

Developing a sense of professional community goes beyond simple cordiality and small group discussion activities. It requires revealing who we are as professionals – what we know, what we believe, and what we value. (p. 32)

Mauksch (1982) described the nurse educator's responsibility:

To be a teacher of a professional discipline requires an environment of inquiry, of scholarship, and of emphasis on constant growth. Obviously, this mandates openness, mutual exchange of thinking and ideas, and reciprocal critiquing of such ideas. (p. 9)

There have been reports indicating a lack of collegiality among nurse educators.

Boyden (2000) described the degree of collegiality, "Many faculty report a sense of general encouragement from colleagues but very little concrete help with scholarship or teaching" (p. 105). Brodie (1986) attributed the lack of collegiality to the academic environment:

The relentless pressure of academic life also has modified the sense of collegiality among faculty. Competition for promotion and tenure within schools may make fellow faculty, particularly junior faculty, rivals rather than colleagues. In addition, the increased size and complexity of many universities has eroded the capacity for collegial relations outside schools. (p. 353)

Improved collegiality among co-workers has been viewed as a means of retaining nurses in the profession. Disch (2001) concluded, "Every interaction with patients, families, students, and colleagues either adds to today's problems, or helps maximize tomorrow's work force" (p. 72).

Retention efforts have been found to be particularly important for new faculty. Sorcinelli (1992) reported that faculty turnover occurs most often in the first five years of teaching. Norton and Spross (1994) identified collegiality as an aspect of the environment that could assist new faculty in coping with the frequently reported experience of isolation. In addition, collegiality was described as a means to enhance the

socialization process of new faculty. Many new faculty are prepared as clinicians and, therefore, lack the pedagogical skills essential to successful transition into the teaching profession. Norton and Spross (1994) stated, "Retention of excellent practitioner-teachers in academic nursing depends on successful negotiation of role transition" (p. 375).

Job facet research of peer relationships among higher education faculty in general has received extensive attention in the literature (Diener, 1984; Hagedorn, 1994; Locke et al., 1983; McElreath, Boissoneau, Roof, & Whipple, 1996; Olsen, 1993; Olsen & Sorcinelli, 1992; Peterson & Provo, 1998; Robertson & Bean, 1997; Sorcinelli, 1992; Weiler, 1985). Overall, these studies have indicated that faculty are satisfied in their relationships with their colleagues. Lack of satisfaction was linked to faculty turnover (Weiler, 1985) and less overall job satisfaction (Pollicino, 1996; Pollicino, 1998). Satisfaction with peer relationships varied with career age; new and junior faculty were less satisfied than faculty in mid-career and faculty nearing retirement (Boice, 1991, 1992; Hagedorn, 1994; Olsen, 1993; Olsen & Sorcinelli, 1992; Sorcinelli, 1992).

In contrast, reports of satisfaction with peer relationships among nurse educators showed inconsistent satisfaction levels. Studies Fain (1987) and Moody (1996) found nurse educators to be highly satisfied with their peer relationships. Fain (1987) conducted a survey of 285 faculty from 27 baccalaureate degree programs. Five facets of job satisfaction were assessed: work itself, co-workers, pay, supervision, and opportunities for promotion. The findings showed that satisfaction with co-workers

ranked the highest. In a later study conducted by Moody (1996), satisfaction with co-workers also ranked the highest of the job facets.

Satisfaction with peer relations was found to be associated with overall job satisfaction. Donohue (1986) conducted a study of 210 faculty from 15 accredited baccalaureate schools of nursing in a three-state area in eastern United States. Although the level of satisfaction with co-workers was not reported, the researchers found several predictors of job satisfaction including the work itself, promotion opportunities, and co-workers relations.

Other studies found evidence of dissatisfaction with peer relations among nurse faculty. In a study conducted by Langemo (1988), 208 baccalaureate educators from 14 midwestern states identified faculty conflict as ranking fourth in factors contributing to burnout. Burnout has been associated with decreasing job satisfaction (Anderson & Iwanicki, 1984; Phillips, 1984). In addition, researchers reported that as work relationships deteriorated, burnout scores increased.

The concept of caring in relation to interpersonal relationships has recently been reviewed in nursing literature. Descriptions of Alderfer's relatedness needs were similar to descriptions of caring. Alderfer (1972) described the elements of the relatedness process as acceptance, confirmation, understanding, and influence. These same elements were identified as characteristics of caring. Morse, Solberg, Neander, Bottorff, and Johnson (1990) conducted a content analysis of 35 reports that contained either explicit or implicit definitions of caring. Five perspectives on caring were found: caring as a human trait, caring as a moral imperative or ideal, caring as an affect, caring as an

interpersonal relationship, and caring as a therapeutic intervention. Showing concern and offering support were described as behaviors in caring relationships.

The aspect of mutuality has been discussed as a component of caring and a component of Aldefer's relatedness. Alderfer (1972) explained mutuality:

Satisfaction of relatedness needs depends on people establishing relationships in which they can mutually share their relevant thoughts and feelings. Most people are to some degree responsive to the thoughts and feelings of others with whom they interact. Consequently, persons with varying needs almost always have the possibility of increasing the amount of mutual exchange that occurs by being more empathic and sharing more of themselves. At the same time, people differ in the degree of exchange that they want or can tolerate comfortably. (p. 19)

The mutuality of caring was described by Benner and Wrubel (1989), two renowned nurse leaders. They stated:

Care fits in well with the phenomenological view of a person and does not necessarily oppose, or compete with, self-interest. In fact, concern for others contributes to a world or community where one can care and expect to be cared for. (p. 21)

Nyberg (1989) described the goals of caring as meaningful relationships that enhance growth of people in organizational environments. The process of caring includes a sense of openness. Nyberg explained, "The attribute of openness is more than just a willingness to hear; it is a willingness to perceive, to understand, to empathize, and to respond" (p. 14). According to Nyberg:

The ability to bring out the potential of others has as its foundation the belief that people have abilities and talents that can be enhanced through the care of others. The person who would care for another must be able to search for these abilities and develop skills in encouraging the other to strive toward self-growth. (p. 14)

Traditionally, caring has been discussed only in the context of nurse-patient and faculty-student relationships (Beck, 1991; Boykin & Schoenhofer, 1990; Cohen, 1993; Diekelmann, 1990; Dillon & Stines; 1996; Grams, Kosowski, & Wilson, 1997; Guynn et

al., 1994; Hanson & Smith, 1996; Hughes, 1992; Morse et al., 1990; Noddings, 1988; Sanford, 2000; Schaffer & Juarez, 1996; Severtsen & Evans, 2000; Simmons & Cavanaugh, 2000; Wolf, Giardino, Osborne, & Ambrose, 1994). Although not addressed as much as the caring component of nurse-patient and faculty-student relations, caring has been expanded to include relations with colleagues (Fong, 1990; Grigsby & Megel, 1995).

Grigsby and Megel (1995) conducted interviews with 7 nurse educators from three baccalaureate degree nursing programs in one Midwestern state to discover nurse educators' experiences with caring in the work environment. The nurse educators were faculty of private colleges, single-degree granting organizations, or universities. According to Grigsby and Megel, nurse faculty voiced the complaint that no one in the school of nursing's work environment cared about them as they struggled to balance the demands of work with the demands of a personal life. However, when nursing faculty experienced caring within their work environments, the over-riding theme they described was the experience of feeling connected to others. The researchers summarized:

For these nursing faculty, caring means being cared for by other faculty or administrators, feeling valued in the academic and clinical arenas, and caring for students, patients, other faculty, and administrators. Uncaring experiences occur for everyone; they involve being treated with indifference, feeling diminished and separated from others, and acting to protect the self. (p. 413)

Grigsby and Megel recommended:

Historically, nursing faculty have emphasized the therapeutic value of the nurse-patient relationship and have focused on understanding caring within that context. Curricula are devised that explicitly and implicitly include caring as a core value, yet the value is not consistently evident in the lived experience of the nurse educator. With a nurse faculty shortage on the horizon, it is critical that we attend to promoting the self-efficacy and self-worth of nurse educators. Exploring how

to promote caring experiences among faculty may be our means of establishing communities of caring within colleges of nursing. It is time to apply the same values to ourselves as nurse educators as we do to patients and nursing students and to develop communities of caring that facilitate connectedness and support for our own members. (p. 417)

In a study consisting of 141 nurse faculty from eight campuses of the California State University system, Fong (1990) found that nurse educators perceived their colleagues and chairpersons as moderately supportive. The study consisted of 141 nurse faculty from eight campuses of the California State University system. The findings also showed that when caring from colleagues and chairperson occurred, feelings of burnout decreased. Fong concluded that it is the responsibility of each faculty member and administrator to strengthen professional ties and create personal situations conducive to improved performance and satisfaction.

Job Facets Related to Growth in Higher Education

Alderfer (1972) described satisfaction of growth needs as occurring when people find ways to utilize their capabilities and develop new talents in their environments.

Environment is an important component in growth satisfaction. Alderfer explained:

Growth satisfaction depends on a person's taking a proactive stance toward his environment, but if the setting is unresponsive, it matters little if the person wants to produce effects because he cannot. Thus, the major mediating effect of the environment concerns whether the setting offers challenge and choice. (p. 20)

Alderfer's description of growth has suggested that individuals interact with their environments by self-directed actions. Satisfaction of growth needs not only required these actions but also an environment that offered opportunities of challenge and choice. The work of faculty has been described as self-paced and self-chosen (Fong, 1990; Locke et al., 1983). Bess (1981) described the faculty environment as one that supported the

freedom and autonomy needed for professional discretion in work-related decisions.

McKeachie (1979) noted, "In comparisons with other occupations, professors report a good fit between the complexity of their occupations and their desire for complexity.

They also reported good fit between their desired responsibility for other persons and the characteristics of their work" (p. 7).

Research in higher education has included job facets relating to growth needs including the work itself, workload, personal growth, challenge, and autonomy. Of these areas, workload has received the most attention in nursing literature.

Workload

The workload for nurse educators has changed over the years in relation to their expanded functions (Batey, 1969; Brodie, 1986; de Torney, 1997; Freund, 1990; Freund, Ulin, & Pierce, 1990; Fry, 1975; Kirkpatrick, Rose, & Thiele, 1987; O'Shea, 1986; Williamson, 1972). While in hospital-based systems, nurse educators dedicated most of their time to the clinical preparation of students (Ruby, 1999). As the practice of nursing expanded outside the hospital and the education of nurses moved to the university setting, new and additional responsibilities followed. Spero (1980) described this transition:

When nurse educators moved into the halls of academe they were, in the main, poorly prepared for the role, having come from a different milieu. Time was requested to meet newly adopted role standards. Energies were expended in curriculum development, in designing new teaching modalities, in participating in university governance, in securing advanced degrees, and to an extent, engaging in recognizing scholarly pursuits such as research and writing for refereed journals. (p. 23)

Bevis (1985) addressed the significance of this transition:

Nursing is a relative newcomer to the field of higher education but, since the inception of the first university-based nursing program, we have prated about our

need to be viewed as equals in the university community. Equals must meet equal role expectations. (p. 905)

These expectations included meeting the traditional tripartite functions of teaching, researching, and providing community service (Brown et al., 1995; Jones & Van Ort, 2001; Minnick & Halstead, 2001; Mobiliy, 1991; Moran & Ashton, 1998; Sneed et al., 1995; Wood et al., 1998). Davis, Dearman, Schwab, and Kitchens (1992) explained:

Emphasis on the components of the tripartite nurse faculty role vary depending on the mission of the employing institution. Senior universities are likely to have higher research and scholarship expectations for the faculty than smaller universities and colleges. Community colleges in particular may emphasize excellence in teaching and participation in service activities that are institution specific. Although the expectations for nurse faculty may vary by employing institution, the contributions of nurse educators in all three areas are vital to the profession. (p. 160)

The workload has continued to expand in response to recent changes in nursing education. As new practice areas have emerged outside the hospital, faculty workloads have increased due to the inherent need to learn new skills in areas of community partnership, community-based interdisciplinary education, and community culture and organization (Conger, Baldwin, Abegglen, & Callister, 1999; Lindeman, 2000; Matteson, 2000; Onea, Sloat, Shoultz, & Tse, 1998; Riner, & Billings, 1999). As with any scientific discipline, nursing education has demanded a continual renewal of knowledge. However, this has become more critical today due to rapid changes brought about by an increase in health care technology (Brodie, 1986; Carty & Rosenfeld, 1998; Copp, 1997; Davis et al., 1992; de Torney, 1987; Fong, 1990; Hodges & Poteet, 1992; Myrick, 1991; Schuster, Fitzgerald, McCarthy, & McDougal, 1997; Spero, 1980). Increasingly more pressure has been placed on faculty to maintain their clinical skills by integrating clinical

clinical practice into their academic life (Bailey, 1995; Krafft, 1998; Sherwen, 1998).

These changes have not only provided challenge and diversity in the faculty role, but also complicated a once simple workload.

Several reports described nurse educators combining work and doctoral studies to meet the increased demand for doctorally prepared faculty (Anderson, 1998; Copp, 1987; Davis et al., 1992; Fitzpatrick & Abraham, 1987; Ketefian, 1991; Norbeck, 1998; Perry, 1982; Wardle, 1984). Ratcliffe and Andresky (1988) elaborated:

Through the Fifties and Sixties, times of growth in higher education, tenure was easily obtained. A master's degree in nursing or a related field such as child development, psychology, rehabilitation, or public health was considered the terminal degree for nursing faculty. Some baccalaureate schools of nursing had nurse faculty with only baccalaureate preparation. Few educators had doctoral preparation. Emphasis was placed on teaching and advisement by most nursing faculty. In the last two decades, faculty from schools of nursing have been increasingly required to meet the guidelines of the parent institution for tenure, retention, and promotion and their qualifications are reviewed by faculty and administrators outside the school of nursing. No longer are special exceptions made for nurses within many academic settings; they are now evaluated by the same criteria as all other university faculty. (p. 9)

The addition of graduate studies to an already crowded workload has produced even greater work responsibilities.

Little research has been reported about the satisfaction of nurse educators with their workloads. Most research efforts has been in investigating the relationship of stress and workload and the relationship of burnout and workload. In an early study conducted by Marriner and Craigie (1977), low satisfaction levels were found with advising and teaching loads. The researchers also found that junior faculty had lower satisfaction levels than senior faculty in those areas. The researchers offered the following recommendation, "Because of the large amount of work required for class and laboratory

preparations, the feeling that the workload is too heavy should be curtailed by a reduction in teaching responsibility and committee work for junior faculty” (p. 359).

The association between stress and work overload has been addressed in the literature (Fong, 1990; Langemo, 1988; Mobily, 1991). Stress has been correlated with job dissatisfaction (Olsen, 1993). Gmelch et al. (1984) described the importance of the relationship between stress and dissatisfaction:

From previous research related to occupational stress it can be projected that knowledge of the professional situations that are stress-producing for faculty can assist university administrators in creating a more desirable working climate, facilitative of both productivity and greater faculty satisfaction. Identification of the sources of faculty stress can be utilized in at least two important ways: first, through institutional action such as adjustments in structure, policies, administrative assignments, and managerial behaviors to provide a less stressful atmosphere; and second, individual faculty members can, by awareness of the situations that are stressful to them, develop coping techniques known to reduce job-based stress. (p. 488)

Mobily (1991) reported 6 factors associated with workload as major sources of stress:

1. Having adequate time to meet role expectations.
2. Coping with the number of expectations.
3. Feeling pressured to secure outside funding in a time of limited availability.
4. Having job demands interfere with other activities of personal importance (family, leisure, and other interests).
5. Feeling like the workload is too heavy and impossible to finish during the normal work week.
6. Thinking that the amount of work to be done interferes with how well the work gets done. (p. 77)

Role overload was reported as the primary factor associated with a high degree of stress.

Mobily summarized, “The heavy teaching responsibilities particularly for faculty assigned to the undergraduate program with clinical instruction responsibilities, must be reviewed if these faculty are expected to be productive in all academic areas” (p. 78).

Fong (1990) also investigated factors associated with stress. Fong described the findings:

Both extreme time pressure and high job demands were reported by a large proportion of the nursing faculty members. These findings support the theories and results of earlier empirical studies on the nursing profession, mainly that overload is a primary stressor for nursing faculty members. (p. 106)

Fong discussed the problem of faculty workload:

Why are faculty members overloaded? To a certain extent faculty members set their own time and workload. For example, they plan the student assignments that must then be corrected; they set up task forces and committees to deal with problems; they decide to be contributors to a new nursing text; and they volunteer to chair various community health organizations. Thus, the answer to nursing educators' overload may not be that of adding more instructors to relieve the workload; rather, faculty members must learn how to set realistic workloads and attainable goals. (p. 107)

Langemo (1988) found that overload ranked the highest of 9 factors associated with burnout. Burnout has been associated with job turnover (Maslach, 1976, 1982).

Langemo concluded, "Reasonable workload and expectations were seen as the most effective methods of alleviating or preventing burnout, followed by support and respect from administration and recognition of teaching excellence" (p. 333).

Ratcliffe and Andresky (1988) studied barriers that could impede professional development and overall job satisfaction, finding that 87% of the nurse educators thought it difficult to fulfill requirements such as further education, research, publication, clinical practice, and community service. Sixty-six percent of the nurse educators felt that their workload prevented participation in professional development. Although the researchers did not report on the relationship between barriers and overall job satisfaction, only 58% of the faculty reported satisfaction with their job. The authors concluded, "The

establishment of a workload system that is incorporative of research and creative activities without sacrificing teaching responsibilities should be present in all schools of nursing thereby giving credence to the fact that research and creative activities are a part of the basic job requirements” (p. 12).

The focus of satisfaction with workloads has not been a concern to only nursing. Several reports have been published in higher education literature. Gappa and MacDermid (1997) described workload in higher education at large:

While faculty find their greatest satisfaction in their autonomy and independence, they also face multiple demands for their time and multiple expectations for accomplishments in teaching, research, and service. As a result, their work time is fragmented among diverse and conflicting priorities. (p. 5)

Several studies reported dissatisfaction with workload among higher education faculty in general (Barnes, Agago, & Combs, 1998; Gmelch et al., 1984; Hagedorn, 1994; Johnsrud & Heck, 1998; Olsen, 1993; Olsen & Sorcinelli, 1992; Perry et al., 1997; Sorcinelli, 1989, 1992; Willie & Stecklein, 1982). Conversely, Robertson and Bean (1997) reported very high levels of satisfaction with workload in their study of women faculty in family and consumer science.

The Nature of Faculty Work

Job facets associated with Alderfer’s growth needs included achievement, autonomy, and challenge. Several reports indicated that higher education faculty in general are satisfied with these job facets (Diener, 1984; Johnsrud & Heck, 1998; Locke et al., 1983; Olsen, 1993; Olsen & Sorcinelli, 1992; Peterson & Provo, 1998; Robertson & Bean, 1997).

Similarly, research reports in nursing literature showed that nursing faculty are also satisfied with these facets. Marriner and Craigie (1977) reported, "Nurse educators ranked intrinsic factors such as responsibility, achievement, academic freedom, and autonomy as more important than extrinsic factors such as faculty club, lounge, and dining room" (p. 353). Moody (1996) and Fain (1987) also found that nurse educators were highly satisfied with work itself. In each study, satisfaction with work itself ranked second after satisfaction with peer relations. Satisfaction with work itself was found to be the most important factor in influencing retention in a study conducted by Plawecki and Plawecki (1976). The researchers reported, "Respondents agreed that the work itself and responsibility had greater influence than other factors on both attraction and retention" (p. 135).

Overall Job Satisfaction

Overall job satisfaction has been described as a complex phenomenon (Ironson et al., 1989; Marriner & Craigie, 1977; Spector, 1997). It would seem logical that job satisfaction could be explained by satisfaction with specific job facets. However, Spector found little support for interpreting overall job satisfaction from job facet research (Spector, 1997). Spector explained, "They [individuals] tend not to have global feelings that produce the same level of satisfaction with every job aspect" (p. 4). Ironson et al. (1989) speculated that individuals use different processes when asked to describe their perceptions of overall job satisfaction and satisfaction with specific job facets. They explained:

Global scales ask the respondent to combine his or her reactions to various aspects of the job in a single integrated response. They assume that some sort of

processing takes place and ask for its end product. During this process, the respondent may incorporate other aspects not measured in the facet scales or items. (p. 194)

Marriner and Craigie (1997) described overall job satisfaction as multidimensional in that individuals express satisfaction with general aspects of their job while remaining dissatisfied with others.

Research has shown little if any correlation between overall job satisfaction and satisfaction with job facets (Kennerly, 1989; Marriner & Craigie, 1977; Olsen, 1993).

Kennerly (1989) offered this explanation for the findings of her study, “The overwhelming tendency of faculty to indicate a high level of satisfaction with the job in the absence of significant correlation with pay, structure, and tenure suggests that faculty do not perceive these variables as substantial factors influencing their work environment” (p. 202). Olsen (1993) found little correlation between overall job satisfaction and satisfaction with job facets in her longitudinal study. She summarized:

The longitudinal nature of the data also made it possible to interpret over-time changes in level of satisfaction with specific facets of the job in terms of their importance to overall job satisfaction. Results suggest, for example, that greater dissatisfaction with salary over the three-year period may be less important to faculty’s professional values and self-worth than factors like sense of autonomy, support of colleagues, or opportunities to use skills and abilities that contribute to professional satisfaction more directly. In fact, data on work stress and work satisfaction suggest that concern over work conflicts, job security, compensation, and even the review process tends to impact faculty careers negatively, that is, increasing the level of stress, but has only a borderline effect on overall satisfaction with the career. (p. 466)

Overall job satisfaction has been reported to be high among higher education faculty in general and nursing education faculty in particular (Brendtro & Hegge, 2000; Ethington, Smart, & Zeltmenn, 1989; McElreath et al., 1996; Moody, 1996; Peterson &

Provo, 1998; Ratcliffe & Andresky, 1988; Willie & Stecklein, 1982). Brendtro and Hegge (2000) reported that 79.5% of nurse educators in their study were satisfied or very satisfied with their current employment. Donohue (1986) also found nursing faculty to be satisfied with their careers. The results also showed no differences in satisfaction among nurse educators in private versus public institutions.

Reports of higher education faculty in general indicated similar findings.

Peterson and Provo (1998) reported that 76.8% of adult education faculty were satisfied with their jobs. In a three-decade comparison of college and university faculty in Minnesota, Willie and Stecklein (1982) reported that faculty were satisfied with their careers and most would make the same career choice selection again if given the opportunity.

Overall Job Satisfaction in Relation to Demographic Factors

Research reports have supported the notion that education and job longevity affect overall job satisfaction. Several studies found that individuals with high levels of education have high degrees of job satisfaction (Mobily, 1991; Sorensen et al., 1985; Spector, 1997). Research findings also supported the notion that people who have longer tenure in their jobs are more likely to be satisfied than people with less tenure (Christian, 1986; Fong, 1990; Hagedorn, 1994; Locke et al., 1983; Marriner & Craigie, 1977; Moody, 1996; Perry et al., 1997; Sorensen et al., 1985).

Overall Job Satisfaction in Relation to Job Facets

Several studies have investigated the relationship between job facets and overall job satisfaction. Research has been reported in higher education literature as well as nursing literature.

Overall job satisfaction and pay. Although satisfaction with pay was studied frequently in research on higher education faculty in general, few studies included the relationship of pay and overall job satisfaction. Of the studies assessing the relationship, the findings indicated that pay had little impact on overall job satisfaction. Hagedorn (1994) found that satisfaction with salary among higher education faculty in general was a significant component of the complete satisfaction picture, but only for individuals with longer career spans. The researchers concluded that salary seemed to become more important for those closer to retirement. Olsen (1993) found no difference in overall job satisfaction and pay in relation to year one and year three of faculty tenure. In addition, pay had little impact on overall satisfaction. Olsen (1993) summarized, "Interestingly, factors like salary, benefits, and job security exercised only a borderline effect on work satisfaction regardless of year" (p. 462). Robertson and Bean (1997) found that autonomy and salary contributed significantly, but in a small degree, to overall job satisfaction of women faculty in family and consumer sciences programs.

Similarly, few studies addressed the relationship of pay and overall satisfaction among nurse educators. Moody (1996) reported that nurses with higher salaries were found to be more satisfied with the job in general. Conversely, Kennerly (1989) found no statistical correlation between pay and overall job satisfaction.

Overall job satisfaction and collegiality. Several studies assessed the relationship of collegiality and overall job satisfaction. Studies of higher education faculty in general and nursing education faculty in particular found that collegiality significantly impacts on overall job satisfaction (Finkelstein & LaCelle-Peterson, 1992; Fong, 1990; Hegedorn, 1994; Langemo, 1988; Marriner & Craigie, 1977; Moody, 1997; Olsen, 1993; Olsen & Sorcinelli, 1992; Robertson & Bean, 1997). Several studies found that collegiality related to overall job satisfaction more in early career years than later (Finkelstein & LaCelle-Person, 1992; Hagedorn, 1994; Olsen, 1993; Olsen & Sorcinelli, 1992).

A positive relationship between collegiality and job satisfaction among nurse educators has been reported. Fong (1990) found that lack of social support contributed significantly to burnout. Fong concluded:

In a sense, faculty members must also take responsibility for creating supportive relationships, both among peers and with the chairperson. Social support feels good and can be crucial in times of stress and crisis. It would seem worthwhile to actively seek out people to nourish the spirit. (p. 107)

Langemo (1988) found similar results when assessing burnout among nurse educators.

Langemo summarized, "As peer work relationships deteriorated, burnout scores rose.

Feeling free to share personal feelings appeared to minimize burnout scores" (p. 333).

Marriner and Craigie (1977) reported that collegiality ranked seventh of twelve factors in overall importance relating to job satisfaction.

Overall job satisfaction and the nature of work. Faculty in higher education in general and nursing education in particular who are satisfied with their jobs were also satisfied with the challenge, opportunity, and the work itself (Marriner & Craigie, 1977; Moody, 1996; Olsen, 1993; Robertson & Bean, 1997). Based on their findings indicating

a high degree of satisfaction with these facets among nurse educators, Marriner and Craigie concluded, "This [research finding] again stresses the value nursing educators place on motivation and self-image variables and supports the importance of creating an atmosphere which allows faculty a sense of responsibility, achievement, academic freedom, and individual autonomy" (p. 353).

The relationship of faculty workload and overall job satisfaction has been frequently addressed in job satisfaction literature among higher education faculty in general. Sorcinelli (1989) described the complexity of this relationship:

Researchers and commentators on higher education imply that problems of faculty discontent are produced by the all-consuming nature of academic work, the difficulty in balancing multiple and complex roles, and the decline of supportive institutional environments. But this view ignores the larger difficulty, immeasurably more complicated, of balancing careerist pressures, professional tasks, and institutional demands...with the equally complex demands of private, family, and civic life. (p. 60)

In her study of 112 higher education faculty in general, Sorcinelli found that half of the faculty described stresses in balancing time and commitment to family with career aspirations (Sorcinelli, 1989). Sorcinelli also found a strong relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction. She concluded:

The fact that academic work influences and is influenced by life outside of work should not be surprising, but it challenges the ways in which academic organizations function. Institutional structures and policies operate as though concerns about personal, family, and community life are separate from work life. These results show that the separation clearly is not being maintained and suggest the need to broaden the landscape and to consider an encompassing view of the careers of faculty. (pp. 75-76)

Olsen (1993) and Hagedorn (1994) reported finding significant connections with career tenure and the relationship of overall job satisfaction and workload. Hagedorn

(1994) reported, “Although long hours of institutional-related duties are stressful for all, this study has found a significant connection with satisfaction only for novices and mid-careerists. These findings may indicate that disengagers [faculty close to retirement] have achieved greater control over their workloads” (p. 724). Olsen (1993) also investigated job satisfaction among higher education faculty but only in the first three years, finding that in the first year, faculty satisfaction was associated with the ability to balance a complex and often conflicting set of work demands. However, by year three, this factor did not impact on overall job satisfaction.

Although workload has been addressed extensively in nursing literature, few empirical reports were found. Langemo (1988) investigated burnout in relation to workload among baccalaureate nurse educators. She summarized her findings:

Overload followed by a lack of positive reinforcement were seen as the number one and two causes of burnout. Reasonable workload and expectations were seen as the most effective methods of alleviating or preventing burnout, followed by support and respect from administration and recognition of teaching excellence. (p. 333)

In an investigation of nurse educators’ perceptions of the importance of 50 job characteristics in relation to job satisfaction, Marriner and Craigie (1977) found little correlation between workload and job satisfaction. They concluded:

The domains in this study were related to each other, but much of each domain was not predictable because of the relatively small amount of variance extracted by the correlated factors. This indicated that there are variables other than the ones this research measured that influence one’s satisfaction and perception of the importance of various job characteristics. (p. 360)

Summary

This chapter has reviewed literature related to the theoretical foundation of the study, satisfaction with specific job facets, and overall job satisfaction among higher education faculty and nursing faculty in particular. In addition, the review contained information reviewing the relationship of overall job satisfaction with the demographic factors of education and job longevity. In the following chapter, the methods for conducting the study are discussed. Included are descriptions of the development of the research instrument and the procedures for data collection and analysis.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURES

This study investigated the perceptions of nurse educators of private colleges and universities in a midwestern state to determine their overall job satisfaction and their satisfaction with three specific job facets consisting of work itself, collegiality, and workload. Alderfer's Existence, Relatedness, and Growth (E.R.G.) theory was selected for the theoretical framework for this study (Alderfer, 1972). The theory provided descriptions of existence, relatedness, and growth needs which closely parallel faculty roles and functions. In addition, Alderfer explicitly stated that his theory is about subjective states of satisfaction and desire. Faculty job satisfaction in relation to relatedness and growth needs was the focus of this investigation. Alderfer (1972) described his theory:

E.R.G. is not intended to be a theory to explain how people learn, make choices, or perform. It is a theory about the subjective states of satisfaction and desire. Although both satisfaction and desire are subjective states of a person, they differ in the degree of subjectivity. Satisfaction concerns the outcome of an event between a person who has obtained what he was seeking and is synonymous with getting and fulfilling. Because satisfaction involves interaction with a person's environment, its assessment (for both the person and a researcher) hinges in part on the objective nature of a person's external world. Satisfaction depends both upon the way the world "actually" is and how this reality is perceived by the person. (p. 7)

Several researchers have noted the importance of measuring perceptions (Johnsrud & Heck, 1998; Robertson & Been, 1997; Schneider & Alderfer, 1973). Johnsrud and Heck described the importance of faculty perceptions:

The assumption that perceptions matter is evident in the number of studies that examine perceptions and the findings that indicate perceptions influence behavior.

Faculty perceptions regarding their professional priorities, institutional support, and the quality of their lives are important, especially in the current climate of fiscal austerity and public disaffection with higher education. The quality of the academic enterprise depends ultimately on the vitality of the faculty. (p. 553)

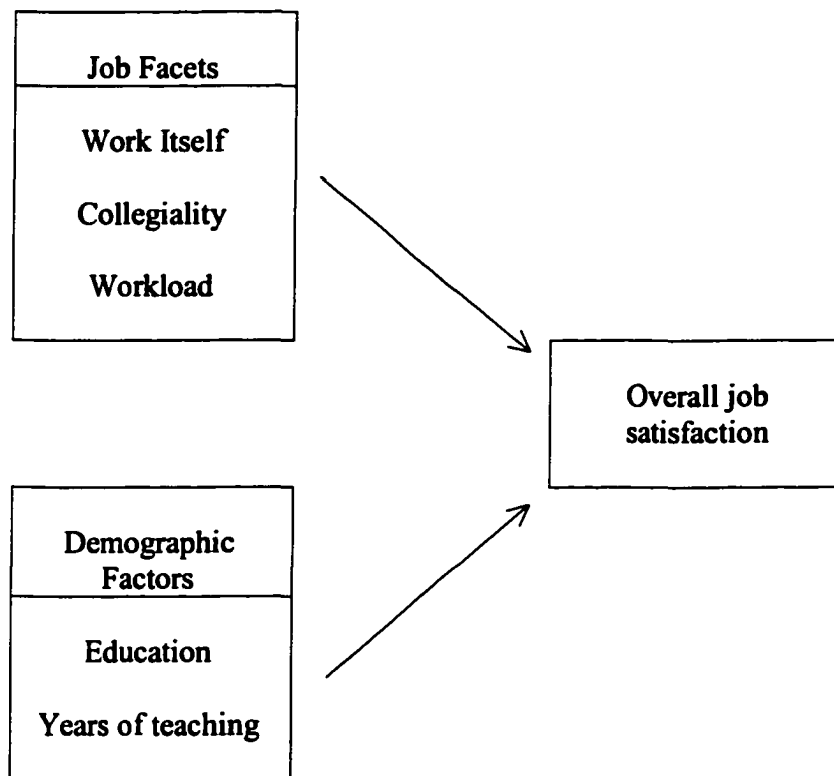
This study measured nurse educators' perception of satisfaction with three job facets.

The facets were (a) collegiality (relatedness needs), (b) work itself (growth needs), and (c) workload (growth needs).

Research supported the notion that job satisfaction is a complex phenomenon consisting of satisfaction with job facets and satisfaction with the overall job (Locke et al., 1983; Spector, 1997; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Research also supported that the sum of facet satisfaction does not represent overall job satisfaction (Ironson et al., 1989). Therefore, both overall job satisfaction and job facet satisfaction were assessed in this study. Furthermore, there was evidence that job facet satisfaction contributed to overall job satisfaction (Schein, 1980; Spector, 1997). Given the empirical evidence for the relationship between job facet satisfaction and overall job satisfaction, in this study, job facets consisting of workload, collegiality, and the work itself were independent variables and overall job satisfaction was the dependent variable. Research also supported the notion of a relationship among overall job satisfaction and two demographic factors consisting of education and job longevity (Locke et al., 1983; Mobily, 1991; Schein, 1980; Spector, 1997; Van Maanen, 1976). Thus, these demographic factors were also independent variables in the study.

A model was developed to depict the relationship of the variables in this study (Figure 2). In the model, the directional line between job facets and overall job

Figure 2. Model of overall job satisfaction with the independent variables of job facets consisting of workload, collegiality, the work itself and demographic factors consisting of education and job longevity. The dependent variable was overall job satisfaction.



satisfaction represented the relationship between the independent variables of job facets consisting of workload, collegiality, and the work itself and the dependent variable of overall job satisfaction. The directional line between demographic factors and overall job satisfaction represented the relationship between the independent variables of the demographic factors consisting of education and years of teaching and the dependent variable of overall job satisfaction.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The research questions were:

1. What are nurse educators' perceptions of their overall job satisfaction?
2. What are nurse educators' perceptions of their satisfaction with the work itself, collegiality, and workload?
3. What are the relationships among the satisfaction levels of the work itself, collegiality, and workload?
4. What are the relationships between overall job satisfaction and the satisfaction levels of the work itself, collegiality, and workload?
5. What are the relationships between overall job satisfaction and education and years of teaching?

The corresponding hypotheses were:

1. Nurse educators will indicate satisfaction with their job overall.
2. Nurse educators will indicate satisfaction with the work itself, collegiality, and workload.
3. There are positive relationships among satisfaction levels of the work itself, collegiality, and workload.
4. There are positive relationships among overall job satisfaction and the satisfaction levels of the work itself, collegiality, and workload.
5. There are positive relationships among overall job satisfaction and nurse educators' level of education and years of teaching.

Operational Definition

Satisfaction was represented by the sum of the scores on the scales as defined in the Instrumentation section of this chapter.

Instrumentation

The questionnaire/survey method of research was selected because it provided a systematic data collection tool to reach many people. Henerson, Morris, and Fitz-Gibbon (1987) stated that questionnaires have certain advantages that make them popular attitude evaluation tools. They listed the advantages as follows:

1. They permit anonymity.
2. They permit a person a considerable amount of time to think about his/her answers before responding.
3. They can be given to many people simultaneously.
4. They provide greater uniformity across measurement situations than do the interviews.
5. In general, the data they provide can be more easily analyzed and interpreted than the data received from oral responses. (p. 28)

The questionnaire was developed specifically for this study after consulting job satisfaction surveys from several disciplines including organizational behavior, management, psychology, nursing, and higher education (Anderson & Iwanicki, 1984; Bruce, 1994; Diener, 1984; Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Locke, 1976; Mobily, 1987; Mueller & McCloskey, 1990; Porter, 1962; Sims et al., 1976; Stamps, Piedmont, Slavitt, & Haase, 1978).

The questionnaire (Appendix A) consisted of three parts. Part I included statements relating to the job facet of the work itself, collegiality, and workload. Nurse educators were asked to indicate their levels of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with items relating to the work itself (Appendix B, Table B1); collegiality (Appendix B, Table B2); and

workload (Appendix B, Table B3). Five degrees of responding were offered: Definitely dissatisfied, Somewhat dissatisfied, Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied, Somewhat satisfied, and Definitely satisfied.

Part II consisted of statements regarding overall job satisfaction (Appendix A). The respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement by checking a box corresponding to one of five categories: Strongly agree, Agree, Neither agree nor disagree, Disagree, and Strongly disagree.

Part III of the questionnaire included questions regarding demographic characteristics: education, rank, and years of teaching experience. The respondents indicated their responses by selecting choices or filling in the blanks (Appendix A).

A panel of three nurse educator experts was asked to establish validity by evaluating the questionnaire. Content expert evaluation guidelines were developed in consultation with the Director of Social and Behavioral Science Research Center at the University of Northern Iowa (Appendix C). Suggestions included eliminating one question that was similar to another and editing one question that was unclear.

A pilot test was conducted to assess for clarity, time, and ease of responding. The questionnaire was administered to eight graduate nursing students; each completed the questionnaire in 12 minutes or less. The students offered no suggestions for improving the instrument.

Population

The population for this study was nurse educators in baccalaureate and graduate degree granting private colleges and universities in a midwestern state. A state-level

nursing agency was contacted for addresses of private colleges and universities in the state. The faculty of 10 private colleges and universities were included in the study. A letter requesting the names of full-time nurse faculty was sent to each school (Appendix D). The population consisted of 118 faculty.

Data Collection

A packet containing a cover letter (Appendix E), the questionnaire (Appendix A), and a self-addressed, stamped return envelope was sent to each nurse educator. Each questionnaire was assigned a number to track completion. To increase the response rate a postcard was sent to educators who had not responded within 14 days of the initial mailing.

Treatment of the Data

All data were analyzed with SPSS, a statistical software program. Overall job satisfaction, satisfaction with the work itself, collegiality, and workload were described by descriptive statistics including means and standard deviations. Correlations were calculated to describe the relationship among overall job satisfaction, job satisfaction of the three job facets, and demographic factors. Multiple regression was utilized to determine the contribution of the independent variables of the work itself, collegiality, and workload in explaining their relationship to the dependent variable of overall job satisfaction. Stepwise multiple regression was utilized to determine the relative contribution of the independent variables of the work itself, collegiality, and workload in explaining the variance of the dependent variable, overall job satisfaction. Factor analysis was performed on the independent variables of work itself, collegiality, and

workload to determine the factor structure of the underlying variables. Cronbach alpha was conducted to determine internal consistency.

Summary

This chapter has outlined the methods used in planning the investigation of job satisfaction among nurse educators. The E.R.G. theory and research in organizational behavior, management, psychology, nursing, and higher education was used to develop a Likert-type questionnaire with statements relating to satisfaction with three job facets and overall job satisfaction. Procedures for data collection and analysis have been discussed. The following chapter presents the results of the data analysis.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to investigate the perceptions of nurse faculty in private colleges and universities to (a) describe overall job satisfaction; (b) describe satisfaction with job facets of the work itself, collegiality, workload; (c) determine the relationships among satisfaction levels of the job facets; (d) determine the relationship between satisfaction levels of the job facets and overall job satisfaction; and (e) determine the relationship between overall job satisfaction and selected demographic factors. The variables were overall job satisfaction, work itself, collegiality, workload, level of education, and years of teaching.

One hundred and eighteen nurse educators from baccalaureate and graduate degree granting private colleges and universities in Wisconsin were requested to complete a questionnaire about job satisfaction and other variables. Presented in this chapter are the results of the investigation.

Subjects

Eighty-five of 118 respondents returned the questionnaire. Thus the overall return rate was 72%. There were no missing data on any of the items.

Besides being asked to respond to several content items, respondents were asked to provide demographic information about their level of education, rank, and years of teaching (Appendix A; Demographic Information, Part III). Of those responding, 59 (69.4%) held a master's degree and 26 (30.6%) held a doctorate degree. There were no

respondents with baccalaureate degrees. The ranks of the respondents included 12 (14.1%) instructors, 48 (56.5%) assistant professors, 19 (22.4%) associate professors, and 6 (7.1%) professors. Of those completing the questionnaire, the respondents' number of years teaching included 4 (4.7%) with 1 or fewer years, 15 (17.6%) with 2 to 5 years, 19 (22.4%) with 6 to 9 years, 16 (18.8%) with 10 to 14 years, and 31 (36.5%) with 15 or more years. The mean for the number of years teaching was determined by using increasing numbers assigned to each category of years (Appendix A, Demographic Information, Part III). The resulting mean ($M = 3.6$) was interpreted to correspond to approximately 10 years.

Instrument

Internal consistency reliability for the job facets subscales and the overall job satisfaction scale was estimated by computing alpha coefficients. The alpha coefficients for the subscales were as follows: work itself, .79; collegiality, .87; and workload, .79. The alpha coefficient for the overall job satisfaction scale was .90. The corrected item total correlation was used to assess the contribution of each item in determining coefficient alpha for the job facets subscales. Table 1 indicates that every item contributed positively with the exception of item C 9 ($\alpha = .90$). Due to the small size of the population ($N = 85$), thus posing a limitation when interpreting these results, C 9 was retained in the scale. It was this researcher's belief that C 9 contributed to the measurement of satisfaction with collegiality.

Factor analysis was used to examine the data. Gall, Borg, and Gall (1996) explained: "The mathematics of factor analysis basically involves a search for a cluster of variables

that are all correlated with each other. The first cluster of variables that is identified is called the first factor; it represents the variables that are most intercorrelated” (p. 449).

Table 1

Coefficient Alpha with Item Deletion for Job Facet Subscales and Overall Job Satisfaction Scale (N = 85)

Item	Coefficient Alpha if Item Deleted
Workload $\alpha = .79$	
Workload requirements of my job	.74
Balance of my workload and activities outside of my job	.69
Time to keep current in professional reading	.73
Time to attend professional conferences	.77
Work Itself $\alpha = .79$	
Sense of accomplishment in my work	.77
Opportunities to use my abilities	.72
Opportunities to do challenging work	.68
Opportunities for growth in professional competency	.79

(table continues)

Item	Coefficient Alpha if Item Deleted
Collegiality $\alpha = .87$	
Opportunities to exchange ideas with colleagues	.90
Respect from colleagues	.80
Support from colleagues	.85
Recognition of my accomplishments from my colleagues	.80
Total Overall Job $\alpha = .90$	
I find real enjoyment in my job	.89
In general, I like working here	.88
I am well satisfied with my job	.86
Most days I am enthusiastic about my job	.88
If I had to do it all over again, I'd choose this job	.90

The factors and associated eigenvalues were extracted. The scree plot displayed in Figure 2, shows sharp decline after the plotting of the first factor. The first factor alone accounted for 44% of the variance in the relationship between job facet satisfaction and overall job satisfaction (Factor number = 1; eigenvalue = 5.920). The next factor accounted for only 15% of the variance (Factor number = 2; eigenvalue = 1.872). Table 2 displays the factor loadings of the job facets scale on the first factor. Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) explained, "To interpret a factor, one tries to understand the underlying dimension that unifies the group of variables loading on it" (p. 625). As indicated in

Figure 3. Scree plot of eigenvalues derived from factor analysis (Component Number represents the factor number [$N = 85$]).

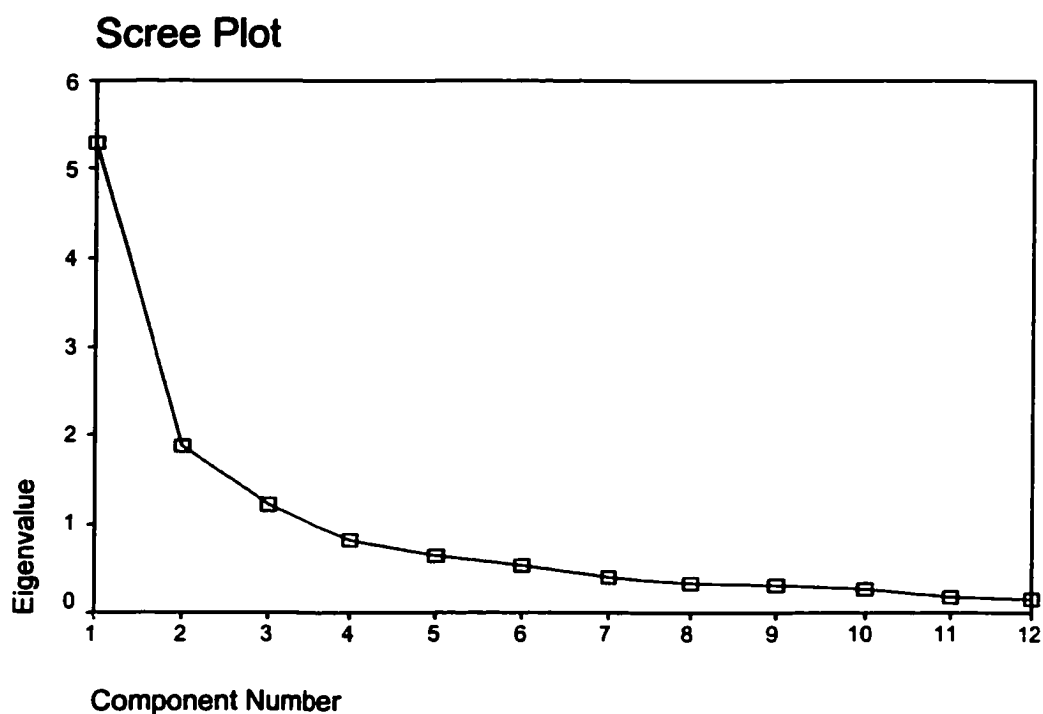


Table 2, the majority of the variance on the first factor was attributed to the items measuring Collegiality. According to Comrey and Lee (1992), the greater the loading, the more the variable is a pure measure of the factor. They suggested that loadings in excess of .71 (50% variance overlap between variable and factor) are considered excellent, .63 (40% variance overlap between variable and factor) very good, .55 (30% variance overlap between variable and factor) good, .45 (20% variance overlap between

Table 2

Factor Loadings on First Factor (Eigenvalue = 5.29; variance = 44%) of Job Facets Subscales (N = 85)

Item	Factor Loadings
Workload	
Workload requirement of my job	-.06
Balance of my workload and activities outside my job	-.09
Time to keep current in professional reading	.18
Time to attend professional conferences	.46
Work Itself	
Sense of accomplishment in my work	.35
Opportunities to use my abilities	.21
Opportunities to do challenging work	.25
Opportunities for growth in professional competency	.52
Collegiality	
Opportunities to exchange ideas with colleagues	.57
Support from colleagues	.88
Respect from colleagues	.81
Recognition of my accomplishments from my colleagues	.86

variable and factor) fair, and .32 (10% variance overlap between variable and factor) poor. Table 3 lists the variables with factors loadings of .45 and above. All four items of the subscale measuring Collegiality had factor loadings above .45. One item from each of the other two subscales, Workload and Work Itself, also had factor loading above .45.

Table 3

Order (by Size of Loadings \geq .45) in which Variables Contributed to Factor 1 (N = 85)

Item	Factor Loadings
Collegiality	
Support from colleagues	.88
Recognition of my accomplishments from my colleagues	.86
Respect from colleagues	.81
Opportunities to exchange ideas with colleagues	.57
Work Itself	
Opportunities for growth in professional competency	.52
Workload	
Time to attend professional conferences	.46

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Five research questions were posed and a hypothesis corresponding to each these questions was tested. Descriptive statistics, correlations, multiple regression, and

stepwise multiple regression were utilized. Hypotheses were tested at the .05 significant level using non-directional tests.

The First Research Question and its Corresponding Hypothesis

Research Question 1 was asked and Hypothesis 1 was tested to determine nurse educators' perceptions of their overall job satisfaction. The hypotheses was stated as follows: Nurse educators will indicate satisfaction with their job overall. Overall Job Satisfaction (Overall) was calculated by assigning increasing numbers to responses indicating increasing agreement with the items in the overall job satisfaction scale (Appendix A, Overall Job Satisfaction, Part II). As shown in Table 4, nurse educators indicated agreement with the statements ($M = 4.11$). Thus, the results were interpreted to support Hypothesis 1.

Table 4

Means (M), Standard Deviations (SD), and Correlations among Work Itself, Collegiality, Workload, and Overall Job Satisfaction (Overall [N = 85])

Variable	Collegiality	Workload	Overall	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Work Itself	.66	.42	.53	4.01	.93
Collegiality		.40	.58	3.98	1.05
Workload			.50	2.91	1.16
Overall				4.11	.82

Note. All correlations were statistically significant ($p < .01$).

Table 5 shows the means and standard deviations for each item on the Overall Job Satisfaction scale. All five items have consistent mean scores when rounded to the nearest whole number indicating moderate agreement with the statements.

Table 5

Means and Standard Deviations on the Overall Job Satisfaction Scale (N = 85)

Item	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
I find real enjoyment in my job.	4.2	.72
In general, I like working here	4.2	.88
I am well satisfied with my job	3.82	.94
Most days I am enthusiastic about my job.	4.14	.73
If I had to do it all over again, I'd choose this job.	4.13	.88

The Second Research Question and its Corresponding Hypothesis

The second of the research questions and hypothesis pertained to nurse educators' perceptions of their satisfaction with the work itself, collegiality, and workload. The hypothesis was stated as follows: Nurse educators will indicate satisfaction with the work itself, collegiality, and workload.

The results presented in Table 4 show the mean scores for the three job facets: Work Itself, Collegiality, and Workload. The scores were calculated by assigning increasing numbers to responses indicating increasing levels of satisfaction with each of the

statements (Appendix A, Faculty Job Satisfaction, Part I). As predicted, nurse educators were somewhat satisfied with the Work Itself ($\underline{M} = 4.01$). The mean score for satisfaction with Collegiality also indicated that nurse educators were somewhat satisfied ($\underline{M} = 3.98$). However, the mean score for satisfaction with Workload indicated that nurse educators were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied ($\underline{M} = 2.91$). Thus, the results were interpreted to support the components of Hypothesis 2 relating to Work Itself and Collegiality. However, the results were also interpreted as not supporting the component of Hypothesis 2 relating to Workload.

Table 6 shows the means and standard deviations for each of the items on the three job facets subscales. When the mean scores pertaining to items on the Workload subscale were rounded to the nearest whole number, the resulting mean score was 3 (e.g., WL 3 $\underline{M} = 2.64$ rounds to 3). The mean score suggested that nurse educators were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with their workloads. However, the histograms for every item of the Workload subscale shown in Figures 4 and 5 indicate the scores distributed in a bimodal fashion rather than a normal curve. This suggested that about half of the respondents indicated that they were somewhat satisfied while half indicated that they were somewhat dissatisfied.

When the mean scores pertaining to items on the subscales of Work Itself and Collegiality were rounded to the nearest whole number, the resulting mean score was 4 (e.g., WI 4 $\underline{M} = 3.62$, rounds to 4; C 1 $\underline{M} = 3.74$, rounds to 4). The mean scores suggested that nurse educators were moderately satisfied with Work Itself and Collegiality.

Table 6

Means and Standard Deviations on Items of the Job Facets Subscales (N = 85)

Item	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Workload		
Workload requirements of my job (WL 1)	3.20	1.21
Balance of my workload and activities outside of my job (WL 2)	3.05	1.12
Time to keep current in professional reading (WL 3)	2.64	1.01
Time to attend professional conferences (WL 4)	2.76	1.20
Work Itself		
Sense of accomplishment in my work (WI 1)	4.28	.78
Opportunities to use my abilities (WI 2)	4.26	.85
Opportunities to do challenging work (WI 3)	4.26	.89
Opportunities for growth in professional competency (WI 4)	3.62	.1.20
Collegiality		
Opportunities to exchange ideas with colleagues (C 1)	3.74	1.25
Respect from colleagues (C 2)	3.99	1.13
Support from colleagues (C3)	4.21	.85
Recognition of my accomplishments from my colleagues (C 4)	3.96	.98

Figure 4. Histograms of Items 1 and 2 of the Workload subscale ($N = 85$).

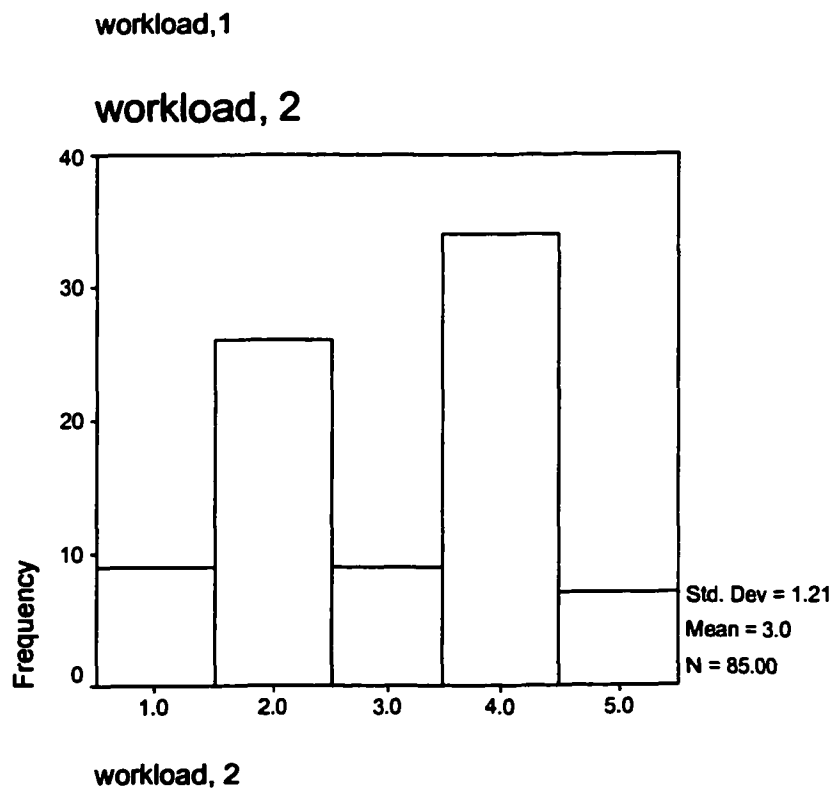
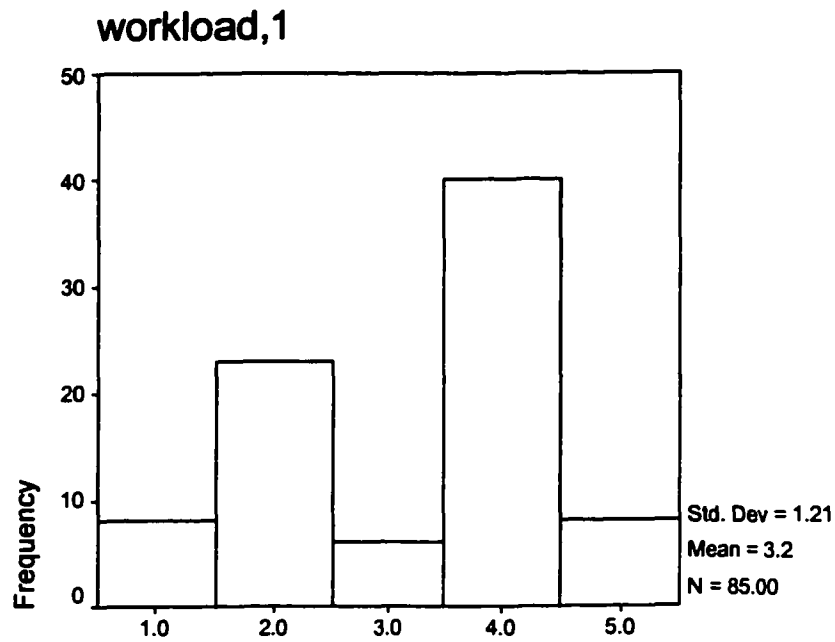
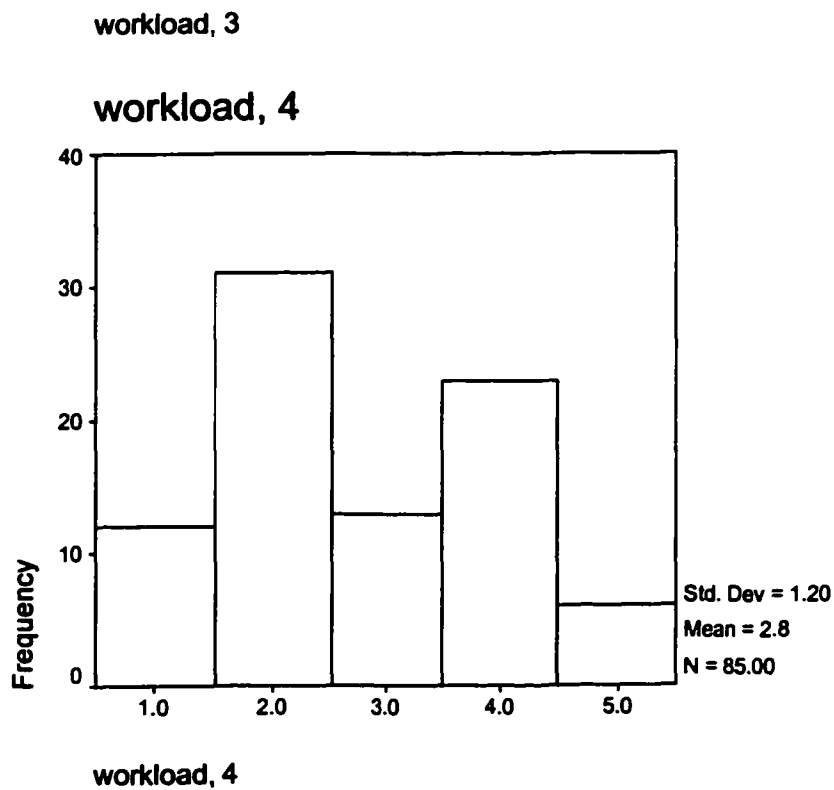
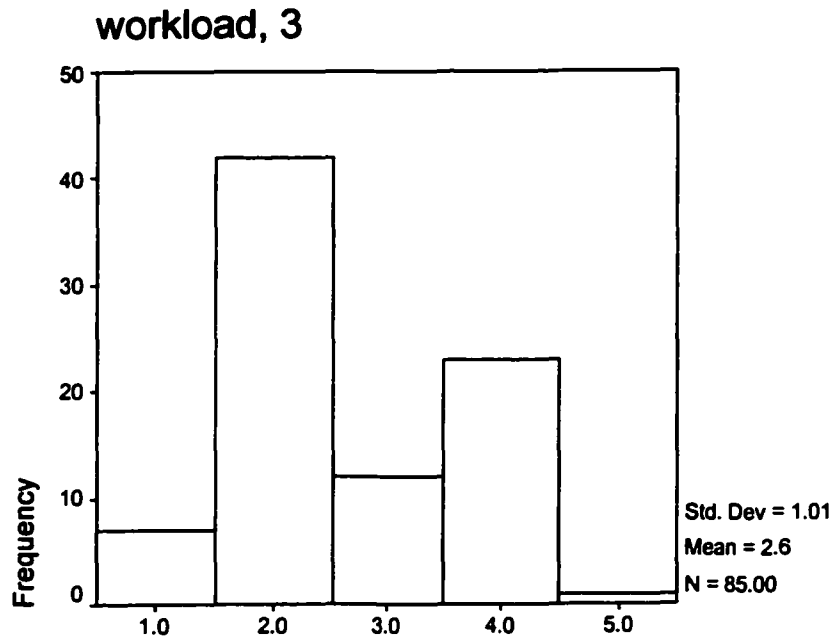


Figure 5. Histograms of Items 3 and 4 on the Workload subscale ($N = 85$).



The Third Research Question and its Corresponding Hypothesis

The third research question and its hypothesis pertained to relationships among satisfaction levels of the work itself, collegiality, and workload. The hypothesis was stated as follows: There are positive relationships among satisfaction levels of the work itself, collegiality, and workload.

As indicated in Table 4, the correlation coefficients were statistically significant, positive, and ranged from moderate to large in magnitude according to conventions of Cohen (1977). Thus, the results of the data analysis were interpreted to support Hypothesis 3.

The Fourth Research Question and its Corresponding Hypothesis

The fourth research question and its hypothesis pertained to relationships between overall job satisfaction and the satisfaction levels of the work itself, collegiality, and workload. The hypothesis was stated as follows: There are positive relationships between overall job satisfaction and the satisfaction levels of work itself, collegiality, and workload.

As indicated in Table 4, correlation coefficients for Overall Job Satisfaction and each of the three job facets were statistically significant, positive, and large in magnitude.

To analyze the relationships further, multiple regression was executed. According to Allison (1999), "Multiple regression separates the effects of independent variables on the dependent variable so that you can examine the unique contribution of each variable" (p. 9). Standardized regression coefficients indicated that the independent variables (Work Itself [beta = .28, $p = .02$], Collegiality [beta = .29, $p = .01$], and Workload [beta = .27,

$p = .01$) were positively associated with the dependent variable (Overall Job Satisfaction). Moreover, it was interpreted that the three variables made approximately equal contribution in the prediction of overall job satisfaction.

Stepwise multiple regression was executed to further ascertain the contribution of the independent variables in explaining the variance of the dependent variable. In stepwise multiple regression, the independent variable that contributes most to the variance of the dependent variable enters the regression first. Subsequent variables are entered in order of highest contribution to the variance of the dependent variable. Collegiality entered the stepwise multiple equation first, accounting for 34% of the variance ($R = .58$). The addition of Workload resulted in a 9% increase in the variance ($R = .65$). The combined scores of Collegiality, Workload, and Work Itself accounted for 47% of the variance in predicting overall job satisfaction ($R = .68$). Overall, the results of the analysis of data indicated that positive relationships existed between the three job facets and Overall Job Satisfaction. In addition, of the three job facets, the results suggested that Collegiality had the greatest influence in predicting Overall Job Satisfaction. Therefore, the results were interpreted to support Hypothesis 4.

The Fifth Research Question and its Corresponding Hypothesis

The fifth research question and its corresponding hypothesis pertained to the relationships among Overall Job Satisfaction and nurse educators' level of education and years of teaching. The hypothesis was stated as follows: There are positive relationships between overall job satisfaction and nurse educators' level of education and years of teaching. The level of education was scored by assigning numbers to types of degrees

with higher numbers representing higher degrees (Appendix A, Demographic Information, Part III). The years of teaching variable was also assigned numbers as described in the Subjects section of this chapter. As shown in Table 7, there were no statistically significant correlations among these variables; therefore the data were interpreted as not supporting the hypothesis.

Table 7

Means (M), Standard Deviations (SD), and Correlations among Overall Job Satisfaction (Overall) and Demographic Variables (N = 85)

Variable	Level of Education	Years of Teaching
Overall	.14 (p = .22)	.01 (p = .93)
Level of Education		.17 (p = .13)

Summary

The results of the analysis of data were:

1. On the average, nurse educators indicated that they agreed with statements pertaining to overall job satisfaction (Hypothesis 1).
2. On the average, nurse educators were somewhat satisfied with collegiality and the work itself and, contrary to what was expected, about half of the nurse educators were somewhat satisfied with their workload while half were somewhat dissatisfied (Hypothesis 2).

3. **There were positive relationships among the three job facets of the work itself, collegiality, and workload (Hypothesis 3).**
4. **All three job facets were predictive of overall job satisfaction and moreover, collegiality was the most predictive of overall job satisfaction (Hypothesis 4).**
5. **No significant relationships were found between overall job satisfaction and the two demographic factors consisting of level of education and years of teaching (Hypothesis 5).**

These findings will be discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

It is widely known that a nursing shortage exists in the health care field today. In fact, this shortage began to occur as early as 1994 (National League for Nursing, 2001). Less well known is the existence of a nurse educator shortage (Boyden, 2000; Brendtro & Hegge, 2000). The American Association of Colleges of Nursing issued a report in 1992 indicating that 36% of baccalaureate nursing programs were experiencing a faculty shortage (American Association of Colleges of Nursing, 1992). Most research has been directed toward investigating the nursing shortage in general rather than the nurse educator shortage in particular. Research of job satisfaction among nurse educators has received recent attention and has been regarded as the most urgent and immediate step in ameliorating the nurse educator shortage (Brendtro & Hegge, 2000; Moody, 1996).

The purpose of this study was to investigate job satisfaction among nurse educators in private colleges and universities in a midwestern state. In addition to investigating overall job satisfaction, satisfaction with three job facets (the work itself, collegiality, and workload) and their effect on overall job satisfaction was assessed. Demographic factors consisting of years of teaching and level of education were also investigated to determine their effect on overall job satisfaction.

Alderfer's E. R. G. (Existence, Relatedness, and Growth) theory of humane needs was the theoretical foundation for the study (Alderfer, 1969, 1972). Two of the three core

needs, relatedness and growth, corresponded to the three job facets assessed in this study (work itself, collegiality, and workload).

This chapter will provide a summary of the data analysis. Conclusions drawn from the study, limitations of the study, and recommendations will be presented.

Summary

This summary of the data analysis has been organized into two sections. These sections correspond to the research methodology and procedures presented in Chapter III and results presented in Chapter IV.

Methodology and Procedures

From the population of 118 full-time nurse educators in private colleges and universities in Wisconsin, 85 nurse educators returned a 20-item questionnaire designed to measure satisfaction with their job overall, three job facets (the work itself, collegiality, and workload), and selected demographic factors (years of teaching and level of education). All of the questionnaires were usable resulting in 72% return rate.

Alpha coefficients were calculated to assess internal consistency of the job facets subscales and the overall job satisfaction scale. The results showed that each scale was above the accepted standard of .70 (Ary, Jacobs, & Razavich, 1996). Factor analysis was implemented to extract factors and determine factor loadings for items on the job facets subscales. The results of the factor analysis of the job facets subscales showed that the majority of the variance was due to only one factor. The anticipated results were that three factors would be extracted to correlate with the three content areas of the job facets subscales consisting of the work itself, collegiality, and workload. In addition, the

magnitude of the factor loadings for the items on the job facets subscales indicated that items measuring collegiality accounted for most of the variance with this one factor. The small population size limited the interpretation of these results.

Analyses of Data

Overall job satisfaction, satisfaction with the work itself, collegiality, and workload were described by descriptive statistics. Correlations were calculated to describe the relationship among three job facets (the work itself, collegiality, and workload), between overall job satisfaction and the three job facets, and between overall job satisfaction and demographic factors (level of education and years of teaching). Multiple regression, followed by stepwise multiple regression, were utilized to determine the contribution of the independent variables of the work itself, collegiality, and workload in explaining their relationship to the dependent variable of overall job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 was stated as follows: Nurse educators will indicate satisfaction with their job overall. On the Likert-type scale, respondents of this study, on average, choose the second highest rating for level of agreement with statements pertaining to overall job satisfaction. Although the average score was not the highest level of agreement, the responses were interpreted to indicate that the respondents were satisfied with their job, thus Hypothesis 1 was supported. Writers in the field have found similar findings. Ratcliffe and Andresky (1988) found that 58% of the nurse educators in their study “enjoyed nursing education in its present state” (p. 12). Brendtro and Hegge (2000)

reported that 79.5% of the nurse educators in their study were satisfied with their employment.

Hypothesis 2

The second hypothesis was stated as follows: Nurse educators will indicate satisfaction with the work itself, collegiality, and workload. On the Likert-type scale, nurse educators of this study, on average, chose the second highest level of satisfaction indicating that they were somewhat satisfied with the work itself and collegiality. Therefore, the results were interpreted to support the components of the hypothesis relating to the work itself and collegiality.

Researchers in the field have consistently found that nurse educators are satisfied with the work itself (Fain, 1987; Marriner & Craigie, 1977; Moody, 1996; Plawecki & Plawecki, 1976). Plawecki and Plawecki (1976) reported that respondents agreed that the work itself and responsibility had greater influence than other factors on both attraction and retention.

Reports in nursing literature revealed a lack of agreement about the status of nurse educators' satisfaction with collegiality. Studies by Fain (1987) and Moody (1996) found nurse educators to be highly satisfied with collegiality. In contrast, Langemo (1988) and Grisby and Megel (1995) found dissatisfaction with collegiality. Langemo (1988) described dissatisfaction with collegiality as faculty conflict. Grisby and Megel (1995) described nurse educators as voicing isolation and as a lack of caring in their report of interviews with nurse educators who were dissatisfied with collegiality. Of the nurses who expressed satisfaction with collegiality, the experience of feeling connected to others

was a common theme. The notion of collegiality seemed to be multifaceted. Thus depending on the focus of the researcher, the findings could have been interpreted to represent satisfaction or dissatisfaction with various aspects of collegiality. The items measuring collegiality for this study did not include items addressing conflict, isolation, and lack of caring but rather, included items measuring faculty support, respect, recognition, and communication. Based on the analyses of the data, it was interpreted that the nurse educators of this study were somewhat satisfied with collegiality.

The third component of Hypothesis 2 pertaining to workload was not supported. Upon inspecting Figures 3 and 4 in Chapter IV, it was evident that about half of the respondents indicated that they were somewhat satisfied with their workload while half indicated that they were somewhat dissatisfied. Scholars in the field have addressed emerging changes in the health care field affecting the workload of nurse educators. These included new practice areas, increase use of technology, and pressure to maintain practice skills (Carty & Rosenfeld, 1998; Conger et al., 1999; Krafft, 1998; Lindeman, 2000). Few reports exist about satisfaction with workload among nurse educators. Most research efforts have been in investigating the relationship between workload and burnout and the relationship between workload and stress (Fong, 1990; Langemo, 1988; Maslach, 1976; Mobiliy, 1991). Both burnout and stress have been correlated to job dissatisfaction (Gmelch et al., 1984; Olsen, 1993).

In an early study conducted by Marriner and Craigie (1977), low satisfaction levels were reported with advising and teaching loads. Ratcliffe and Andresky (1988) reported that 87% of the nurse educators surveyed in their study thought it was difficult to fulfill

requirements such as further education, research, publication, clinical practice, and community service. Yet 58% of their sample reported feeling satisfied with their job overall.

Similar to collegiality, workload also seemed to be multifaceted. This presented a challenge in interpreting the overall status of satisfaction with workload. Items measuring workload for this study did not include advising and teaching but rather, included items pertaining to overall workload requirements, balance of workload and other activities, time to keep current in professional reading, and time to attend professional conferences. Based on the analysis of data, it was interpreted that half of the respondents were somewhat satisfied with their workload while half were somewhat dissatisfied. This finding could be related to vast differences in the calculation of faculty workloads in nursing programs. Reports have indicated there has not been a uniform standard for determining credit hour allotment for clinical and laboratory teaching time (Fong, 1990; Jeglin-Mendez, 1982; Kirkpatrick et al., 1987; Schuster et al., 1997). Thus, it could be that actual workload requirements vary significantly among nurse educators. Future research ought to include an assessment of workload calculations.

Hypothesis 3

The third hypothesis was stated as follows: There are positive relationships among satisfaction levels of the work itself, collegiality, and workload. All of the relationships were statistically significant, positive, and ranged from moderate to large in magnitude according to Cohen's conventions (Cohen, 1977). Thus this hypothesis was interpreted as supported.

This finding was expected in light of the information provided by Spector (1997). In his extensive review of job satisfaction research, he found that people differed in their satisfaction across job facets and these same satisfaction levels modestly related to one another. Nursing research reports did not include information pertaining to relationships among these three job facets. However, scholars in the field have addressed the association of collegiality and growth in the professional role.

Mauksch (1982) described professional growth as evolving from a collegial environment. She explicated that an environment of openness, mutual exchange of thinking and ideas, and reciprocal critiquing of such ideas fostered the development of the teacher in a professional discipline. Norton and Spross (1994) described collegiality as one of the ways to enhance socialization of new faculty. They described new faculty as prepared for their clinical role, but lacking in pedagogical skills. These scholars postulated that collegiality consisting of support for the development of pedagogical skills would promote role development into the teaching profession.

In nursing literature, the description of growth as a job facet was similar to the items measuring the work itself in this study. Therefore, it was not surprising to find collegiality and the work itself sharing the greatest magnitude of variance of the three job facets. Although the magnitude of the relationships between workload and the two job facets, collegiality and the work itself, were not as great as the magnitude of the relationship between collegiality and the work itself, it was thought that respondents of this study who were satisfied with their workloads were also satisfied with the work itself and collegiality.

Hypothesis 4

The fourth hypothesis was stated as follows: There are positive relationships between overall job satisfaction and the satisfaction levels of the work itself, collegiality, and workload. The relationships between overall job satisfaction and each of the three job facets were statistically significant, positive, and large in magnitude. Further analysis with multiple regression followed by stepwise multiple regression, showed that of the three job facets, collegiality had the greatest influence in predicting overall job satisfaction. Thus this hypothesis was interpreted as supported.

These findings were consistent with findings reported by researchers in the field (Donohue, 1986; Fong, 1990; Langemo, 1988; Marriner & Craigie, 1977; Moody, 1996). Donohue (1986) reported work itself and collegiality were among the top three predictors of job satisfaction. Marriner and Craigie (1977) found collegiality ranking seventh of twelve factors in overall importance relating to job satisfaction.

Scholars have reviewed the importance of collegiality in relation to retention (Disch, 2001; Norton & Spross, 1994; Sorcinelli, 1992; Weiler, 1985). Weiler (1985) reported that two-thirds of the faculty in his study cited personal reasons for leaving a job. Included in the personal reasons were relationships with colleagues. Weiler explained, "Those who explained their concerns in their relationships with their colleagues had much more varied reasons for leaving ranging from self-described power struggles in their departments to their colleagues' lack of interest in their research areas" (p. 274). Sorcinelli (1992) reported that faculty turnover occurred most often in the first five years of teaching. It was during this time that faculty often voiced concerns of loneliness

(Olsen, 1993). Improving collegiality has been presented as one way to prevent turnover and retain faculty (Disch, 2001; Norton & Spross, 1994; Sorcinelli, 1992).

Based on the analysis of data of this study, collegiality had the greatest influence in determining overall job satisfaction. Workload and the work itself also contributed to overall job satisfaction, but of a lesser magnitude.

Hypothesis 5

The fifth hypothesis pertained to the relationship of two demographic variables and overall job satisfaction. The fifth hypothesis was stated as follows: There are positive relationships between overall job satisfaction and nurse educators' level of education and years of teaching. The correlations were not statistically significant for either of the two demographic variables. Thus this hypothesis was interpreted as not supported.

Although there was a difference in the education levels of the population (master's degree, 69.4%; doctorate degree, 30.6%), it was more likely than not, that the population was somewhat homogeneous. In light of the current academic pressure to hold a doctorate degree in institutions of higher education, it was likely that many of the master's prepared educators were pursuing doctorate degrees. It was also highly probable that those not pursuing a doctorate degree held desires to do so. In light of the probable homogeneity of the respondents in this study, the data did not allow the reporting of a meaningful relationship between overall job satisfaction and level of education.

Most of the nurse educators in this study had been teaching for 15 years or more (36.5%). This was not surprising because the average age of nurse educators is currently about 49 (American Association of Colleges of Nursing, 1998a). There was not a

statistically significant relationship found between nurse educators' years of teaching and overall job satisfaction. One interpretation of this finding was that nurse educators with less teaching experience had a similar degree of satisfaction as more experienced nurse educators. Thus years of experience would not contribute to overall job satisfaction. A second interpretation of the results was that there were not enough nurse educators with fewer years of experience in this population to allow for a determination of a relationship between overall job satisfaction and years of experience.

Limitations

In this section, limitations of the study were provided.

1. The population for this study was small thus limiting the confidence in the conclusions.
2. The population was comprised of nurse educators from Wisconsin. Wisconsin does not have extreme diverse demographic characteristics that may be more typical of other regions in the country.
3. The characteristics of nurse educators from private colleges and universities may be different than nurse educators from state colleges and universities.
4. The questionnaire consisted of four items for each job facet thus limiting the extent of data collected for each job facet.
5. This study utilized one time data collection. Various factors could have affected the data. An example would be the job demands felt by the educators at the particular time the survey was completed.

Recommendations

The recommendations have been drawn from the analysis of data from this study and the review of related literature and research. This section is divided into recommendations for recruitment and retention and recommendations for future research.

Recommendations for Recruitment and Retention

1. This study and the literature have indicated that collegiality has had a significant influence in predicting overall job satisfaction and thereby, promoting faculty retention. Scholars have explicated that nurse educators are obligated to create collegial environments. Collegial behaviors of nurse educators and administrators could help promote overall job satisfaction and increase retention.

2. This study and the literature have indicated concern with workload and workload satisfaction. Authors have suggested that nurse educators learn better time management skills, develop pedagogical skills, and set realistic goals for their workload. These areas could be fostered in faculty development programs and formal education curricula for future nurse educators.

3. Based on the findings of this study and reports in the literature pertaining to nurse educators' satisfaction with the work itself, recruitment efforts ought to include an emphasis on the intrinsic rewards of the faculty role.

4. Based on the findings of this study and reports in the literature pertaining to the association of collegiality and the work itself and the association of collegiality and overall job satisfaction, administrators may find it beneficial to implement ways to recognize faculty accomplishments, promote cooperative faculty ventures, foster a sense

of connectedness among faculty, and explore ways to create an environment in which educators can share and critique ideas.

Recommendations for Further Research

1. This study might be replicated in other regions of the country.
2. This study might be replicated in state colleges and universities.
3. The questionnaire used in this study could be further developed to include more items for each of the three job facets. This could promote more extensive understanding of satisfaction with the work itself, collegiality, and workload. Workload in particular might be investigated in regard to not only the level of satisfaction, but also pertaining to workload calculations.
4. Researches desiring to use the questionnaire from this study might consider eliminating the neutral category (Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied) as an option on the Likert-type scale. As discovered in this study when analyzing the results of satisfaction with workload, the distribution of the scores was bimodal. Thus interpretations were drawn from the distributions rather than the typical mean. By eliminating the neutral option from the scale, there may be less risk in misinterpreting the data. A review of literature pertaining to scale development could provide more extensive information in the development a questionnaire.
5. A qualitative design could be utilized to contribute to the understanding of job satisfaction research and the problem of job satisfaction among nurse educators.

6. Research pertaining to discovering strategies effective in promoting collegiality among nurse educators could provide useful information for nurse educators and administrators.

Conclusions

There is ample evidence in the literature that a nurse educator shortage is ensuing and will soon contribute to the overall nursing shortage and may even jeopardize the quality and integrity of current nursing programs. Many scholars have offered recommendations to rectify the situation. The first step in solving any problem is to better understand the problem. Thus, this investigation attempted to provide more information about job satisfaction among nurse educators.

A premise of Alderfer's E.R.G. theory is the notion of an interlinking characteristic among existence, relatedness, and growth needs. The findings of this study supported the interlinking of relatedness and growth needs by the correlations found among the three job facets consisting of work itself, collegiality, and workload.

Nurse educators participating in this study hold similar perspectives of nurse educators in other studies reported in the literature. The impact of collegiality has been reviewed in the literature for over a decade and was also confirmed in the findings of this study. It is the hope of this researcher that efforts to increase collegiality will be encouraged and implemented by nurse educators themselves and administrators of nursing education programs. More and more literature pertaining to faculty workloads is emerging. There is substantial reason to believe that the role of the nurse educator is rapidly expanding in light of current changes in health care and technology. Given that

the nurse educators in this study were divided in their perception of satisfaction about their workload and that few research reports exist to clearly understand the concerns of workload, more research is warranted.

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APPENDIX A

Questionnaire

Faculty Job Satisfaction, Part I

Directions: The following are common aspects of a job. For each aspect, indicate how satisfied or dissatisfied you are in your present job. **Please answer all items.**

	Definitely dissatisfied	Somewhat dissatisfied	Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	Somewhat satisfied	Definitely satisfied
	1	2	3	4	5
1. Workload requirements of my job				1	2 3 4 5
2. Balance of my workload and activities outside of my job	1	2	3	4	5
3. Time to keep current in professional reading	1	2	3	4	5
4. Time to attend professional conferences	1	2	3	4	5
5. Sense of accomplishment in my work	1	2	3	4	5
6. Opportunities to use my abilities	1	2	3	4	5
7. Opportunities to do challenging work	1	2	3	4	5
8. Opportunities for growth in professional competency	1	2	3	4	5
9. Opportunities to exchange ideas with colleagues	1	2	3	4	5
10. Support from colleagues	1	2	3	4	5
11. Respect from colleagues	1	2	3	4	5
12. Recognition of my accomplishments from colleagues	1	2	3	4	5

Overall Job Satisfaction, Part II

Directions: Indicate by placing a \checkmark in the box how much you **agree** or **disagree** with each of the following statements about your present job. Please answer all items.

Statement	[5] Strongly agree	[4] Agree	[3] Neither agree nor disagree	[2] Disagree	[1] Strongly disagree
1. I find real enjoyment in my job.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. In general, I like working here.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. I am well satisfied with my job.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Most days I am enthusiastic about my job.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. If I had to do it all over again, I'd choose this job.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Demographic Information, Part III**Directions:** Please circle the appropriate response or fill in the blank.

1. What is your highest degree earned?

Baccalaureate degree [1]

Master's degree [2]

Doctorate degree [3]

2. What is your current rank?

Instructor

Assistant professor

Associate professor

Professor

Other: please specify _____

3. How many years total have you held faculty positions in schools of nursing?

1 or less [1]

2 – 5 years [2]

6 – 9 years [3]

10 – 14 years [4]

15 or more [5]

APPENDIX B

Scale Items

Table B1

Job Facet: Work itself

Item	Statement
5	Sense of accomplishment in my work
6	Opportunities to use my abilities
7	Opportunities to do challenging work
8	Opportunities for growth in professional competency

Table B2

Job Facet: Collegiality

Item	Statement
9	Opportunities to exchange ideas with colleagues
10	Respect from colleagues
11	Support from colleagues
12	Recognition of my accomplishment from my colleagues

Table B3**Job Facet: Workload**

Item	Statement
1	Workload requirements of my job
2	Balance of my workload and activities outside of work
3	Time to keep current in professional reading
4	Time to attend professional conferences

APPENDIX C**Content Expert Evaluation Form**

Please address the following areas in your evaluation:

1. Clarity of directions:

a. Part I

b. Part II

c. Part III

- 2. The items are intended to measure specific aspects of 3 job facets – work itself, collegiality, and pay. In job satisfaction literature, it is recommended that the items within each job facet be homogeneous in nature but also discriminatory to address different components of a given aspect. For instance the aspect of work itself may be measured by responses to 6 items.**

Please comment on any items that you think are irrelevant, redundant, and/or lack clarity.

Items:

- 1.**
- 2.**
- 3.**
- 4.**
- 5.**
- 6.**
- 7.**
- 8.**

9.

10.

11.

12.

13.

Part II Overall Job Satisfaction

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

Any additional comments:

APPENDIX D

Letter to Deans

Date

Address

Dear Dean _____,

I am planning to conduct a study investigating job satisfaction of full-time nurse educators. I am particularly interested in determining the degree of satisfaction with three aspects of the job including pay, collegiality, and the work itself. The results of this study could provide valuable information for the retention and recruitment of nurse faculty as more evidence of a faculty shortage emerges. This study is being conducted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for my doctoral degree from the University of Northern Iowa. I am writing to seek your permission to survey your faculty and to request your assistance in contacting them.

I have purposely chosen to select private colleges and universities in the state of Wisconsin for my population. In order to contact subjects, I need to receive from you a list of names of your full-time faculty. I will, of course, write to each of them to seek their consent to participate in my study. The study proposal has been approved by the University of Northern Iowa's Committee for Protection of Human Subjects. No individual institutions will be identified, nor will individual institutional data be reported. Please feel free to call me at 608-796-3675 or email me at jkuennen@viterbo.edu if you need further information or clarification of this study. If you desire information on the completed study, I will be happy to send you a summary of my findings.

I have enclosed a stamped, self-addressed envelope for your convenience in returning faculty names. A response at your earliest convenience would be greatly appreciated.

Thank you.

Jackie Kuennen

APPENDIX E**Letter to Faculty**

October 19, 2001

Dear Nurse Educator:

A shortage of nurse educators is upon us and will soon be felt by everyone in schools of nursing. I am inviting you to participate in a study investigating job satisfaction among nurse educators. Would you please complete the one-page enclosed questionnaire and return to me in the envelope provided?

I am hoping that the findings will help in retention of current educators and recruitment of new nurse educators. Your responses will be kept confidential and the findings will be reported anonymously. This is being conducted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for my doctoral degree from the University of Northern Iowa.

I have purposely chosen to select private colleges and universities in the state of Wisconsin for my population. The University of Northern Iowa's Committee for Protection of Human Subjects has approved this study. No individual institution will be identified, nor will individual institutional data be reported. Please feel free to call me at 608-796-3675 or email me at jkuennen@viterbo.edu if you need further information about this study or desire a summary of the findings.

I appreciate your prompt response. Thank you!

Sincerely

Jackie Kuennen