

A NATIONAL STUDY OF THE RELATIONSHIP OF  
DEMOGRAPHIC, PSYCHOLOGICAL, AND  
SITUATIONAL VARIABLES TO JOB INVOLVEMENT  
OF STUDENT AFFAIRS PROFESSIONALS  
IN COMMUNITY AND JUNIOR COLLEGES

by

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Dissertation submitted to the Faculty of the  
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University  
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

in

Counseling and Student Personnel

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July 1989

Blacksburg, Virginia

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**(ABSTRACT)**

The purpose of this study was to determine the influence of demographic, psychological, and situational variables on the job involvement, or psychological identification with work, of student affairs professionals in community and junior colleges in the United States. Job involvement is related to the quality of life for individuals and effectiveness for organizations. It is influenced by individual and situational characteristics.

A national sample of 430 was drawn. Data were collected through a mailed questionnaire and analyzed using multiple regression analysis.

Two individual difference variables were significant contributors to job involvement in this sample: work involvement and satisfaction with the amount of respect and recognition received for one's work. Work involvement, the belief that work should satisfy one's needs, was the greatest influence on job involvement. An unexpected

finding was that higher involvement was related to low satisfaction with the amount of respect and recognition received. Student affairs professionals were job involved despite the lack of respect and recognition.

Job skill variety, satisfaction with the opportunity for promotion, and satisfaction with the interesting and enjoyable nature of the work were expected to be significantly related to job involvement. Although non-significant, those variables did merit discussion because of their prominence in the literature of student affairs.

Job involvement in this sample was influenced by the combination of many individual and situational variables. Professionals in student affairs reported a high quality of work life as evidenced by the high involvement score. This high involvement was influenced most by individual variables. They will probably continue to be vital and energetic even in times of rapid external change because, unlike individuals in business and industry, their involvement was not significantly influenced by situational variables.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author wishes to express appreciation to several individuals who assisted in the completion of this dissertation. Special thanks go to Don Creamer, my advisor, who not only teaches but practices challenge and support, the necessary conditions for growth and development. Thanks go to

for his expert advice on data collection, analysis, and interpretation, and to , , and

for advice, direction, and support. Many thanks go to my husband, , for his continuous love and support, and to

, whose friendship has been a welcome constant during a time of change. Thanks also go to for her expert word processing and editing of this manuscript.

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**CHAPTER I**  
**INTRODUCTION**

Job involvement is the degree to which individuals identify psychologically with their jobs (Lawler & Hall, 1970; Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977). This identification with jobs has been explained as an individual difference variable whereby one is predisposed to be job involved based on personal needs and values. An alternate explanation posits that job involvement is influenced by one's reaction to the characteristics of the job itself. Researchers have found relationships between job involvement and individual variables such as needs and situational variables such as job characteristics. Both individual differences and situational characteristics are important in the study of job involvement.

**Rationale for the Study**

Highly involved and energetic professionals will be needed for organizational effectiveness if institutional renewal and change becomes the crucial issue of the 1990s as Brown (cited in Penn & Trow, 1987) predicts. Nowhere is this renewal more important than in two-year colleges where retrenchment, changes in mission, funding, enrollment patterns and curriculum are generating controversy and

frustration. Community and junior colleges are the youngest institutions of higher education and are perhaps the most vulnerable to external changes. Professionals must foster institutional effectiveness while meeting the needs of today's students in an atmosphere of change.

The relationship of job involvement to the quality of life for individuals and to effectiveness for organizations has been explained using each of two approaches. Kanungo (1982) formulated a motivational approach to job involvement "to provide a better understanding of how to improve the quality of life for individual employees on the one hand and organizational effectiveness on the other" (p. 1). He suggests that alienation, the opposite of involvement, is a persistent challenge to administrators and may be the greatest barrier to human resource utilization within organizations. He lists apathy, burnout, depression, attrition, absenteeism, strikes, and sabotage as indicators of job alienation. Alienating attitudes and their consequent behaviors are individual characteristics that affect both the lives of workers and the effectiveness of the organization.

Hackman and Oldham (1982) viewed the relationship between the individual and the organization as being tied to the motivating potential of jobs. They suggest that situational variables account in a large part for worker attitudes, feelings, and behavior and that jobs can be

diagnosed for their potential to motivate individuals. They view ineffective organizations as those that are in conflict with their employees' needs. This conflict results in increased work alienation, emotional withdrawal from the job, lower productivity, and absenteeism. They suggest that changing the work is the key to changing the individuals' attitudes thereby affecting both the quality of life and organizational effectiveness. Their Job Characteristics Theory is a guide for research in understanding the situational conditions that foster high motivation, involvement, performance, and satisfaction in employees.

Studies of job involvement have begun to include simultaneously the characteristics of the individual and the characteristics of the work environment. Sekaran and Mowday (1981) compared the importance of various demographic and situational variables on the job involvement scores of workers in the United States and India. They found that both individual and situational characteristics can be predictors of job involvement but that situational characteristics are the stronger predictors. Consequently, both individual characteristics and work environment characteristics are important in one's job involvement.

In student affairs much of the research on professionals consists of individual characteristics of age, gender, minority representation, marital status, preparation, employment, reasons for entering the field,

professional development, job satisfaction and involvement, mobility, and turnover and attrition. However, concern has been expressed throughout the profession about some of the research findings on student affairs professionals. Arnold (1982), Bender (1980), Burns (1982), Forney, Wallace-Schutzman, and Wiggers (1982), Holmes, Verrier, and Chisholm (1983), Lawing, Moore, and Groseth (1982), Rickard (1982), Stamatakos (1980), and Wood, Winston, and Polkosnik (1985) found high rates of turnover and attrition, especially in young professionals. Forney et al. (1982) found stagnation and "burnout" or a loss of motivation and enthusiasm. Armstrong, Campbell, and Ostroth (1978), Janasiewicz (1983), and Rickard (1982) reported a lack of opportunity for promotion within the profession. Evans and Kuh (1983), Gross (1978), and Harter, Moden, and Wilson (1982) found that there were few women and minorities in positions other than those designated as entry level. Many of these findings are similar to job alienation as described by Kanungo (1982) or outcomes of demotivating jobs as described by Hackman and Oldham (1980).

Such a collection of individual, behavioral, and attitudinal variables, while interesting, do not measure relationships among variables such as involvement, satisfaction, and job characteristics that have been used in other settings to explain how individuals relate to their jobs. Such information has been used in business and

industry for years to revitalize employees through staff development programs or job redesign or both. The intent has been to increase or restore motivation, to facilitate growth, and to increase involvement with the job. The effects of such programs have been increased effort and effectiveness, increased quality and quantity of work, and satisfaction. The quality of the relationship between individuals and their jobs is a major influence on organizational effectiveness and productivity (Hackman & Oldham, 1980).

There is a need to know to what extent student affairs professionals in the community college are involved with their jobs and how this involvement relates to other variables. There is also a need to know how student affairs professionals perceive their work environment and how their perception contributes to involvement or alienation.

### **Statement of the Problem**

Job involvement is a psychological identification with work that affects effort expenditure, performance, absenteeism, turnover, and satisfaction. The motivating potential of a job as measured by job characteristics of skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback affects work effectiveness, satisfaction, growth, and internal motivation. Measures of job

involvement and job characteristics have been used in combination to assess both the individual and the job environment in business and industry when problems of organizational and individual effectiveness have arisen.

The literature on college student affairs professionals suggests there are problems within the profession that might impede effectiveness. Such problems as turnover, attrition, stagnation, and loss of motivation have been documented. Yet, satisfaction generally is reported as high. No explanations could be found for this contradiction.

There is an absence of studies on work motivation in academia. Thompson (cited in Miskel, 1982) concluded after an examination of the literature on motivation in educational organizations that understanding motivation is based upon common sense, not upon the application of theory and knowledge. The lack of knowledge about such complex phenomena as work motivation and employee effectiveness in academia is surprising, particularly during times of retrenchment, financial difficulties, changes in enrollment patterns, mission, and curriculum. It seems interesting that common sense rather than the theory, knowledge, and methodology of organizational behavior may guide decision making in academia. It appears that what has been developed and used in business and industry has not been used in educational settings to explain and understand

behavior and guide administrative decisions leading to more effective organizations.

### **Purpose of the Study**

This study will examine community and junior college student affairs professionals' levels of job and work involvement and their levels of satisfaction with job outcomes. It will also measure the characteristics of jobs in student personnel for their skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback, and will collect demographic information. The purpose of the study is to determine the influence of demographic, psychological, and situational variables on the job involvement of this sample.

### **Research Question**

The following question will guide the research: What is the influence of demographic, psychological, and situational variables on the job involvement of student affairs professionals in community and junior colleges in the United States?

### Significance of the Study

Student personnel professionals perform a variety of duties in the college setting. Their contributions to the students and to the institution are numerous and increasing, yet they are often acknowledged by others as tangential to the academic enterprise. Their influence is felt in every sector of the institution as they interact with and influence students, faculty, parents, administrators, the community, and secondary schools among others. That this group of professionals be committed, involved, and energetic seems imperative if the institution is to be effective.

However, there are problems of burnout, stagnation, withdrawal, and attrition. Few women and minorities rise to positions of authority. Career ladders are short with many individuals remaining at the entry level. Yet, job satisfaction is generally reported as high.

Little is known about the degree of job involvement, individual needs and perceptions of the ability of the environment to meet these needs, and the motivating potential of the work environment in student affairs. This is a potent area for research. An understanding of the individuals' involvement or psychological identification with work and an assessment of the work situation itself could be used in designing strategies for renewal of professionals in academia as it has been used in business

and industry. Both professional development activities and work environment alterations could affect worker motivation and enhance effectiveness. The application of theory to practice in educational settings is more reliable in understanding the complex phenomena of behavior in work organizations than is reliance upon common sense.

### **Limitations**

The sample for this study consisted of 430 participants selected from the national population of practicing student affairs professionals in community and junior colleges. The results may not be generalizable to student affairs practitioners in other postsecondary settings such as four-year institutions. This study had the purpose of studying the demographic variables of gender, age, marital status, job category, type of degree held, salary, racial-ethnic background, years employed on the present job, and years employed in student affairs; the psychological variables of expected job outcomes, job involvement, and job satisfaction; and the situational variables of the job characteristics of skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback from the job itself. Other variables such as self esteem, participation, performance, absenteeism, turnover and attrition, although

considered important in the literature, were not considered in this study.

### Definition of Terms

The following terms are defined for this study:

1. Autonomy - "The degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence, and discretion to the individual in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out" (Hackman & Oldham, 1980, p. 79).
2. Demographic Variables - For the purpose of this study, age, gender, marital status, job category, type of degree held, salary, racial-ethnic background, years employed on present job and years employed in student affairs.
3. Intrinsic Motivation - "The degree to which attaining higher order need satisfaction depends upon performance" (Lawler & Hall, 1970, p. 311).
4. Job Feedback - "The degree to which carrying out the work activities required by the job provides the individual with direct and clear information about the effectiveness of his or her performance" (Hackman & Oldham, 1980, p. 80).
5. Job Involvement - A belief state of psychological identification with one's present job . . . it should

be directly measured in terms of the individual's cognition about his or her identification with one's job (Kanungo, 1979).

6. Job Satisfaction - An affective state that results when either intrinsic or extrinsic needs are satisfied.
7. Psychological Variables - For the purpose of this study, expected job outcomes, job involvement and job satisfaction, cognitive and affective measures respectively.
8. Situational Variables - For the purpose of this study, the job characteristics of autonomy, skill variety, task identity, task significance and feedback and the motivating potential of the job.
9. Skill Variety - "The degree to which a job requires a variety of different activities in carrying out the work, involving the use of a number of different skills and talents of the person" (Hackman & Oldham, 1980, p. 78).
10. Student Affairs Professional - An individual employed in any of the following jobs: counseling and advising, career planning and placement, student activities and recreation, financial aid, enrollment services, special services, or student affairs administration.
11. Task Identity - "The degree to which a job requires completion of a 'whole' and identifiable piece of work,

that is, doing a job from beginning to end with a visible outcome" (Hackman & Oldham, 1980, p. 78).

12. Task Significance - "The degree to which the job has a substantial impact on the lives of other people, whether those people are in the immediate organization or in the world at large" (Hackman & Oldham, 1980, p. 79).
13. Work Involvement - "A generalized cognitive (or belief) state of psychological identification with work, in so far as work is perceived to have the potential to satisfy one's salient needs or expectations" (Kanungo, 1982, p. 116).

### **Overview**

This study provided information on the relationships among demographic, psychological and situational variables of student affairs professionals in community and junior colleges. Chapter I includes the rationale for the study, a statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, the research question, the significance of the study, limitations and definitions of terms. Chapter II contains a review of the literature on job involvement theory, job characteristics theory, and research on college student affairs professionals. Chapter III outlines the methodology including the objectives, method, population, sample,

instruments and reliability of the instruments. It details the data collection and data analysis procedures. Chapter IV includes the results of the data analysis. Chapter V provides conclusions and recommendations.

## CHAPTER II

### LITERATURE REVIEW

Four main topics are addressed in this review of the literature: job involvement theory, job characteristics theory, the profession of college student affairs, and the community college. The theoretical underpinnings are discussed and relevant research is reviewed.

#### Job Involvement Theory

This section of the literature review traced the origins of job involvement in both sociology and psychology, reviewed relevant research in both disciplines, summarized substantive and methodological problems that might have contributed to the ambiguity and confusion about the concepts, presented a reformulated approach to the study of job involvement based on motivation, and concluded with a review of tests of the motivational approach.

#### Sociological Approach

Job involvement in sociology has been studied at the social system level and has used the term alienation rather than involvement. Kanungo (1982) asserts that alienation is the polar opposite of involvement and has been used to diagnose disordered states such as normlessness,

loneliness, self-estrangement, powerlessness, and meaninglessness within groups. The origins of these epiphenomenal concepts are found in the work of sociologists Karl Marx, Max Weber, and Emile Durkheim.

Marx studied average workers and concluded that "worker alienation . . . results when one's labor does not lead to the realization of one's individuality" (cited in Kanungo, 1982, p. 18). If workers were supervised they were automatically alienated whether they realized it or not because they were not free to exercise their individuality in their work. This economic exploitation and alienation of workers was incompatible with their need for self-realization (House, 1981).

Weber studied entrepreneurs and concluded that to be alienated required a realization of the state of alienation. This state could be assessed by measuring beliefs and attitudes. A common belief state is the Protestant work ethic where individuals are trained to be intrinsically motivated toward work and to believe that work is an end in itself (Dickson, 1981). This intrinsic motivation was expressed as industriousness, self-reliance, autonomy, and a desire for success and freedom. The job involved person, therefore, found work to be valuable in and of itself. According to Weber, alienation occurred only when these conditions necessary for intrinsic motivation were not present.

Durkheim, whose work was made more widely known by Merton (1957), identified a condition he termed anomie or normlessness to describe the individual's lack of norms needed to guide behavior in socially approved ways. Blauner (1964) credited the overarching changes in the normative structure resulting from industrialization and urbanization as contributing to this form of alienation.

Several themes have permeated the literature of job involvement or alienation in the sociological literature: the influence of past socialization, the nature of technology, and the conditions of social organizations that lack the necessary conditions for intrinsic need satisfaction. These causes and correlates of alienation have been analyzed and discussed in the literature.

Seeman (1959, 1971) brought these themes together when he determined that alienation had five different forms described in the literature: powerlessness, meaninglessness, normlessness, isolation, and self-estrangement. Each form was caused by different environmental conditions and was identified as a "psychological felt state." Powerlessness was described as a perceived lack of control over the immediate environment, and, in some cases, the macrosocial and political environments as well. This form of alienation according to Rotter (1966) was rooted in early socialization and could be measured as the individual's locus of control. Based on his measurement of the locus of

control, he identified and described two different types of individuals. Internally controlled individuals saw themselves as being in charge of the environment and externally controlled individuals saw themselves as controlled by others. This element of control was also noted by Blauner (1964) who defined involvement as exercising control over the environment, and Shepard (1971) who characterized alienation as the "perceived lack of freedom and control on the job" (pp. 13-14).

Meaninglessness resulted from two different conditions. These were identified as a lack of information that affects decision making or a lack of understanding about organizational goals and the impact of the individual's work upon the attainment of those goals. In either condition the individual was confused about what to believe and what actions to take (Seeman, 1959). Consequently, individuals could judge neither the importance of nor the adequacy of their own behavior.

Normlessness and isolation resulted from anomie, a condition whereby socially approved norms that govern behavior are broken down. In an ineffective normative system, individuals found that personal goals could not be met so they developed their own idiosyncratic set of norms. By operating within a unique set of rules, individuals became isolated from others (Seeman, 1959). Blauner (1964) addressed this as a feeling of lack of membership in the

organization which contributed to social alienation, rootlessness, and loneliness. Festinger (1954) saw normlessness as resulting from a lack of both information and opportunity for individuals to undergo social comparison.

Self-estrangement may be the product of all the other forms of alienation (Blauner, 1964; Faunce, 1968). Blauner (1964) attributed jobs lacking in the conditions necessary for satisfying higher order needs as contributing to self-estrangement. Shepard (1971) saw an extrinsic need orientation for instrumental gains such as money and security as contributing to self-estrangement. Conversely, a person who was not a victim of the other forms of alienation, i.e., who felt some degree of control, found meaning in work, knew and understood the norms, and was socially integrated into the organization, would be unlikely to be self-estranged.

The ideas of Marx, Weber, and Durkheim have permeated theory and research on job involvement and alienation. Their influence can be seen in the work of contemporary sociologists. Faunce's (1968) research included the importance of intrinsic motivation and the Protestant work ethic. Seeman (1965) stressed the importance of intrinsic motivation in job involvement. Blauner (1964) specified job conditions that were necessary for job involvement. He said that individuals must be able to control their environments,

have meaningful tasks to perform, exercise self-expression and be socially integrated.

### Psychological Approach

Psychologists view phenomena at the individual level. Involvement, the polar opposite of alienation as it is discussed in the sociological literature, is studied as some single or composite part of the individual behaviors, feelings, and cognition and correlates with situational variables and effects. Kanungo (1982) described the studies that have been done on job involvement in psychology as exploratory and empirical in nature. In such studies psychologists have attempted to derive a more testable definition of the construct.

### Definition and Dimensions of Job Involvement

Definitions of job involvement in the psychological literature have been a jumble of concepts lumped together and have been conveyed using a variety of terms. Rabinowitz and Hall (1977) in an extensive review of the literature found that terms such as work role involvement, morale, ego-involvement, ego-involved performance, occupational performance, central life interests, intrinsic motivation, and job satisfaction have been used to describe job involvement. They analyzed the concepts and found two common elements: job involvement as a component of self

image and job involvement as a performance-self-esteem contingency. Some psychologists used only one element in their definition while others used both.

Lodahl and Kejner (1965) are credited with an early definition of the concept of job involvement and the development of an instrument to measure it. "Job involvement is the degree to which a person is identified psychologically with his work, or the importance of work in his total self-image" (p. 24). They also defined job involvement "as the degree to which a person's work performance affects his self-esteem" (p. 25). Thus, Lodahl and Kejner (1965) used both elements identified by Rabinowitz and Hall (1977) in conceptualizing job involvement and their instrument reflected this.

Lawler and Hall (1970) used Lodahl and Kejner's definition in formulating their definition of job involvement as "the psychological identification with one's work" or "the degree to which the job situation is central to the person or his identity" (pp. 310-311). They used a divergent process to separate the state of job involvement from two other distinctly different states, namely, motivation and satisfaction. Job involvement by their definition included only the psychological identification with work. On the other hand, intrinsic motivation referred to a state achieved by the individual when intrinsic need satisfaction is dependent upon appropriate work behaviors.

Defined as such intrinsic motivation approximated the performance-self-esteem contingent definition of job involvement. Furthermore, satisfaction was a state that resulted from the attainment of job outcomes or rewards and was not dependent upon performance. Therefore, Lawler and Hall (1970) concluded that job involvement did not include satisfaction or internal motivation, but was a measure of a cognitive state.

Saleh and Hosek (1976) in their review of the literature examined different interpretations of the concept of job involvement and clarified its dimensions through analyses of measurements. They used a convergent process and collapsed existing notions about job involvement into four concepts: work as a central life interest (Dubin, 1956, cited in Saleh & Hosek, 1976; Lawler & Hall, 1970; Lodahl & Kejner, 1965); as active participation (Allport, 1947, cited in Saleh & Hosek, 1976; Bass, 1965; Vroom, 1962); as self-esteem which depends upon job performance (French & Kahn, 1962; Lodahl & Kejner, 1965; Siegel, 1969) and as consistency of performance to self-concept (Vroom, 1964).

Upon examination of these four concepts they found that self or self-concept was the basic explanatory unit of all concepts if Gergen's (cited in Saleh & Hosek, 1976) definition of self as tripartite was utilized. Gergen defined the self as identity self which corresponds to the

central life interest dimension in job involvement; the connative self which corresponds to the dimension of active participation; and the evaluative self or self as judge, specifically found in the work performance dimension. Job involvement was converged into a single unit, the self, made up of three dimensions: thinking, feeling, and acting.

One of the most recent and most clearly defined and operationalized definitions of job involvement was formulated from existing definitions by Kanungo (1979). Kanungo (1979) in his motivational approach to job involvement defined job involvement "as a generalized cognitive (or belief) state of psychological identification with work . . . it should be directly measured in terms of the individual's cognition about his or her identification with work" (p. 131).

Definitions of job involvement have included both unidimensional and multidimensional concepts. They have referred to cognition only or to cognition, affect, and behaviors simultaneously. Therefore, the instruments that purport to measure job involvement may be measuring the concept as either unidimensional or multidimensional. Consequently, both substantive and methodological issues make the research on job involvement difficult to interpret and use.

Most researchers (Harnish, 1983; Kanungo, 1982; Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977) have organized the psychological

literature on job involvement into studies that address either individual difference variables, situational variables, the interaction of the two, or outcomes.

### Individual Differences

Much of the literature on job involvement in the psychological literature has focused on individual differences and has used bivariate correlations. Age, gender, education, marital status, occupation, seniority, locus of control, work values, and need strength have been correlated to job involvement.

Age. The relationship between age and job involvement has varied from significant negative differences (Taylor & Thompson, 1976) to no differences or insignificant differences (Bigoness, 1978; Gurin, Veroff, & Feld, 1960; Lodahl & Kejner, 1965; Mannheim, 1975) to significant positive differences (Cherrington, Condie, & England, 1979; Hall & Mansfield, 1975; McKelvey & Sekaran, 1977; Rabinowitz, Hall, & Goodale, 1977; Reitz & Jewell, 1979; Saal, 1978). Kanungo (1982) explained that the differences in results were probably due to the use of bivariate rather than multivariate analyses, differences in data collection techniques, and differences in populations sampled.

Gender. Men have been found to be more work involved than women in a number of studies (Hollon & Gemmill, 1976; Koch & Steers, 1978; Rabinowitz et al., 1977; Saal, 1978).

However, Rabinowitz (1975) who had initially found higher job involvement in men, found that the differences vanished when he controlled for job level and tenure. Males more than females are socialized for work and careers so the results of early socialization may confound the results of the association between job involvement and gender.

Penn (1987) in a study of women found that job involvement was related to sex role identity and sex role identity was related to job stress. Furthermore, stress was negatively associated with job satisfaction.

Education. Research contained various relationships of education to job involvement. Aldag and Brief (1975), Koch and Steers (1978), and Saal (1978) all found a significant negative relationship. Rabinowitz et al. (1977) and Siegel and Ruh (1973) found no relationship. Gurin et al. (1960) and Mannheim (1975) found a significant positive relationship. Generally, the relationship was considered weak. Kanungo (1982) asserted that there was a lack of rationale for expecting education to relate to job involvement. In the research, however, measurement may be a problem since limited ranges of educational levels were used and confounding variables were not considered.

Marital status. There were mixed results in the relationship of this variable to job involvement. No relationship was found by Lodahl and Kejner (1965) and Saal (1978) between married and nonmarried individuals and job

involvement. Kanungo, Misra, and Dayal (1975) found higher job involvement scores in those workers who were married.

Occupational level. The relationship between occupational levels and job involvement has not been studied to a great extent. Therefore the relationship remains assumptive. Blue collar workers would be assumed to be less job involved because of the presumed lack of opportunity to satisfy intrinsic needs (Kanungo, 1982).

Seniority. The relationship between seniority and job involvement suffered from the failure to distinguish tenure on the job from tenure with the organization, two distinctly different variables. Consequently, results were mixed. Aldag and Brief (1975), Kanungo et al. (1975) and Rabinowitz et al. (1977) found significant positive relationships. Hall and Mansfield (1975) and Saal (1978) found insignificant differences.

Locus of control. Runyon (cited in Harnish, 1983) and Kanungo (1982) maintained and confirmed that there are internals who perceive themselves personally responsible for life experiences and therefore were more likely to be job involved. However, Bigoness (1978) and Rabinowitz et al. (1977) found no significant relationship between locus of control and involvement. Reitz and Jewel (1979) studied job involvement in six countries including the United States and found that in all countries job involvement and an internal locus of control were related for males but not for females.

Work values. The Protestant work ethic (discussed earlier) was found to have a positive relationship to job involvement by Lodahl and Kejner (1965). Rabinowitz (1975), Rabinowitz et al. (1977), and Saal (1978) obtained ambiguous results, reporting a positive relationship but with extremely wide ranges in the magnitude of the scores. Aldag and Brief (1975) found no significant relationship between work values and job involvement.

Need strength. Hackman and Oldham (1976) argued that job involvement should correlate more highly with higher order intrinsic needs such as growth, esteem, and achievement as opposed to lower order extrinsic needs such as security and social needs. The positive correlation between intrinsic need strength and job involvement is prevalent in the literature although the strength of the relationship varies (Kanungo et al., 1975; Medford, 1986; Rabinowitz et al., 1977; Saal, 1978). The role of extrinsic need strength in the research about job involvement is a primary concern of Kanungo (1979, 1981, 1982).

### Situational Variables

Situational variables that have been investigated in conjunction with job involvement are job characteristics, sociocultural factors, and organizational variables.

Job characteristics and outcomes. Herzberg (1966) dichotomized job characteristics into job content and job

context factors. He hypothesized that greater job involvement would result if changes were made in job content factors which would facilitate the satisfaction of workers' intrinsic needs. These job content factors were the nature of the work, the individual's sense of achievement, the level of responsibility, personal development, and advancement. Job context factors included the working conditions, policies, management and supervision practices, and benefits. Hackman and Oldham (1976) hypothesized the same positive relationship between high intrinsic need satisfaction and highly motivating work. Patchen (1970) found that where there was opportunity for exercising control over methods, of gaining feedback concerning performance, a chance to learn new things, and a degree of job difficulty there was also general job interest, a surrogate for job involvement.

Job difficulty (Patchen, 1970) or job challenge (Buchanan, 1974) was found to be correlated to job involvement. Even though Hackman and Oldham (1976) defined a motivating job as one that has meaning, complexity, and challenge, they failed to include a measure of challenge in their instruments. Sekaran and Mowday (1981) examined both individual differences and job characteristics, including job challenge, to predict job involvement. They used the skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and job feedback scales of Hackman and Oldham (1976) and a

three-item scale for measuring job challenge developed by Buchanan (1974). By adding job challenge .17 and .05 increases in  $R^2$  (for United States and Indian samples respectively) were added (p. 60). Medford (1986) found job challenge to correlate to job involvement and satisfaction. In this study about 14% of the variance in job involvement and 43% of the variance in job satisfaction was explained by job challenge. Furthermore, the relationships increased as growth need strength and hierarchic position increased.

Tannenbaum (1966) believed that holding higher level jobs provided more opportunities for satisfying higher level needs. However, Lodahl and Kejner (1965) and Rabinowitz (1975) found no significant relationship between job level and the degree of involvement, but Mannheim (1975) found a positive relationship. Furthermore, Medford (1986) found a positive relationship between hierarchic position, job challenge, and job involvement. Likewise, Penn (1987) in her study of women found a positive correlation between job involvement and rank in the organization.

Griffin (1981) studied performance as an outcome variable in a longitudinal task design research project. He found no significant relationships between task characteristics and performance at a single point in time nor across time. The definition of performance, its measurement, and the effects of moderator variables have confounded the results.

Sociocultural factors. Due to differences in the socialization process inherent in cultural differences, social class differences, religion, community size, and gender, individuals may be predisposed to varying values and attitudes about work. Studies of the influence of these factors on job involvement are ambiguous. Saal (1978) found no relationship between community size and job involvement while Ruh, White, and Wood (1975) found a positive relationship. Although the Protestant work ethic receives a heavy emphasis in the literature because of its positive relationship to job involvement, religion as a variable has not been studied. Furthermore, ethnic studies are not reported in the literature. Kanungo (1982) finds this an interesting omission considering the diversity of ethnic and cultural backgrounds present in Western society.

Organizational variables. Saleh and Hosek (1976) and Ruh et al. (1975) found that a participatory management style had a positive relationship to job involvement. Siegel and Ruh (1973) found that the correlation between participation in decision making and job involvement was greater for individuals with more education and for those with more urban backgrounds (p. 318).

Kanungo (1982) reported no studies that deal with the relationship of organization size, structure, or method of control to job involvement. Rabinowitz and Hall (1977) reviewed studies on supervision as a predictor of job

involvement and concluded that supervision is much too complex to use as a predictor variable at this time.

Brown (1969) linked organizational involvement to satisfying social relationships. Moch (1980) studied social factors and job characteristics to determine the degree to which employees are internally motivated and job involved, two distinct phenomena. He concluded that those who are not involved in social relationships on the job may turn to internal motivation or job involvement for sources of identity and esteem. This relationship would be moderated by the individual's growth needs. Internal motivations which were usually considered a result of job characteristics might be the result of social isolation. Lodahl and Kejner (1965) had hypothesized the opposite relationship. Job involvement and social closeness, they thought, went hand in hand.

### Effects of Job Involvement

Satisfaction. Satisfaction can be viewed as both a cause and an effect of job involvement. If salient needs are satisfied involvement may increase. Conversely, the frustration of need satisfaction may produce alienation. The positive relationship between intrinsic need satisfaction and job involvement has been well documented in the literature (Aldag & Brief, 1975; Bigoness, 1978; Hollon & Chesser, 1976; Lodahl & Kejner, 1965; Saal, 1978).

Gannon and Hendrickson (1973) reported a positive relationship between job involvement and the extrinsic needs of interpersonal relations and supervision but not pay or promotion. Gorn and Kanungo (1980) found that job involvement was positively related to salient need satisfaction regardless of whether the salient needs were intrinsic or extrinsic. Plunkett (1985) predicted job satisfaction from job involvement, work values, achievement, and size of the organization.

Saal (1981) tested Kanungo's (1979, 1982) assertion that the level of salient need satisfaction is related to job involvement and found support for this. Furthermore, he found lower job involvement scores in jobs that were less demanding but higher job involvement scores in jobs that were extremely demanding.

Turnover and absenteeism. Farris (1971) and Siegel and Ruh (1973) found that job involvement was significantly negatively related to turnover. However, the amount of the variance explained in turnover by job involvement was low accounting for about 3% of the explained variance. Moreover, Blau and Boal (1987) found that the interaction of job involvement and organizational commitment could best explain both turnover and absenteeism.

The study of absenteeism has been difficult because the definition of voluntary versus involuntary absenteeism has not been established. The results of the studies are mixed.

Hackman and Lawler (1971), Patchen (1965), and Saal (1978) reported a negative relationship between job involvement and absenteeism. In other words, the lower the job involvement the more frequent the absences.

Two longitudinal studies have examined absenteeism and job involvement over time. Hammer, Landau, and Stern (1981) tested the hypothesis that job involvement would contribute negatively to voluntary absenteeism. It was found not to contribute significantly to the variance in the frequency of voluntary absence. Breugh (1981) found that job involvement was a better predictor of absenteeism than two other variables studied, satisfaction with work and supervision. However, the best predictor of absenteeism was prior absenteeism. Cheloha and Farr (1980) found that although both job involvement and job satisfaction were negatively related to absenteeism, job involvement was the better predictor.

In job design studies job content variables such as responsibility, independence, and achievement have been studied relative to voluntary absenteeism. Generally, voluntary absenteeism is lower in involving, interesting, and enriched jobs (Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Hackman & Oldham, 1976).

Job performance. Job performance is a complex construct that is difficult to define, has levels that differ by organization, and is moderated by individual

abilities and training (Lawler, 1973). Vroom (1962) found a weak relationship between job involvement and performance. The strength of the relationship was increased if workers had the requisite skills and a high valuation of their jobs. Lodahl and Kejner (1965), Saal (1978), and Siegel and Ruh (1973) found no relationship between job involvement and performance.

Effort expenditure. Job involvement suggests that individuals spend more time and energy both on and off the job in job related activities. Kanungo (1982) reported that studies on the quantity and quality of effort and its relationship to job involvement have had mixed and inconclusive results.

### Moderators

Such mixed results across so many studies of job involvement may be explained not only by substantive and methodological issues, but by the presence of moderator variables as well. Rabinowitz and Hall (1981) studied individuals in early, middle, and late career stages and found that the relationship of job involvement and individual, situational, and outcome variables was moderated by career stage. For those individuals in the early career stage (ages 21-35), job characteristics or situational variables such as job challenge, task identity, and autonomy correlated more highly to job involvement. For those in the

middle career stage (ages 36-50), individual differences such as ability were important and situational differences such as job characteristics declined in importance. By the late career stage (ages 51 and above), rewards and membership in the organization were of greater importance. Rewards, however, were important for all groups. Rabinowitz and Hall (1981) concluded that current theories and practices of job motivation are most likely to describe and explain the early career stage.

#### Sources of Confusion

Kanungo (1981, 1982) critically examined the literature on job involvement and found that both substance and methodology were problematic. He determined that some of the confusion stemmed from the lack of a clear definition of the construct of job involvement. Like Lawler and Hall (1970) he separated job involvement from the construct of internal motivation. He further separated the salient intrinsic need satisfaction from salient extrinsic need satisfaction and found that either could be a condition of job involvement.

He specified that work involvement was an historically caused normative belief state whereas job involvement was a contemporaneous and descriptive belief state.

He treated job involvement as strictly a cognitive belief state and distinguished it from the affective state

of satisfaction. In previous research the concepts had been defined and measured simultaneously. Furthermore, he asserted that the causes and the effects of job involvement had been confused so he separated these. Causes, he argued, were historical in nature and created a predisposing condition for job involvement or alienation. Such historical causation was supported by the work of Lodahl and Kejner (1965) who saw past socialization as influencing present worker beliefs, feelings, and behaviors and by Kohn (1977) who argued "that there is a consistent and meaningful relationship between people's social class positions and their values and orientation; that the class-values relationship has important implications for behavior; and that the class-values relationship, in turn, can be interpreted as resulting from systematic differences in conditions of life, occupational life in particular, associated with social-class position" (p. xxv). Kohn and Schooler (1969) found that the values attached to intrinsic and extrinsic job outcomes can be traced to social class differences, which predispose individuals to specific beliefs about work.

Kanungo (1981, 1982) criticized the parallel studies of job involvement at the individual level in psychology and at the social systems level in sociology with no integration or utilization of the two approaches.

But, in social psychology the study of social structure and personality has had a long history in the literature. House (1981) argued that early sociological thinking was interdisciplinary and only became bifurcated when interpreters of Comte, Marx, Weber, and Durkheim stressed the differences between sociology and psychology.

House (1981), citing from Allport's 1968 history of social psychology, credited Comte as the originator of the interdisciplinary study of social structure and personality. He maintained that Comte regarded the individual as both a cause and a consequence of his environment. As the environment influenced and changed the individual, the individual influenced and changed the environment. Marx questioned both the nature and the outcomes of the match between the social structure and the individual and how values, beliefs, and motives were affected by socioeconomic positions. Weber was also concerned with values, beliefs, and motives and socioeconomic position but argued that individuals through their attitudes could make monumental changes in the social system. He cited as an example the belief in the Protestant work ethic which was derived from Calvinist theology as a major thrust in the rise of capitalism. Once in place, structures and positions affected attitudes, values, motives, and beliefs. Durkheim also indicated that social structure phenomena and personality differences are related. Social structure

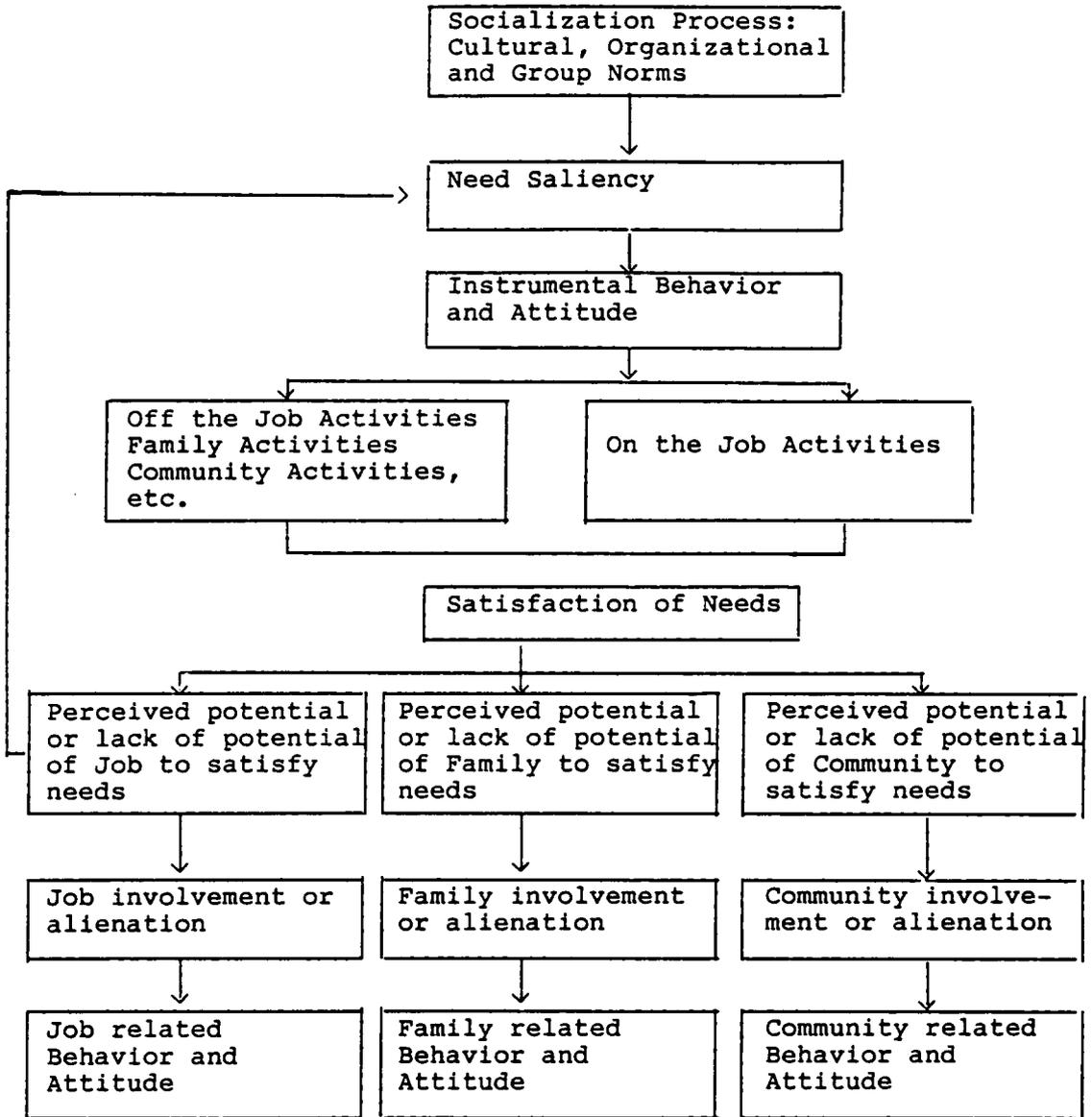
shaped values and values affected behaviors which maintained the order of the social structure. In social psychology, the social structure and personality scientists have maintained an integrated and interdisciplinary approach to the study of the social system and the individual.

According to Kanungo (1979, 1982), the measurement of the concepts has been difficult since there has been confusion about the definitions and dimensions of job involvement and the concepts of job satisfaction, work involvement, internal motivation, and job outcomes. He (1981, 1982) sought to alleviate a number of these substantive and methodological problems by formulating a less confusing approach to job involvement based on motivation.

#### The Motivational Approach to Job Involvement

Kanungo's (1981, 1982) reformulated approach to job involvement is presented in Figure 1. He chose to use motivational language because it had been used to explain other behaviors and he considered work behaviors no exception. Furthermore, motivational constructs were already present in many explanations of work involvement and alienation phenomena found in both sociology and psychology.

Kanungo (1982) viewed alienation and involvement as opposite ends of the same construct, one that described the



(Kanungo, 1982, p. 83)

Figure 1 - The Motivational Approach to Involvement and Alienation

psychological belief state of individuals. As such the construct is bipolar and unidimensional (p. 76).

Because individual worker's beliefs were being assessed, measurement was done at the individual level rather than the collective level, a method of analysis practiced by sociologists such as Blauner (1964), Kohn (1977), and Shepard (1971).

The cognitive belief state is distinguished from both affective states and behaviors in the motivational approach. Job satisfaction is clearly an affective state that includes both extrinsic and intrinsic need satisfaction. The notion of equating and confusing job involvement with only intrinsic need satisfaction is rooted in Marxian concepts. Job involvement in the motivational approach is also separated from behaviors such as participation and working overtime which are frequently equated with job involvement.

The motivational approach considers both the antecedent and consequent conditions of job involvement. The historical causes of job alienation are factors found in the early socialization of individuals. The contemporary causes of job alienation are the conditions of the immediate environment of the individual. The effects of job involvement may be affective, cognitive, or behavioral.

Internal motivation and job involvement are treated as two distinctly different phenomena. In fact, one may cause the other. Like Lawler and Hall (1970), Kanungo (1982)

treated intrinsic motivation "as the degree to which attaining higher order need satisfaction depends upon performance" (p. 311).

Both the subject and the object of involvement and alienation are considered in this approach. The individual worker is the subject. The job, the profession, the occupation, the organization, or the work itself can be used as the object. Subject and object are not used interchangeably in the motivational approach as they are elsewhere in the literature. Each remains distinct. Other roles relative to family, community, and leisure are considered in the motivational approach but will not be addressed in this research project.

Of the various objects of involvement and alienation, two that are often confused are job and work. Kanungo (1982) draws the distinction between the two in his definitions:

. . . job as an object of alienation refers to the present job that a worker holds in a specific organization as described by the worker's job title . . . work as an object of alienation refers to a much broader and more abstract concept. Alienation from work implies that the work role in general is considered of little importance to the individual when compared with

other roles in his or her life, such as in family, community, and leisure contexts. (p. 79)

Kanungo's (1982) definitions of work involvement and job involvement reflect these important distinctions:

Work involvement is a generalized cognitive (or belief) state of psychological identification with work, in so far as work is perceived to have the potential to satisfy one's salient needs or expectations. (p. 116)

Finally, the motivational framework was developed to provide an integrated, unified and parsimonious approach to job involvement. Table 1 represents the integration of the sociological approach into the motivational approach.

In summary, the following assumptions capture the essence of the motivational approach:

An individual's behavior and attitudes exhibited both on and off the job are a function of the saliency of the need states within that individual. The need saliency within the individual depends on the prior socialization process (historical causation) and on the perceived potential of the environment (job, family, etc.) to satisfy the needs (contemporary causation). An individual's belief that he or she is work involved or job alienated depends on whether the work is perceived to have the

Table 1

**Integration of Sociological Approaches**

	Sociological Approach	Motivational Approach
Types of Work Alienation	Environmental Conditions Responsible for Alienation	Personal Need Saliency of Worker
Isolation	Lack of social integration of worker	Affiliative-need saliency
Normlessness	Breakdown of social norms	Self-evaluation (social comparison)-need saliency
Meaninglessness	Work simplification	Ego-need saliency
Powerlessness	Mechanization	Ego-need saliency
Self-estrangement	Lack of utilization of abilities or potentialities	Self-actualization- or achievement-need saliency
		Perceived Work-Job Potential to Satisfy Salient Need
		Lack of a sense of membership
		Lack of information (norms) to guide behavior
		Lack of sense of responsibility
		Lack of freedom (autonomy) and control (responsibility)
		Lack of opportunity to utilize one's potentialities and lack of a sense of achievement

potential for satisfying his or her salient needs" (Kanungo, 1979, p. 132).

#### Tests of the Motivational Approach

Kanungo (1982) used data from a previous study of managers (Gorn & Kanungo, 1980) and Lodahl and Kejner's (1965) instruments to test two hypotheses. First, he hypothesized "that extrinsically oriented individuals will show as much job involvement as intrinsically oriented individuals, provided the former group of individuals experience the same level of need satisfaction in their jobs as the latter group" (p. 120). Second, he hypothesized that "the level of satisfaction of salient needs would be highly correlated with the degree of actual job involvement" (p. 120).

He found that extrinsically oriented managers scored higher on both the satisfaction and involvement scales than did the intrinsically oriented managers and that "when the level of satisfaction was controlled, equal levels of satisfaction or dissatisfaction produced equal levels of job involvement in the intrinsic and extrinsic groups" (p. 131). Thus, Kanungo (1982) found support for both of the hypotheses.

Kanungo (1982) designed a study that would test the validity of his new scales of job and work involvement and

determine the predictive utility of his reformulated approach. He developed the following five hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: Measures of job involvement compared with measures of work involvement should be more strongly associated with measures of job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2: Measures of job involvement will be more strongly associated with the satisfaction of salient (most important) rather than nonsalient (least important) needs on the job. This pattern is not expected in the case of work-involvement measures.

Hypothesis 3: Individuals with salient extrinsic needs are as likely to be involved in their jobs as individuals with salient intrinsic needs, provided they experience equal levels of satisfaction with present job outcomes.

Hypothesis 4: The measure of job and work involvement will have different patterns of relationship to demographic variables, such as income, age, and seniority.

Hypothesis 5: Individuals with higher income will show higher job satisfaction and consequently higher job involvement. No such relationship is expected for work involvement (pp. 133-134).

All five hypotheses were supported. Kanungo (1982) found support for Hypothesis 1. There was a stronger relationship between job involvement and job satisfaction than between work involvement and job satisfaction. Hypothesis 2 was supported since there was a strong

relationship between salient need satisfaction and job involvement but not salient need satisfaction and work involvement. Hypothesis 3 was supported as well. Intrinsic and extrinsic respondents did not differ in their degree of job involvement if the degree of satisfaction was equal. The demographic variables of age, seniority and income were found to correlate with job involvement. Interestingly both Kanungo (1982) and Saal (1981) found that neither gender nor education correlate to job involvement when it is defined as a purely cognitive state as it is in the motivational approach. None of the demographic variables correlated to work involvement. Thus, Hypothesis 4 was supported. The relationship of income to both job satisfaction and job involvement was confirmed and Hypothesis 5 was supported. Those who have higher incomes are more satisfied. The high satisfaction score results in increased job involvement.

Kanungo (1982) designed a third study to distinguish job involvement from intrinsic motivation, two concepts that are often confused in the literature but are considered distinct in the motivational approach. The strategy adopted was to explore the relationship of each variable to a criterion variable, positive mental health. Kornhauser (cited in Kanungo, 1982) defined mental health as including the six dimensions of "manifest anxiety and emotional tension, feeling of self-esteem, feeling of hostility toward other people, sociability and friendship, overall

satisfaction with life, and personal morale" (p. 142). Kanungo (1982) asserts that the positive poles of these dimensions parallel characteristics that define the intrinsically oriented individual. He considered the constructs so similar that he expected and confirmed a high positive correlation between mental health and intrinsic motivation. He expected and confirmed a negative relationship between mental health and job involvement. He concluded that in Western society excessive identification with one's job may be associated with poor mental health because job related problems are experienced very intensely. Internal motivation is a cultural norm and those who strive toward this goal are considered mentally healthy and those who do not may experience stress as a result of the difference in what is normally expected (intrinsic rewards) and what they may want for themselves (extrinsic rewards).

Saal (1981) tested Kanungo's (1979) assertion that job involvement is a cognitive belief state, and that it can be distinguished from its antecedent condition and consequences. Furthermore, he examined the additive effects of individual and situational variables on job involvement. His aim was to compare the constructs in the extant literature to those defined by Kanungo (1979, 1981, 1982). He reanalyzed the existing data and in doing so assessed the state of the job involvement literature to determine if it needed to be reinterpreted.

When job involvement was operationalized in purely cognitive terms . . . , the relationships between involvement and various individual and situational variables persisted. Only the magnitude of those associations was systematically altered, suggesting that the purely cognitive measure of job involvement . . . was less predictable . . . than a measure of involvement reflecting cognitive, affective and behaviorally oriented components . . ." (Saal, 1981, pp. 116-117)

Saal (1981) found that the affective and behavioral components of job involvement scores contributed very little to the prediction equation. Furthermore, when a measure of higher order needs and a measure of an individual's perception of the ability of the environment to meet those needs were used in the prediction equation, they contributed more to the predictability of a purely cognitive measure of job involvement than to a measure that included cognition, affect, and behavior. In other words, it is the cognitive component that is most readily predicted. Saal (1981) concluded that Kanungo's (1979) definition of job involvement could be used without invalidating present research on involvement and alienation.

In addition to these findings Saal (1981) also reported that job involvement is a function of both individual and

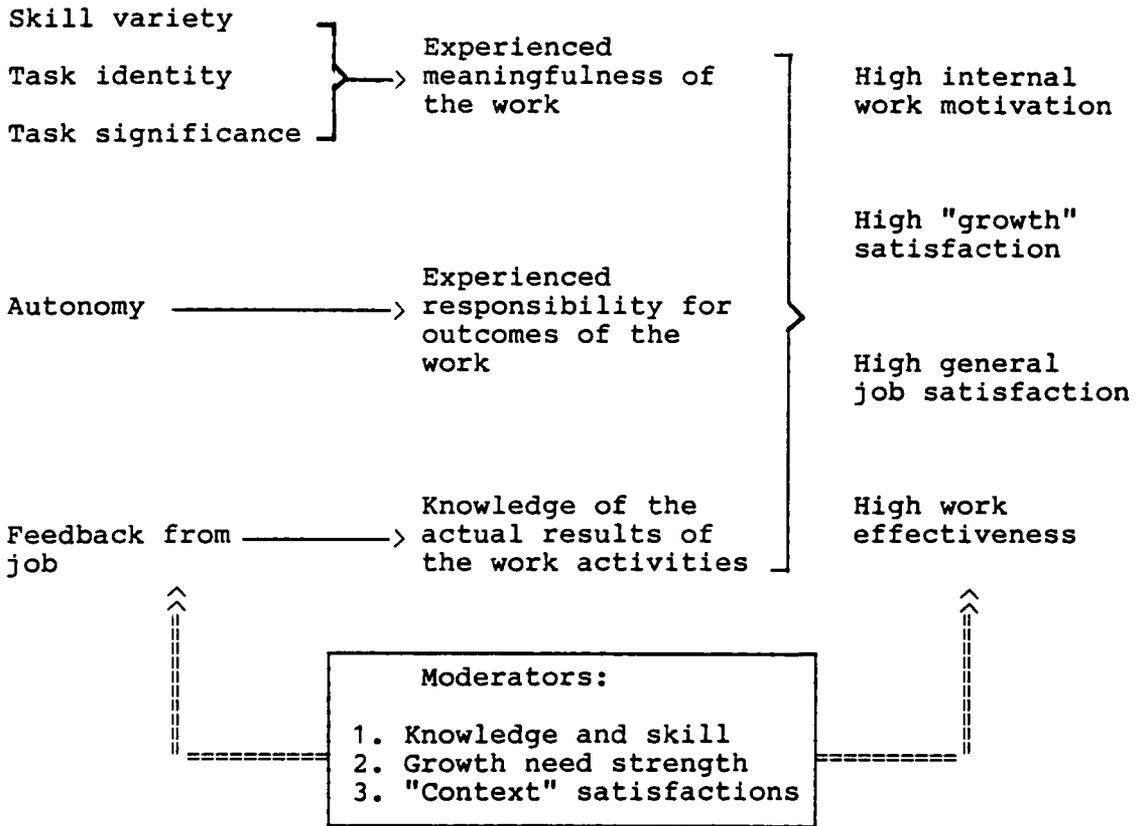
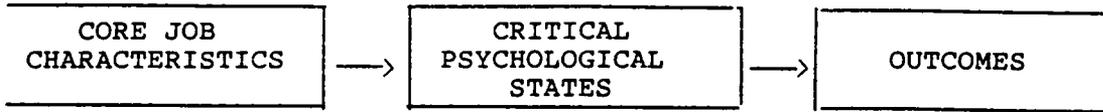
situational variables and that each category explains "some nonredundant, unique portions of total job involvement variance" (p. 118).

### **Job Characteristics Theory**

Job Characteristics Theory is presented in Figure 2. Hackman and Lawler (1971) and Hackman and Oldham (1976, 1980) merged individual differences and systems theory into a behavioral approach to the person-job relationship. Their theory postulates that work productivity is greatest when jobs are challenging, complex, and meaningful. Three "critical psychological states" must be felt by the individual if the work outcomes of satisfaction, motivation, and effectiveness are to result. These three states are the "experienced meaningfulness of the work," "the experienced responsibility for the outcomes of the work," and "the knowledge of the results of the work" (Hackman & Oldham, 1980, p. 90). The descriptions of these states were derived from the concepts of alienation in sociology.

#### **Experienced Meaningfulness of the Work**

The "experienced meaningfulness of the work" is defined as something that "counts" in one's system of values (Hackman & Oldham, 1980, p. 73). This state encompasses the meaninglessness dimension of alienation described by



(Hackman & Oldham, 1980, p. 90)

Figure 2 - The Complete Job Characteristics Model

Seeman (1959) and discussed previously. The individual's perception of meaninglessness can be measured using the scales of skill variety, task identity, and task significance of the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) (Hackman & Oldham, 1975).

Skill variety is "the degree to which a job requires a variety of different activities in carrying out the work, involving the use of a number of different skills and talents of the person" (Hackman & Oldham, 1980, p. 78).

Task identity is "the degree to which a job requires completion of a "whole" and identifiable piece of work, that is, doing a job from beginning to end with a visible outcome" (p. 78).

Task significance is "the degree to which the job has a substantial impact on the lives of other people, whether those people are in the immediate organization or in the world at large" (p. 79).

#### Experienced Responsibility for Outcomes of the Work

The "experienced responsibility for the outcomes of the work" is defined as a condition whereby individuals believe they are personally accountable for work outcomes" (Hackman & Oldham, 1980, p. 72). Work is the result of one's efforts and not the results of rules and procedures that may be prescribed by supervisors or handbooks. The autonomy scale of the JDS measures this state which approximates the

powerlessness dimension of alienation identified by Seeman (1959).

Autonomy is "the degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence, and discretion to the individual in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out" (p. 79).

#### Knowledge of the Results of Work

The "knowledge of the actual results of the work activities" is defined as how well the individual performs. This rating is the basis for one's affect (i.e., feeling good or feeling bad) about one's performance (Hackman & Oldham, 1980, p. 72). Harnish (1983) found no parallel between this state and Seeman's (1959) dimensions of alienation. However, Festinger (1954) saw the normlessness dimension of alienation as resulting from a lack of information which prevented the comparison of oneself with others. In this sense the felt state of knowledge of work results measured by the job feedback scale could be a parallel to the normlessness dimension of alienation as defined by Seeman (1959). The state of knowledge of the actual results of the work activities is measured by the feedback from the job itself scale of the JDS.

Job feedback is "the degree to which carrying out the work activities required by the job provides the individual

with direct and clear information about the effectiveness of his or her performance" (p. 80).

Neither isolation nor self-estrangement, the two other dimensions of alienation described by Seeman (1959) are directly paralleled in the core job characteristics. Isolation occurs when personal goals differ from normative organizational goals (Seeman, 1959). Blauner (1964) describes these individuals as lacking integration into the organization which results in rootlessness and loneliness. Seeman (1959) defined self-estrangement as the result of external rather than internal work motivation. A measure of desired external and internal rewards or job outcomes is measured by Kanungo's (1982) instrument. The motivation for money, security, and social relationships caused work to be instrumental, not an end in itself (Shepard, 1971). Both Blauner (1964) and Faunce (1968) considered self-estrangement a consequence or outcome of the presence of the other forms of alienation.

#### The Motivating Potential of a Job

Skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and job feedback are the core job characteristics that Hackman and Oldham (1976, 1980) determined were necessary for the three critical psychological states to emerge in the individual. These three states were necessary for an individual to experience a job as internally

motivating. The motivating potential score (MPS) for a job can be calculated from the following formula (Hackman & Oldham, 1980, p. 81):

$$\text{MPS} = \frac{\text{Skill Variety} + \text{Task Identity} + \text{Task Significance}}{3} \times \text{Autonomy} \times \text{Job Feedback}$$

### Moderators

Hackman and Oldham (1980) included three moderators of the motivating potential of a job: knowledge and skill, growth need strength, and context satisfactions.

#### Knowledge and Skill

If jobs require more knowledge and skill than the worker possesses, certain outcomes are predictable. The motivation and productivity may decrease and the worker is likely to withdraw either psychologically or physically rather than to face the pain of failure. Withdrawal behaviors have negative impacts on both the individual and the organization.

#### Growth Need Strength

Blood and Hulin (1967), Kohn (1977) and Turner and Lawrence (1965) believed that early socialization created a desire in some workers for jobs that are neither challenging nor complex. Hackman and Lawler (1971) and Hackman and Oldham (1976) do not support this sociological view. They

explain differences in individual workers as differences in psychological needs. Individuals with low growth needs do not value nor even recognize opportunities for self direction that a job high on motivating potential can provide. They may feel overly pressured by a job that has independence.

### Satisfaction with Work Contexts

The third moderator on the MPS score is satisfaction with elements within the work context. Oldham, Hackman, and Pearce (1976) found that the higher the MPS the higher the job satisfaction and job performance scores. But, individuals with a low MPS, which is indicative of a simple and routine job, may be dissatisfied but, nonetheless, perform well. Their explanation was that the job might fit the worker's personal needs which were probably not growth needs and required very little energy. This energy the individual could use in dealing with the unsatisfactory work situation and continue satisfactory performance.

### Desire for an Enriched Job

Variables other than those proposed by Hackman and Oldham (1980) may account for the differences in how individuals react to enriched jobs. This phenomena was investigated by Cherrington and England (cited in Hackman & Oldham, 1980) who sought to determine which individuals

reacted favorably to enriched jobs. They used three variables that had been previously examined in the literature for their moderating effects upon the enrichment-satisfaction relationship: growth need strength, work values, and rural-urban influences. They found that an individual's desire for an enriched job was a better moderator of the relationship between enrichment and satisfaction than was work values or rural-urban influences.

#### Outcomes of a Highly Motivating Job

High internal motivation was identified in the job characteristics model as an outcome of a job that was perceived high on skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback, the composite of which is the MPS. However, high internal motivation is not the only outcome of a job with a high MPS. High growth satisfaction, high general satisfaction, and high work effectiveness may also result. All outcomes may be moderated by differences in knowledge and skill, satisfaction with supervision, pay, coworkers and security and growth need strength (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). Consequently, all workers do not respond in the same way to enriched jobs.

## College Student Personnel

### The Profession and the Professional

The student personnel movement in America evolved as higher education was transplanted from its European roots into a democratic society. What began as clerical help for the college president and regulators of student behavior has grown into extremely specialized and diverse areas designed to deal with student problems (Brubacher & Rudy, 1976). The American College Personnel Association (ACPA) lists in its 1988 ACPA Placement Center Employer Registration Form 28 positions within the profession of college student personnel. These positions are academic advising, admission/enrollment, adult learner services, advising athletes, career services/placement, commuter student services, counseling center, disabled student services, financial aid, Greek life, health/wellness, international students, judicial programs, learning assistance, minority affairs, registrar, recreation/intramurals, religious programs, research/evaluation, residence life, student activities, student affairs administration, student health, student orientation, student publications, student union, teaching faculty, veteran's affairs, and other (p. 11). Sandeen (1988) reported child care programs, campus security, and transportation, as well as revenue producing activities as additions to student services.

Not only are there numerous positions within the profession of college student personnel, but the profession itself has numerous names. Among these are, in addition to college student affairs, student personnel, student services, and student development. Student development is the most recently used term and attempts to more adequately encompass the breadth and depth of the goals of the college student personnel profession. Miller and Prince (1976) provide today's definition of student development as "the application of human development concepts in postsecondary settings so that everyone involved can master increasingly complex developmental tasks, achieve self-direction, and become interdependent" (p. 3).

The movement gained impetus after World War II with advancements in testing, counseling, and the behavioral sciences. At the same time, institutions of higher education grew in size and complexity and the student body became increasingly heterogeneous.

As a profession, student personnel has gained national stature and influence. In the 20th century, student personnel has had as its aim to educate the "whole student," a goal that it shares with higher education in general. It seeks to maintain a balance between the intellectual demands of college life and the social, emotional, physical, and vocational needs of students (Brubacher & Rudy, 1976).

Consequently, the profession has a diversity of specialized positions to fulfill this aim.

Various writers have attempted to capture the uniqueness of the profession. Fenske (1980a) says that the profession of student personnel evolved by default as individuals took over necessary but unpleasant duties abandoned by faculty and administrators. He characterizes the profession today as "an invisible empire" that is indispensable but peripheral (p. 3). Brown (1987) maintains that individuals choose a career in student affairs not through planning but by accident (p. 5).

As serendipitous as the development of the profession seems, there are constants. Fenske (1980b) finds that the profession as a whole remains loyal to its goal, that of holistic education. Stamatakos (1980) echoes the prevalence and endurance of the philosophical beliefs and finds the profession both exciting and promising but not without obstacles. The obstacles he finds are the "deep-rooted work habits, routines, beliefs, attitudes and perceptions of practitioners, traditionally trained and part-time faculty in our professional preparation programs, uncommitted leaders in our professional societies, and the nature and intent of our literature" (p. 287).

Besides those obstacles many professionals have expressed persistent concern for the high rates of attrition of young professionals, "burnout," differences in the

training of professionals, and short career ladders. Each of these concerns will be addressed in the research of college student personnel professionals.

### Individual Characteristics

Age. Gross (1978) studied the relationship of age to both gender and position. He categorized age as under 30, 30 to 50, and 50 and over and found a relationship between age and both position and gender. Most directors of placement, recently hired heads of departments, and student affairs executives were in the 30 to 50 years age range except for women. Women employed in those positions were over 50 (p. 233).

Gender. Gender was also found to correlate to other variables. In a 1983 survey by Commission XII of the ACPA, researchers found that increasingly more women than men were earning master's and doctor's degrees (Aronson, Bennett, Moore, & Moore, 1985). Gross (1978) in his review of the literature found a higher proportion of women in master's programs and a higher proportion of men in doctoral programs. However, Harter et al. (1982) found in their study that women received a smaller percentage of degrees than men.

Harter et al. (1982) studied student personnel professionals in an eight-state region in the East to compare the proportions by gender employed in student

affairs to their proportion within the general population as reflected in the United States Census data. Overall, females represented a greater proportion of the general population than males. This same proportion was reflected in representation by gender in the student affairs field. When the data were broken down by institutional size and control, proportional differences were found. In very small institutions of 2500 or fewer students, and in very large institutions of over 20,000 students, females were overrepresented. In private institutions the number of women exceeded the proportion found in the general population while in public institutions the proportion equaled that of the population.

Differences were also found by job level. Gross (1978) found more men at the level of chief student affairs officer (CSAO) and directors of counseling, financial aid, placement, and admissions. Women were more prevalent in staff positions such as placement, student activities, and residence life.

Bender (1980) researched the relationship between gender and length of employment in the field. Fifty-five percent of the men and 80% of the women had been employed from 2 to 5 years. Forty-five percent of the men and 20% of the women had been in the field 11 or more years. Women appeared to have adequate numbers at the training and entry level, but lagged behind men in advancement and tenure.

In her review of the literature, Evans (1988) found that gender and advancement were issues in the field. Rickard (1982) found underrepresentation of women in the position of CSAO especially in large institutions although there are more women now serving in that capacity. However, proportionally fewer women have doctorates (Evans & Kuh, 1983; Gross, 1978; Rickard, 1982; 1985a), an increasingly important criteria for selection.

Minorities. Because of methodological problems, Gross (1978) asked that the results of his literature review on minority representation in student affairs be interpreted with caution. Some studies categorized minorities as Blacks, Orientals, American Indians, and Spanish surnamed individuals. Other studies omitted the Oriental category. He reported that 9% to 16% of the newly hired professionals and 11% to 24% of those already employed in staff positions were minority group members. Of the CSAOs, only 4% to 5% were minority group members.

While comparing proportions of minorities employed to the proportions in the population, Harter et al. (1982) found that minority employment in student affairs in both public and private institutions exceeded the proportion found in the population. Minority representation by gender was also examined by Harter et al. (1982). The number of black females exceeded the number of black males employed and was equivalent to population proportions. Although

white males and white females were equal in the population, white males exceeded white females in both private and public institutions.

Researchers have examined the pool of credentialed minority candidates for positions in student personnel. Harter et al. (1982) found few minority members in professional preparation programs with the pool of doctoral candidates being much smaller than the pool of master's candidates. Aronson et al. (1985) found an increase in the number of master's degrees awarded to minorities in the southern states.

Marital status. Gross (1978) found that fewer married women than married men were employed in student affairs. The percentages ranged from 2% to 26% for married women and from 71% to 90% for married men. He concluded that student affairs is a profession that generally employs married men and unmarried women.

Preparation and employment. Degrees held and jobs obtained by student personnel professionals differed by institution and position. Thirty-four percent to 47% of CSAOs in four-year institutions and 15% to 27% of CSAOs in two-year institutions held a doctorate (Gross, 1978). Groseth (cited in Lawing et al., 1982) reported that more CSAOs are holding doctor's degrees. Bender (1980) found that 77% of all student personnel workers had master's degrees and 16% had doctoral degrees. In the Commission XII

survey, Aronson et al. (1985) found that more individuals with master's degrees are being employed and that there is a decrease in the number of doctoral level graduates holding positions in testing and counseling. Fewer graduates were finding jobs in public two-year institutions. From 1976 to 1979, 17% of all student personnel graduates found employment in public two-year colleges. By 1983, the percentage had dropped to 4% (p. 174).

Holmes (1982) reported an increased interest in hiring and promoting women in student affairs as well as an increase in the number of women actually holding jobs in student affairs and enrolling in preparation programs. From 1977 to 1979 there was a shift from predominantly male to predominantly female enrollment in master's programs.

Carpenter, Guido-DiBrito, and Kelly (1987) described the job market in student affairs as stagnant. Armstrong et al. (1978) and Janasiewicz (1983) found that 60% to 70% of all advertised jobs were below the head of department level. That there are many more jobs at the entry level is well known (Rickard, 1982).

Reasons for entering the field. Bryan (cited in Bender, 1980) researched the reasons why individuals enter the field of college student personnel. He found the following reasons given: the enjoyment of working in a collegiate environment; the flexibility, security and mobility of the job; the perception of the job as a

temporary career phase; and accident. Some individuals said they just "fell into" the job. Brown (1987) said that some people enter student affairs careers by "accident or by quirk, rather than by design" (p. 5). Stamatakos (1980) found that young professionals were motivated to enter the field because they sought an opportunity to work with students. Thus, reasons individuals give for entering the field are diverse.

Professional development. Miller and Carpenter (1980) used human development theory to identify and describe four hierarchial stages of professional development in the student affairs field. The formative stage is the preparatory stage and includes formal training and education in the field. The application stage includes obtaining a job and committing to the profession. The additive stage commences when the practitioner assumes supervisory and/or policy making duties. The generative stage, the highest level, is characterized by leadership in the professional organizations, contributions to theory, research and the literature, and the continuing efforts toward the professionalization of the field.

Carpenter and Miller (1981) found that upward mobility in the student affairs field requires movement from one stage of professional development to the next. Duties become more complex and responsibilities increase as the professional assumes supervisory roles. The lowest level of

professional development was found in master's students and the highest level was found in administrators. Counselors and doctoral students were ranked in between. They concluded that professional development was not only related to position or rank, but to age, gender, and marital status as well. Older individuals scored higher on professional development than younger. Never-married females scored higher than never-married males, but married males scored higher than married females.

Wood et al. (1985) found that the level of professional development was related to the "values a person holds and the activities that he or she finds to be fulfilling work--that is, his or her career orientations" (p. 536). They found a negative correlation between the application stage and geographical security and concluded that an unwillingness to relocate may stifle professional development.

Wood et al. (1985) used regression analysis to predict the career orientations of individuals in the generative stage of development. They found that individuals with high creativity, medium technical and functional competence, low geographical security, and low variety orientations are likely to reach the higher levels of professional development (p. 537).

It is assumed that higher levels of professional development are preferable. But, Carpenter and Miller

(1981) cautioned against rushing the process. Too much challenge and too many responsibilities too soon may exceed the knowledge and skill of the individual. This could result in faulty performance and failure which could impede growth.

Job satisfaction and job involvement. Job satisfaction and job involvement can be used to evaluate the morale of student personnel workers. Pallone, Rickard, and Hurley (cited in Biggs et al., 1975) concluded that the sources of job satisfaction for student personnel workers might be situational factors, not individual differences. Biggs et al. (1975) found that low job alienation was related to small staffs, regular communication, and clearly defined job expectations. Job dissatisfaction was related to conflicting job expectations.

Bender (1980) found that job characteristics and satisfaction were related in her study. She found satisfaction with autonomy and fringe benefits but dissatisfaction with how raises were determined. Half of the younger individuals were satisfied with opportunities for advancement; 48% of the men and 23% of the women were satisfied with opportunities for professional development; 70% of the men and 53% of the women were satisfied with the opportunity to participate in decision making in student affairs but dropped to 48% for men and 33% for women when

asked if they were satisfied with decision making opportunities at the institutional level.

Ninety-six percent perceived their job as important but only 50% thought that others on campus perceived their job as important. Ninety-one percent were satisfied because they felt a sense of accomplishment from their job. Three-fourths of the respondents perceived that their supervisor was competent while only 56% reported respect for the CSAO (p. 5).

Overall, 66% of the respondents in Bender's (1980) study were satisfied and 16% were undecided. The most dissatisfied group was the group that was 23 to 36 years of age. This could represent the group in lower level jobs. There were no differences in satisfaction relative to gender.

Even though 66% were satisfied only 36% planned to stay in the field and many of these were at the supervisory level. One-fourth of the respondents planned to leave the field. This is higher than the 16% who planned to leave reported by Burns (1982).

Williams (1979) researched the satisfaction of individual needs of CSAOs. Of the categories of psychological needs, CSAOs were least satisfied with fulfillment of autonomy needs and most satisfied with the fulfillment of social needs. Of all the needs, they ranked self-realization as the most important.

Cunningham (1979) in a national study investigated the job satisfaction, job involvement, job tension, and self esteem of college student personnel administrators (i.e., directors, deans, and vice-presidents) by gender, age, degree earned, and tenure in the present position. She found no significant differences between the attitudes and perceptions of student personnel administrators by gender, age, degree, tenure, or position. She concluded that student personnel administrators cannot be stereotyped by gender and that positions and titles do not indicate levels of stress, involvement, satisfaction, or self-esteem.

Maples (1977) found similar results in a study of work values in student personnel workers in the Northwest. She found no significant differences in job satisfaction by gender, age, and years of experience. Men, however, experienced higher levels of social status and placed more importance on creativity. Young workers found surroundings or environment to be of greater importance than did older workers.

Ohanesian (1975) used gender, position, tenure in the field, and salary to study differences in the job satisfaction among college student personnel workers in the West and Midwest. She found higher satisfaction in respondents in higher positions, with longer tenure, with higher salaries, and in males. Several of the variables were also significantly related to each other: gender and

salary; gender and position; tenure and position; and position, tenure, and salary.

That positive work attitudes lead to positive work behaviors is presumed throughout the literature. Bender (1980) reported that job satisfaction led to some positive outcomes in job behaviors: the completion of assignments; spending more time at work; increased interaction with students, peers, and supervisors; increased accessibility; and initiating new projects. Interestingly, low job satisfaction did not relate to either absenteeism or lateness behaviors in this study. Other researchers have found relationships between work cognitions and affects and the specific work outcomes of turnover and attrition.

Turnover and attrition. Turnover and attrition from positions in student affairs have been a source of concern for many researchers and practitioners in the field (Arnold, 1982; Bender, 1980; Burns, 1982; Forney et al., 1982; Holmes et al., 1983; Lawing et al., 1982; Rickard, 1982; Stamatakos, 1980; Wood et al., 1985), but Evans (1988) argues that little is known about the causes of the problem or its extent. Wood et al. (1985) found that 68% of the graduates of 1978 were still employed in student affairs in 1983. Burns (1982) found that 61% had remained in the field after five years. Holmes et al. (1983) found the percentage to be lower. They found only 39% remaining after six years. Sagaria and Johnsrud (1988) reported that 26% of the

professionals in student affairs changed jobs every two years during the 1970s, but since then mobility has steadily decreased.

Bender (1980) studied the intention of individuals to stay and found that 43% of the men and 28% of the women planned to stay in student affairs. The group composed of individuals over 36 years of age had only 12% who did not intend to stay. Burns (1980) reported that only 16% of this group anticipated leaving the field. Wood et al. (1985) found that the longer one stays in the field, the more likely one is to stay. Burns (1982) found that a background in student affairs correlates negatively to turnover. But, Lawing et al. (1982) found that deans are as likely to leave as others in student affairs. However, in this situation the trend is to use promotion to leave the field.

CSAOs are remaining in the field longer with fewer having been in the field less than five years. But, more plan to move into positions of higher administration and fewer into teaching. Ostroth, Efird, and Lerman (1985) found that CSAO positions are now difficult to obtain, are taking longer to obtain, and are being awarded to older professionals. Consequently, the professionals who do achieve the position of CSAO plan to stay there. Information such as demographics have been used to make the case for attrition and turnover being problematic in student

affairs. Research that goes beyond demographics and correlates is now appearing in the literature.

Free (1986) studied work attitudes of admissions personnel in 28 four-year institutions to determine what individual and situational variables might explain the high rates of attrition. He found that the best indicator of job dissatisfaction was routinization. This held true for both entry level and supervisory personnel. He found a positive correlation between job satisfaction and job level, age, family size, and supervision duties. He found a negative relationship between job satisfaction and perceived opportunities, routinization, overqualification, and both organization and department size. He concluded that a combination of individual, organizational, and environmental variables are necessary in explaining work attitudes and the choice to stay or leave the profession.

Reasons for leaving the field are varied. Rickard (1982) cited a lack of opportunity for advancement as a reason especially in women and younger workers. Arnold (1982) found that many leave the field at mid-career when the opportunity for advancement occurs. But, advancement may mean relocation. Relocation entails costs and may bring discouragement from family members. So Arnold (1982) concludes that some forego advancement and leave the field in order to stay in the same geographic location. The importance of geographic location was also reported by Wood

et al. (1985) who found that if professionals desired to remain in a particular location they often left the field rather than relocate.

Burns (1980) researched differences between those who stayed in the field and those who left. "Stayers" had earned a degree within the last five years, held the first position following the degree in student affairs, and were approximately 28 years of age. They had worked full-time without interruption since the last degree. Stayers had goals of dedication, service, and independence, and considered their work important. "Leavers" had interrupted full-time work experiences. They left because of boredom, lack of challenge, returning to school, relocation, better salaries, and more opportunities for advancement. The leavers were looking for more money, greater variety, and more responsibilities in their new positions.

Forney et al. (1982) gave burnout as the reason some individuals left the field. Burnout was defined from two dimensions, attitude and behavior. There was a "significant loss of motivation, enthusiasm, and energy . . . a marked departure from the individual's behavioral norm" (p. 436). They studied career development professionals but believed the findings could generalize to other professionals in student personnel. Burnout was caused, they believed, by repetitive tasks, boredom, money problems, too much work and too little time to do it, lack of advancement

opportunities, lack of challenge, politics, feedback, supervision problems, and the lack of time for both personal and professional development. Many of these causes are situational and parallel the dimensions of core job characteristics of Hackman and Oldham (1976). Others are individual and parallel the expected job outcomes of Kanungo (1982).

Forney et al. (1982) also identified the symptoms of burnout. "Loss of enjoyment in relation to the job, guilt, defensiveness, detachment, paranoia, lack of creativity, mechanical behavior, alienation, rigidity, callousness, pessimism, physical and emotional exhaustion, the inability to cope with stress, muscle tension, absenteeism, and alcohol and drug abuse" (p. 436) are listed as symptoms. These symptoms are individual factors and many parallel the outcomes of job involvement or alienation or could identify the condition itself. Forney et al. (1982) concluded that burnout, a condition manifested in both individual behavior and attitude, could be traced to issues of control and autonomy in the environment.

Wood et al. (1985) found that autonomy was a factor in the decision to leave the field. Their research focused on mismatches between the person and the environment. They found that individuals who have a high need for freedom from the imposed structure of bureaucracy were most likely to leave the field.

Hancock (1988) investigated matches between the vocational needs of professionals in residence life positions and the occupational reinforcers of entry level residence life positions. He found that only 52% of the graduate assistants intended to pursue employment in the position of residence life and concluded that there was a mismatch between individual needs and the reinforcers of the occupational environments. He suggested that both individual needs and situational reinforcers be examined as professionals try to slow the high levels of attrition, and concluded that "The manipulation of work environments to achieve need-reinforcer correspondence can be addressed formally and informally" (p. 29).

Another study addressed environment concerns and the need to manipulate the student personnel work environment to control stressors. Kuga (1984) investigated four dimensions of job stressors in student affairs: stress because of the inefficiency of others, role stress, task stress, and conflict-resolution stress. She determined that those most susceptible to the four dimensions of stress differed by age, tenure, and rank. New young professionals had more role-related stress. They had more student contact and were relatively uninvolved in supervision, budget, or policy functions. Older experienced staff had more conflict-resolution related stress. Kuga (1984) concluded that professional preparation programs, staff development, and

the management of situational variables could control or prevent negative job stress and, consequently, affect attrition and burnout.

Rickard (1982) takes an entirely opposite view of attrition. He viewed attrition as potentially beneficial. He cited the work of Dalton and Tudor (1979) and concluded that turnover can increase innovation, facilitate the generation of new ideas and, as a result, increase institutional effectiveness. He believed that it could advance individual careers. He recommends that the costs of replacement and training of employees be weighed against the renewed vitality of both the institution and the individuals in determining whether attrition is positive or negative.

Mobility. Job change in the profession is reportedly extensive. Sagaria and Johnsrud (1988) found student affairs to be a very mobile profession. They studied position change within institutions and between institutions and found "almost twice as many student affairs professionals moving within their institutions as moving between institutions" (p. 35) in the ten-year period 1969-1970 to 1979-1980.

When rates of mobility were studied by gender, the researchers found that the position rate change for women was greater than the rate for men. In both men and women the movement within institutions was greater than the movement between institutions. By 1979-1980, the rate of

change for women exceeded that of men both within institutions and between institutions. That women are twice as likely as men to be unmarried may contribute to their willingness to relocate.

They also found that mobility had decreased over time. However, during the ten-year period studied, the national economic recession and an enrollment decline occurred and may have had an impact on the decision to change jobs. Another finding was that those individuals who were most mobile early in their careers tended to be the most mobile later.

Evans (1988) argued that there was a lack of upward mobility in student affairs. She cited limited career ladders, unclear career paths, the necessity of the doctor's degree, previous affiliation with a similar institution, stricter adherence to affirmative action employment guidelines, and the unwillingness to relocate as reasons why individuals are not readily changing jobs.

### Suggested Strategies for Solving Problems

Several researchers have suggested strategies for overcoming some of the problems within the student affairs profession. Some strategies deal with the individual while others deal with the situation.

Many suggest better pre-service education and more effective staff development programs thereby changing the

individual. Young (1987) has formulated a model of professional education based on stages of professional development. Moore (1987) used Young's model and diagnosed the levels of professional development and prescribed learning activities to meet the individual's specific needs. Consequently, both the individual and the institution would benefit by upgrading the individual's skills. Penn and Trow (1987) felt that the continued involvement of graduate faculty in the practice of student affairs would enhance professionalization while Aceto, Bryan, and Young (1987) advocated inservice programs, professional staff exchanges, and regional educational centers as ways of promoting professional development. The role of professional organizations was emphasized by Shrank and Young (1987). All of the activities suggested have implications for change in the individual, change that would have impact on the organization, the students served, and the profession itself.

Burns (1982) argues for a selection process prior to entrance in graduate school based on a matching of values--those of the individual and those of the profession--as well as an orientation to the realities of the field. Bender (1980) suggests more interaction between CSAOs and the professionals they supervise. Lawing et al. (1982) see the need for mentoring in the profession.

Staff development programs are considered necessary (Aceto et al., 1987; Bender, 1980; Lawing et al., 1982), but Bender (1980) found that 53% of the respondents said that staff development programs were not helping them to grow. Lawing et al. (1982) thought professionals needed additional studies in computers and technology, business, and law. Cox and Ivy (1984) also suggested the business areas, especially financial management and marketing, in addition to research.

Changes in both environmental design and practices have been advocated as ways to alleviate the problems associated with attrition, stagnation, and lack of mobility. Job rotation within the institution (Bare, cited in Evans, 1988) or between other institutions (Bender, 1980) have been suggested ways of reestablishing job interest. Job enrichment programs prevalent in industry but rare in academia have been suggested by Bare (cited in Evans, 1988), Burns (1982), and Lawing et al. (1982). Lawing et al. (1982) also suggest assuming teaching duties as a way of maintaining job commitment. Burns (1982) suggests part-time employment and job sharing. Bender (1980), citing the perception of the student affairs role by others as problematic, suggests that student affairs professionals attempt to change others' attitudes. Shaw (1989) argues for giving up the "perennial, guilt-laden search for identity" and focus instead on opportunities to do things that would

change the way student affairs professionals see themselves (p. 47). She thinks no one outside student affairs pays much attention to the profession's identity. We are, according to her, what we do and the attitudes we convey.

Rickard (1985b) suggests close scrutiny of the hiring process and strict adherence to affirmative action guidelines.

### Limitations of the Research

Evans (1988), in the conclusion to her literature review on attrition of student affairs professionals, cites many limitations of the research. Few studies address the reasons for and the extent of attrition. Few studies are comprehensive. They have samples drawn from single graduate institutions or specific regions of the United States. Many lack information on attrition by type of degree and preparation program, type of institution and career stages, gender and minority group of the individuals studied. There is also a lack of studies on the career paths of professional other than CSAOs and studies on attrition by specialized areas of training and employment. Most studies employ cross-sectional rather than longitudinal methods.

No examples were given of situations where environmental changes such as job enrichment, job redesign, job sharing, and job rotation were made. There is a lack of information on specific staff development programs and

outcomes. No descriptions of superior programs for staff retention were found in the literature.

Little information exists on the work environment itself. Silverman (1980) described the work environment of student affairs as having diversity, instability, confusion, and conflict. Research on measured job characteristics could not be found.

No studies were found on the motivating potential of jobs in student personnel, a score derived from a diagnosis of work conditions of skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and job feedback, the core job characteristics of Hackman and Oldham's (1976) model. A personal communication with Richard Hackman of Harvard University (October, 1987) confirmed this omission. He knew of no studies of the job characteristics of student personnel.

#### Higher Education as a Work Environment

The uniqueness of higher education institutions make the study of it as a work environment difficult. First of all, most of the research on work has been done in industry and business and may not generalize readily to the organization of higher education. Second, higher education institutions themselves vary greatly along many dimensions. There are differences between higher education institutions and other organizations and within institutions of higher

education. Holmes (1982) maintains that for these reasons the study of higher education as a work setting is difficult.

Kanter (1978, 1979) compared features of organizations in business and industry to higher education. Business and industry have long career ladders, vertical differentiation with many layers which translate to many opportunities for upward mobility. Higher education organizations have short career ladders, horizontal differentiation and, thus, few opportunities for advancement.

It was opportunity for advancement and power that Kanter (1979) found critical to motivation and effectiveness in the academic workplace. Opportunity included advancement, job challenge, influence, pay, and skill. She maintained that these opportunities were difficult to pursue because of vaguely defined organizational structure which makes career paths fuzzy. When people are confronted with few opportunities, or avenues for advancement are not clear, she found that people are stuck. She defined stuck as simply the lack of opportunity for advancement. The results of being stuck are both behavioral and attitudinal.

The stuck, she maintained, lower their aspirations, lose enthusiasm, become poor role models for students, have lower self-esteem, use fewer skills, seek safe strategies for work, believe hard work does not get them anywhere, disengage from work and people, develop strong peer group

relationships and cliques that gripe, become dissatisfied, and generate few, if any, ideas of their own but stifle the ideas of others. The description of the stuck by Kanter (1978, 1979) closely parallels the job alienated described by Kanungo (1982).

Just as the alienated are contrasted to their polar opposite, the involved, the stuck are contrasted to the moving. The moving have high aspirations and goals, are achievement oriented, and possess both high self-esteem and estimates of their abilities. They have a strong connection to and engagement in work. They organize to get things done and use active and constructive forms of protest when conflict arises. The moving parallel the job involved individuals.

By comparing and contrasting the opportunity for advancement and the organizational structure of business and industry to higher education, Kanter has been able to make useful generalizations. However, higher education institutions differ among themselves as to mission, size, control, selectivity, and organizational structure. Thus, comparisons are difficult.

### The Community College

One of these unique institutions of higher education is an American phenomena, the community college. According to Cohen and Brawer (1982) the community college is defined as

"any institution accredited to award the associate in arts or science as its highest degree" (p. 5-6). Many see it as having an unclear or weak identity (Gleazer, 1957, 1958, 1972, 1981; Medsker, 1969; Palinchak, 1973; Yarrington, 1982; Young, 1977, cited in Townsend, 1985).

The community college has risen to a position of prominence in American higher education. Today approximately one-half of all students entering higher education enter a community college. The phenomenal growth of the community college in the last 25 years has produced 1200 colleges serving 5 million students. Today, many changes are occurring. There has been a decline in the number of traditional age students attending as a result of decreases in the number of high school graduates. There has been a shift to more adults enrollment, many of whom are part-time.

Funding, which is determined by enrollment, has become a problem. With fewer full-time students there is less money. Enrollment patterns and the resulting financial adjustments have made organizational changes necessary (Flynn, 1986).

For student affairs professionals this translates into serving more students with the same number of staff. Consequently, their workload has increased.

But, numbers are not the whole story. Patterns of services have changed too. Of the services identified by

Cohen and Brawer (1982), counseling, guidance, recruitment, orientation, research, articulation, extracurricular activities, residence halls, and financial aid, each has undergone change within the last few years.

Cohen and Brawer (1982) maintain that community college students are uniquely different from other college students and need help in dealing with both school and career-related problems. Riesman (1981) agrees, characterizing community college students as frightened about college and unaware of their career choices. As a result, guidance and counseling remain central to student affairs in the community college. Additionally, recent mandates for services to students with special problems have increased counseling responsibilities. Shaw (1989) sees the increase in minorities, women, older students, part-time students, evening students, and disabled students not as really new demands, but rather as the populations that community colleges were designed to serve. The problem as she sees it is that the community colleges have not been very successful in serving them.

Articulation receives greater amounts of the professional's time as efforts to coordinate statewide plans continue. Recruitment and orientation have expanded as competition for students has increased.

Participation in extracurricular activities in the community college which has always been a problem has shown a decline. Weiser (cited in Cohen & Brawer, 1982) credits

lack of time and interest as the reasons. Part-time work, commuting, and the lack of leadership in freshmen and sophomores are also given as reasons for low participation. Participation is so low that a 10% rate is often considered successful.

Declines have occurred in the number of jobs in residential life in the community college since few community colleges today are residential facilities.

Financial aid for students in the community college may be restricted. Full-time enrollment and diploma requirements may limit the awarding of funds to students, many of whom are part-time, certificate students.

Such changes reflect a reaction to changing conditions in the larger social and political system. But changes in student personnel are not expected to be merely reactive. Others advocate a more proactive stance to change.

Flynn (1986) called for even further expansion of the roles of the student affairs professional during this time of change. He suggested that maximum contributions to organizational effectiveness be affected through such diverse activities as providing assistance to faculty, developing objectives for academic programs, aiding in the identification of new academic programs, gathering student outcome data, assisting with assessment and course placement, and expanding services to more nontraditional students. Sandeen (1982) cited the development of programs

in career development, wellness clinics, and special needs programs as indicative of the ever expanding role of student personnel to be cooperative and to identify real needs of students.

Sandeen (1982) said that it is the student affairs staff that have enabled institutions to adapt to change. He uses examples in the history of education of coeducation, housing, student rights, racial integration, testing and academic advising to make his point. He sees the diversity of roles and services and the ability to adapt to and encourage change as a great strength of the profession. He sees services and programs as increasingly important to institutional success (Sandeen, 1988). He described the professional as competent, courageous, possessing good ideas, and willing to work. His description parallels that of the job involved individual. Yet, this measure of the student personnel professional's psychological identification with work is yet to be made.

#### The Community College Student Personnel Professional

In 1973, Brooks and Avila conducted a nationwide survey of junior and community college CSAOs. They found that 89% were male and 11% were female; 71% were 30 to 49 years of age and 54% were between 30 and 44; 96% were white, 1% were black, 1% were Oriental-American, 1% were American Indian and 1% were Mexican American. The master's degree was the

most common degree held representing 73% of the respondents. Doctoral degrees accounted for 24% of the population and bachelor's degrees accounted for 3%. Guidance and counseling was the most common educational background (28%), followed by educational administration (13%), education (11%), psychology (10%), student personnel administration (4%), and higher education (3%). Half had been in the position three or less years. Most had been promoted from within. Most had been in student personnel work for 10 years. The researchers found that the lack of minority and female representation at the top levels of administration was a concern, as were levels of compensation and the high attrition rate.

Clements (1982) surveyed student personnel workers in Massachusetts community colleges to determine the factors that influenced job satisfaction. She found that the work itself was ranked as most important. Job satisfaction was most highly correlated to the college in general, pay, and the opportunity for promotion. She reported that females were more dissatisfied with the opportunity for promotion than males, although both were dissatisfied.

Bender (1980) in her study reported that student personnel workers had a high degree of satisfaction with the work environment and concluded that fit between the individuals and the environment was positive. She therefore

deduced that CSAOs must have selectively hired individuals who fit the work environment.

### Summary

Job involvement theory, job characteristics theory, and the college student affairs professional were discussed in this chapter. Relevant research was cited in each of the areas.

Job involvement was discussed from both a sociological and psychological perspective. Research related to individual difference variables, situational variables, moderators, and the effects of job involvement was outlined. A new approach to job involvement that is based on motivation was introduced.

Job characteristics theory was derived by merging individual differences and systems theory into a behavioral approach. Five core job characteristics were discussed: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback from the job itself.

The origin and history of the profession of student affairs was discussed along with relevant research on demographics, preparation and employment, job satisfaction, job involvement, turnover and attrition, and mobility. Higher education as a work setting was described. The American phenomena, the community and junior college, was discussed.

## **CHAPTER III**

### **METHODOLOGY**

The procedures used in the data collection and analysis are described as follows: (a) research objective; (b) research method; (c) description of the population and sample; (d) instrumentation; (e) data collection; and (f) analysis of data.

#### **Research Objective**

The purpose of this study was to determine the influence of demographic, psychological, and situational variables on job involvement of student affairs professionals in American community and junior colleges.

#### **Research Method**

Multiple regression analysis (MRA) was used as the main analysis technique with Pearson correlation and symmetric lambda used to determine bivariate relationships and check for multicollinearity. Frequencies and means were used to generate the descriptive statistics.

### **Description of the Population and Sample**

The population for this study included individuals employed as full-time student personnel professionals in two-year community and junior colleges in the United States. A computer file containing 798 community and junior colleges was used to generate a random sample of institutions. One student personnel professional from each of these institutions was selected by choosing the person listed alphabetically last from lists of student affairs professionals in college catalogs that are available on microfiche in the library. A sample of 430 was drawn.

### **Instrumentation**

Instruments that were used in this study are four scales developed by Kanungo (1982): importance of job outcomes, satisfaction with job outcomes, job involvement, and work involvement. Five subscales from the Job Diagnostic Survey of Hackman and Oldham (1976) that measure core job characteristics were also used: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback. Demographic information of age, gender, racial-ethnic background, salary, marital status, time on job, time in student affairs, job title, and degrees held were collected.

A copy of the instrument is contained in Appendix D along with letters of permission (Appendices A through C).

Specific instruments used and a brief description of each follows:

1. Measure of Perceived Importance of Job Outcomes.

Fifteen job outcomes were listed and respondents were asked to rank them in importance. These outcomes included "eight organizationally controlled rewards (comfortable working conditions, restricted hours of work, adequate earnings, fair pay, sound company policy, job security, benefits, and promotion opportunities); four interpersonally mediated rewards (considerate supervision, competent technical supervision, good interpersonal relations, and respect and recognition from others); and three internally mediated rewards (responsibility and independence, achievement, and interesting nature of work)" (Kanungo, 1982, p. 101). Organizationally controlled rewards and interpersonally mediated rewards are extrinsic and internally mediated rewards are intrinsic.

2. Measures of Job Satisfaction. This instrument contained 16 questions. It listed the same 15 job outcomes as the Measure of Perceived Importance of Job Outcomes with six response categories ranging from extremely satisfied to extremely dissatisfied.

Respondents were asked to rank each item relative to

their satisfaction with that outcome. The sixteenth question measured overall job satisfaction. The reliability of the satisfaction scales was .89 internal consistency and .73 test-retest coefficient (Kanungo, 1982, p. 116).

3. Measures of Job Involvement-Questionnaire Format (JIQ).

This instrument measured only the cognitive state of psychological identification with the job. It consisted of items that were found in the existing literature (Blauner, 1964; Blood, 1969; Clark, 1959; Lodahl & Kejner, 1965; Saleh & Hosek, 1976; Wallack et al., 1971, cited in Kanungo, 1982). Ten items were judged by experts as being cognitive in nature and were included in this instrument. Kanungo included five items that were in the existing instruments but were affective or behavioral in nature. Consequently he did not use these items in calculating job involvement. Questions 33, 36, 38, 43 and 45 in Section III were filler items. The questionnaire had a six-point format for recording responses ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The reliability of the JIQ scale was .87 internal consistency and .85 test-retest coefficient (Kanungo, 1982, p. 116).

4. Measures of Work Involvement-Questionnaire Format

(WIQ). This instrument was developed using the same procedure and sources as described under the job

involvement measure. It also contained filler items. These were questions 50, 51, 53, 55 and 57 in Section IV and were not used in calculating work involvement. The remaining six items were used to measure work involvement which was calculated by averaging the six responses. The reliability of the WIQ scale was .75 internal consistency and .67 test-retest coefficient (Kanungo, 1982, p. 116).

5. Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) of Hackman and Oldham (1976). Five subscales of the JDS were used to measure the core job characteristics. Each subscale consisted of three questions, one of which required reversed scoring. The scales and the characteristic each purports to measure are listed as follows:
- a) Skill variety: The degree to which a job requires a variety of different activities in carrying out the work, involving the use of a number of different skills and talents of the person (Hackman & Oldham, 1980, p. 78). The internal consistency of the skill variety scale is .71 (Hackman & Oldham, 1975).
  - b) Task identity: The degree to which a job requires completion of a "whole" and identifiable piece of work, that is, doing a job from beginning to end with a visible outcome (p. 78). The internal

consistency reliability of this scale is .59 (Hackman & Oldham, 1975).

- c) Task significance: The degree to which the job has a substantial impact on the lives of other people, whether those people are in the immediate organization or in the world at large (p. 79). The internal consistency reliability of this scale is .66 (Hackman & Oldham, 1974).
- d) Autonomy: The degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence, and discretion to the individual in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out (p. 79). The internal consistency reliability of this scale is .66 (Hackman & Oldham, 1974).
- e) Job feedback: The degree to which carrying out the work activities required by the job provides the individual with direct and clear information about the effectiveness of his or her performance (p. 80). The internal consistency reliability of this scale is .71 (Hackman & Oldham, 1974).

The score for each of the job characteristics was derived from the average of the responses to the three items that make up the subscale.

- 6) Demographics: This instrument contained variables that were considered important in the literature of job

involvement, job characteristics, and college student personnel. These variables were age, gender, marital status, racial-ethnic group, degree held, salary, job title, job level, number of years employed on present job, and number of years employed in student affairs.

### Data Collection

The survey materials used to gather information for this study were distributed and returned by mail. Dillman's (1978) total design method for implementing mail surveys was used.

The first mailing consisted of a packet containing an explanatory letter (Appendix E) and the instrument (Appendix D), along with a printed business reply envelope. The packet was coded so that a follow-up on non-respondents could be conducted.

One week after the first mailing a postcard reminder (Appendix F) was sent to all participants. Each participant who had not received a packet was asked to make a collect telephone call to the author to request materials.

Three weeks after the first mailing, a second packet of survey materials was sent to all non-respondents. A second letter (Appendix G) was included along with a business reply envelope.

Nine weeks after the first mailing, a third packet of survey materials and a letter (Appendix H) was sent by certified mail to non-respondents along with a business reply envelope.

### **Analysis of Data**

Multiple regression analysis (MRA) was used to answer the research question. Four of the variables were categorical so they were dummy coded to use in MRA: gender; marital status; racial-ethnic background; and job category (Hinkle & Oliver, 1986). A correlation matrix was constructed for descriptively investigating the relationship between job involvement and the predictor variables as well as the intercorrelations among the predictor variables. Correlations between categorical variables were determined by using symmetric lambda (Hinkle, Wiersma & Jurs, 1988). Correlations between categorical variables and continuous or interval scaled variables were determined by regressing the scaled variables onto the vectors of the dummy coded variables (Hinkle & Oliver, 1986). Correlations of continuous and/or interval scaled variables were determined by using Pearson correlation. This matrix will be used to discuss bivariate relationships.

A full model MRA was constructed using 32 variables. The variables included were as follows: demographic

variables of gender, marital status, race, job category, age, degree, salary, years experience on present job, and years experience in student affairs; five situational or job characteristic variables of autonomy, task identity, task variety, task significance and feedback; 16 satisfaction scores of security, policies, enough salary to maintain a good living, benefits, promotion opportunity, working conditions, enjoyment, respect and recognition, coworkers, sympathetic supervisor, a chance to achieve excellence, competent supervisor, independence, growth opportunities, amount of salary for the work performed, and overall satisfaction; and two involvement scores of work involvement and job involvement. The dependent variable was job involvement.

Restricted models using MRA were constructed to determine the effects of either gender, marital status, racial-ethnic background or job category on job involvement.  $R^2$  increase was calculated for each of the restricted models (Hinkle & Oliver, 1986):

$$F = \frac{(R^2_{\text{full}} - R^2_{\text{restricted}})/(f - r)}{(1 - R^2_{\text{full}})/(N - f)}$$

where:  $f$  = number of predictor variables in the full model

$r$  = number of predictor variables in the restricted model

Based on the results of these calculations the regression model was specified. In addition, statistical

significance of the multiple correlation coefficient, the proportion of variation in the dependent variable that can be attributed to linear combination of predictor variables and the relative importance of each predictor variable were determined.

## CHAPTER IV

### RESULTS

#### Characteristics of the Sample

A total of 352 (82%) questionnaires were returned from the national sample of 430 community and junior college student affairs professionals. Of this sample 52% were male and 48% were female. Six percent were between 20 and 29 years of age, 22% were between 30 and 39, 39% were between 40 and 49, 27% were between 50 and 59, and 6% were 60 years of age or older. Whites represented 82% of the respondents; blacks, 9.5%; Spanish surnamed, 4%; Native Americans, 2%; Orientals, 1%; and Other, 1%. Most (75%) were married. Twelve percent had never been married and 13% had been married previously. The job held by 25% of the group was counseling and advising, followed by multiple jobs, 18%; administration, 14%; multiple job including administration, 10%; enrollment services, 8%; financial aid, 7%; career planning and placement, 5%; student activities and recreation, 4%; special services, 3%; and other, 5%. Eleven percent held a bachelors degree, 66% had a masters degree, 5% had a specialists degree or certificate of advanced graduate studies, and 13% had a doctoral degree. A few held associate degrees or nursing degrees. The salary range was from \$15,000 to over \$50,000. Tenure on the present job

ranged from one to 24 years with a mean of 9 years. Tenure in student affairs ranged from one to 40 years with a mean of 13 years.

Almost half of the respondents (48%) ranked the interesting or enjoyable nature of the work as the most important job outcome. Over one-fifth (22%) ranked the opportunity for future promotion as the least important job outcome.

### **Bivariate Relationships**

Table 2 contains the intercorrelations of the variables. Three hundred (305) cases were used to produce these results. As expected from the literature there was a significant correlation between involvement and overall satisfaction.

Job involvement scores correlated to all the satisfaction scores except security. Respondents were satisfied with the job outcome they rated as the most important, interesting and enjoyable nature of the work, and the least important, the opportunity for promotion.

Job involvement scores correlated to all the job characteristics except task identity. It was expected that jobs rated high on the five core characteristics would be highly motivating and individuals would be highly involved.

Table 2

## Correlations of Demographic, Psychological, and Situational Variables

	GENDER	MARITAL	RACE	JOB	AGE	DEGREE	SALARY	YRSEXP	SAFFAIR
GENDER	1.00	.194 p=.000	.030 p=.027	.042 p=.117	.226 p=.000	.053 p=.319	.382 p=.000	.285 p=.000	.338 p=.000
MARITAL		1.00	.000 p=.752	.006 p=.430	.264 p=.000	.098 p=.186	.177 p=.004	.158 p=.013	.196 p=.001
RACE			1.00	.006 p=.889	.102 p=.463	.139 p=.147	.187 p=.016	.132 p=.194	.116 p=.330
JOB				1.00	.291 p=.000	.266 p=.003	.413 p=.000	.304 p=.000	.286 p=.001
AGE					1.00	.243 p=.000	.486 p=.000	.470 p=.000	.554 p=.000
DEGREE						1.00	.358 p=.000	.165 p=.001	.265 p=.000
SALARY							1.00	.408 p=.000	.539 p=.000
YRSEXP								1.00	.676 p=.000

Table 2 - continued

	AUTONOM	TASKID	VARIETY	TASKSIG	FEEDBK	SECURITY	POLICY	GOODLIV
GENDER	.988 p=.066	.003 p=.952	.206 p=.000	.133 p=.014	.033 p=.538	.074 p=.169	.021 p=.690	.128 p=.017
MARITAL	.155 p=.016	.046 p=.692	.153 p=.017	.033 p=.832	.049 p=.662	.036 p=.797	.029 p=.862	.046 p=.689
RACE	.103 p=.458	.097 p=.516	.202 p=.007	.143 p=.135	.071 p=.789	.095 p=.537	.130 p=.209	.116 p=.323
JOB	.249 p=.010	.268 p=.003	.276 p=.001	.189 p=.196	.257 p=.006	.118 p=.850	.116 p=.866	.103 p=.933
AGE	-.029 p=.297	-.026 p=.310	.020 p=.358	.071 p=.093	.109 p=.021	.021 p=.345	.004 p=.467	.141 p=.004
DEGREE	-.044 p=.208	-.063 p=.121	.068 p=.103	.000 p=.500	-.007 p=.449	.004 p=.471	-.008 p=.442	.074 p=.084
SALARY	.066 p=.110	-.055 p=.158	-.035 p=.258	.050 p=.179	.045 p=.204	.155 p=.002	.033 p=.272	.365 p=.000
YRSEXP	-.038 p=.241	-.009 p=.433	-.122 p=.012	-.008 p=.441	.037 p=.248	.130 p=.007	.045 p=.203	.083 p=.062

Table 2 - continued

	BENFITS	PROMOTE	WORKCON	ENJOY	RESPECT	PEOPLE	COMPSUP	EXCEL
GENDER	.062 p=.250	.012 p=.827	.040 p=.455	.112 p=.036	.093 p=.083	.083 p=.124	.080 p=.136	.101 p=.059
MARITAL	.044 p=.716	.051 p=.642	.055 p=.593	.126 p=.061	.157 p=.014	.112 p=.111	.095 p=.208	.128 p=.056
RACE	.127 p=.228	.034 p=.982	.126 p=.232	.107 p=.411	.078 p=.713	.235 p=.001	.079 p=.707	.102 p=.454
JOB	.149 p=.559	.243 p=.014	.211 p=.073	.237 p=.018	.126 p=.791	.193 p=.161	.187 p=.207	.179 p=.257
AGE	-.017 p=.376	-.023 p=.338	-.002 p=.482	.092 p=.043	-.048 p=.189	-.009 p=.436	.015 p=.393	-.012 p=.411
DEGREE	.014 p=.398	.040 p=.227	.078 p=.072	.046 p=.197	.012 p=.409	.065 p=.111	-.016 p=.386	.028 p=.299
SALARY	.073 p=.089	.138 p=.005	.053 p=.163	.031 p=.283	.016 p=.380	-.019 p=.365	-.012 p=.415	.058 p=.139
YRSEXP	-.081 p=.066	-.084 p=.058	.030 p=.291	-.046 p=.194	-.092 p=.044	-.029 p=.294	-.100 p=.032	-.045 p=.204

Table 2 - continued

	SYMSUP	INDEP	GROWTH	SATSAL	SATIS	WORKINV	JOBINV
GENDER	.109 p=.042	.081 p=.131	.034 p=.542	.159 p=.003	.021 p=.347	.116 p=.032	.062 p=.256
MARITAL	.110 p=.120	.141 p=.031	.076 p=.363	.011 p=.978	.093 p=.217	.024 p=.904	.134 p=.048
RACE	.082 p=.675	.184 p=.018	.069 p=.808	.068 p=.804	.074 p=.753	.070 p=.794	.129 p=.231
JOB	.128 p=.771	.187 p=.200	.167 p=.376	.140 p=.658	.179 p=.258	.221 p=.050	.238 p=.022
AGE	-.081 p=.067	-.003 p=.480	-.033 p=.271	.128 p=.008	.046 p=.194	.168 p=.001	.011 p=.420
DEGREE	-.008 p=.443	-.048 p=.187	-.015 p=.388	.052 p=.168	.020 p=.357	-.112 p=.019	-.046 p=.201
SALARY	-.040 p=.231	.023 p=.333	.041 p=.223	.368 p=.000	.125 p=.010	.019 p=.367	.025 p=.327
YRSEXP	-.123 p=.011	-.077 p=.077	-.052 p=.165	.071 p=.093	-.018 p=.371	.027 p=.309	-.098 p=.037



Table 2 - continued

	BENFTS	PROMOTE	WORKCON	ENJOY	RESPECT	PEOPLE	COMPSUP	EXCEL
SAFFAIR	-.029 p=.294	-.002 p=.482	.047 p=.195	.026 p=.314	-.025 p=.321	-.003 p=.478	-.031 p=.284	.012 p=.416
AUTONOM	.176 p=.000	.181 p=.000	.129 p=.008	.386 p=.000	.313 p=.000	.257 p=.000	.193 p=.000	.299 p=.000
TASKID	.029 p=.298	.090 p=.048	-.014 p=.395	.150 p=.003	.193 p=.000	.129 p=.008	.125 p=.010	.244 p=.000
VARIETY	.177 p=.000	.070 p=.096	.049 p=.183	.361 p=.000	.228 p=.000	.254 p=.000	.139 p=.005	.229 p=.000
TASKSIG	.148 p=.003	.180 p=.000	.108 p=.023	.276 p=.000	.209 p=.000	.197 p=.000	.093 p=.043	.272 p=.000
FEEDBK	.182 p=.000	.179 p=.000	.050 p=.178	.240 p=.000	.220 p=.000	.166 p=.001	.101 p=.030	.240 p=.000
SECURTY	.239 p=.000	.323 p=.000	.193 p=.000	.207 p=.000	.287 p=.000	.197 p=.000	.162 p=.001	.294 p=.000
POLICY	.308 p=.000	.400 p=.000	.246 p=.000	.358 p=.000	.442 p=.000	.323 p=.000	.476 p=.000	.376 p=.000
GOODLIV	.407 p=.000	.325 p=.000	.104 p=.027	.184 p=.000	.293 p=.000	.208 p=.000	.149 p=.003	.310 p=.000
BENFTS	1.00	.254 p=.000	.160 p=.001	.324 p=.000	.202 p=.000	.278 p=.000	.206 p=.000	.267 p=.000

Table 2 - continued

	SYMSUP	INDEP	GROWTH	SATSAL	SATIS	WORKINV	JOBINV
SAFFAIR	-.052 p=.167	-.059 p=.137	-.005 p=.464	.117 p=.015	.035 p=.256	.031 p=.284	-.093 p=.045
AUTONOM	.183 p=.000	.490 p=.000	.267 p=.000	.108 p=.022	.334 p=.000	.107 p=.024	.193 p=.000
TASKID	.155 p=.002	.162 p=.001	.225 p=.000	.002 p=.486	.139 p=.006	.074 p=.085	.068 p=.106
VARIETY	.105 p=.026	.292 p=.000	.172 p=.001	.061 p=.129	.221 p=.000	.079 p=.072	.190 p=.000
TASKSIG	.157 p=.002	.207 p=.000	.301 p=.000	.058 p=.141	.191 p=.000	.028 p=.306	.101 p=.033
FEEDBK	.113 p=.018	.190 p=.000	.187 p=.000	.108 p=.022	.234 p=.000	.119 p=.014	.098 p=.037
SECURTY	.260 p=.000	.352 p=.000	.338 p=.000	.346 p=.000	.430 p=.000	-.042 p=.217	.058 p=.145
POLICY	.472 p=.000	.385 p=.000	.343 p=.000	.304 p=.000	.514 p=.000	.003 p=.475	.182 p=.000
GOODLIV	.151 p=.002	.212 p=.000	.259 p=.000	.870 p=.000	.414 p=.000	.069 p=.101	.146 p=.004
BENFTS	.172 p=.001	.327 p=.000	.271 p=.000	.369 p=.000	.390 p=.000	.055 p=.154	.136 p=.006

Table 2 - continued

	BENFTS	PROMOTE	WORKCON	ENJOY	RESPECT	PEOPLE	COMPSUP	EXCEL
PROMOTE	1.00	.238 p=.000	.379 p=.000	.527 p=.000	.378 p=.000	.333 p=.000	.497 p=.000	
WORKCON		1.00	.227 p=.000	.242 p=.000	.253 p=.000	.263 p=.000	.322 p=.000	
ENJOY			1.00	.544 p=.000	.573 p=.000	.447 p=.000	.509 p=.000	
RESPECT				1.00	.548 p=.000	.446 p=.000	.589 p=.000	
PEOPLE					1.00	.399 p=.000	.440 p=.000	
COMPSUP						1.00	.397 p=.000	
EXCEL							1.00	
SYMSUP								
INDEP								
GROWTH								

Table 2 - continued

	SYMSUP	INDEP	GROWTH	SATSAL	SATIS	WORKINV	JOBINV
PROMOTE	.377 p=.000	.343 p=.000	.539 p=.000	.404 p=.000	.560 p=.000	.041 p=.226	.205 p=.000
WORKCON	.247 p=.000	.287 p=.000	.220 p=.000	.102 p=.028	.291 p=.000	.036 p=.254	.085 p=.060
ENJOY	.382 p=.000	.533 p=.000	.447 p=.000	.195 p=.000	.623 p=.000	.028 p=.305	.215 p=.000
RESPECT	.535 p=.000	.537 p=.000	.548 p=.000	.300 p=.000	.693 p=.000	.086 p=.055	.195 p=.000
PEOPLE	.374 p=.000	.528 p=.000	.394 p=.000	.213 p=.000	.547 p=.000	.073 p=.089	.186 p=.000
COMPSUP	.781 p=.000	.454 p=.000	.313 p=.000	.170 p=.001	.467 p=.000	-.014 p=.401	.144 p=.004
EXCEL	.452 p=.000	.553 p=.000	.599 p=.000	.312 p=.000	.622 p=.000	.068 p=.104	.178 p=.001
SYMSUP	1.00	.467 p=.000	.365 p=.000	.154 p=.002	.488 p=.000	-.026 p=.315	.145 p=.004
INDEP	1.00	1.00	.510 p=.000	.262 p=.000	.597 p=.000	.088 p=.051	.202 p=.000
GROWTH	1.00	1.00	1.00	.280 p=.000	.582 p=.000	.059 p=.140	.154 p=.002

Table 2 - continued

	SYMSUP	INDEP	GROWTH	SATSAL	SATIS	WORKINV	JOBINV
SATSAL				1.00	.456 p=.000	.040 p=.228	.157 p=.002
SATIS					1.00	.072 p=.091	.238 p=.000
WORKINV						1.00	.550 p=.000
JOBINV							1.00

**LEGEND**

- JOBINV = Job Involvement
- WORKINV = Work Involvement
- AUTONOM = Autonomy
- TASKID = Task Identity
- VARIETY = Skill Variety
- TASKSIG = Task Significance
- FEEDBK = Feedback
- GENDER = Gender of Respondent
- AGE = Age of Respondent
- JOB = Job Category of Respondent
- DEGREE = Highest Degree Held by Respondent
- SALARY = Salary of Respondent
- RACE = Racial-Ethnic Background of Respondent
- YRSEXP = Years Employed on Present Job
- SAFFAIR = Years Employed in Student Affairs
- MARITAL = Marital Status of Respondent
- SECURITY = Satisfaction with Amount of Security
- POLICY = Satisfaction with Policies and Practices
- GOODLIV = Satisfaction with Salary to Maintain a Good Living
- BENFTS = Satisfaction with Benefits
- PROMOTE = Satisfaction with Opportunity for Promotions
- WORKCON = Satisfaction with Working Conditions
- ENJOY = Satisfaction with Interesting and Enjoyable Work
- RESPECT = Satisfaction with Respect and Recognition
- PEOPLE = Satisfaction with Interpersonal Relations
- COMPUSP = Satisfaction with Technical Competence of Superior
- EXCEL = Satisfaction with Opportunity to Achieve Excellence
- SYMSUP = Satisfaction with Sympathetic Nature of Superior
- INDEP = Satisfaction with Independence and Responsibility
- GROWTH = Satisfaction with Opportunity to Grow Professionally
- SATSAL = Satisfaction with Amount of Salary for Work Performed
- SATIS = Overall Estimate of Satisfaction

There was no significant correlation between job involvement and any of the following demographics: age, degree, gender, racial-ethnic background and marital status. There was a significant correlation between job involvement and years of experience on the job and job involvement and tenure in student affairs.

As expected, work involvement had fewer correlations to the other variables but was highly correlated to job involvement. There were no significant relationships between work involvement and any of the satisfaction scores. Work involvement had a significant correlation to the job characteristics of autonomy and job feedback. It had a significant relationship to gender, age, job category and degree. The coefficient for degree was negative. Males and older respondents had the highest work involvement scores. The lowest involvement scores were reported by those who had the highest degrees.

### **Multiple Regression Results**

Multiple regression analysis was used to determine the influence of demographic, psychological and situational variables on job involvement. The results of this analysis are shown in Table 3. None of the dummy coded categorical variables were found to make a significant contribution to the amount of variance in job involvement that was

Table 3

## Results of Multiple Regression Analysis of Job Involvement

Analysis of Variance	df	SS	MS	F	Significance of F
Regression	43	105.768	2.460	5.73	.000
Residual	261	112.002	.429		
R = .697					
R <sup>2</sup> = .486					

VARIABLES IN THE EQUATION					
Variable	B	BETA	T	Significance of T	
work involvement	.584585	.579992	11.836	.0000	
satisfaction with respect and recognition	-.099460	-.159794	-2.151	.0324	
satisfaction with interesting and enjoyable nature of work	.109184	.128468	1.767	.0784	

Table 3 - continued

Variable	B	BETA	T	Significance of T
overall satisfaction	.104664	.125157	1.473	.1420
skill variety	.085187	.094133	1.583	.1146
satisfaction with policies and practices	.073876	.112255	1.686	.0931
satisfaction with benefits	-.059265	-.072874	-1.330	.1845
satisfaction with promotion opportunities	.050451	.085870	1.366	.1730
satisfaction with considerate and sympathetic superior	.047933	.083715	1.014	.3117
satisfaction with a chance to achieve excellence	-.044354	-.059746	-.877	.3813
age	-.044127	-.052199	-.802	.4233
satisfaction with adequate salary	.031103	.050267	.466	.6413
satisfaction with competent superior	-.026851	-.049580	-.612	.5412
salary	.023230	.059519	.818	.4140
job feedback	-.021882	-.028415	-.481	.6309
satisfaction with working conditions	-.020945	-.031780	-.626	.5317
satisfaction with interpersonal relations	.016997	.020245	.309	.7579
autonomy	.014393	.015949	.253	.8008
satisfaction with security	-.013633	-.017912	-.314	.7540
satisfaction with independence	-.012155	-.014837	-.204	.8388
satisfaction with opportunity for professional growth	.011371	.016447	.254	.7999
years in student affairs	-.008673	-.077537	-1.096	.2741
degree	.008615	.009625	.185	.8530

Table 3 - continued

Variable	B	BETA	T	Significance of T
task identity	-.005235	-.008252	-.146	.8843
satisfaction with amount of salary	.004357	.007319	.067	.9464
task significance	-.004084	-.003778	-.066	.9477
years on job	-.001539	-.011875	-.178	.8590
(constant)	.801717		1.511	.1321

## DUMMY CODED VARIABLES

Variable	F	Significance of F
gender	.008	>.05
marital status	.013	>.05
racial-ethnic background	.019	>.05
job category	.111	>.05

explained. The variables that were found to be significant contributors were work involvement and satisfaction with respect and recognition for one's work from superiors and coworkers. This model explained 48.6% of the variance in job involvement.

It was expected that work involvement would influence job involvement. Individuals' work socialization score was significantly correlated to the belief that one's job could satisfy one's needs. It was unexpected that satisfaction with the amount of respect and recognition individuals received from superiors and coworkers would influence job involvement. It was surprising that the relationship between satisfaction with respect and recognition and job involvement was negative.

Several variables were nonsignificant but merit discussion. First, satisfaction with the interesting and enjoyable nature of the work, which was rated as the most important job outcome, was expected to have greater contribution to the variance in job involvement, as was overall satisfaction, a variable consistently correlated to involvement. Second, skill variety, often cited in the literature as a characteristic of jobs in student affairs, was expected to be a greater influence, as was satisfaction with policies and procedures and dissatisfaction with benefits. In student affairs, lack of promotion opportunity has been suggested as contributing to attrition, low

involvement, and burnout. However, the results of this study indicated that professionals were satisfied with the opportunity for promotion, and this satisfaction influenced, although nonsignificantly, job involvement.

The demographic variables of age, seniority, and salary were found to be significantly related to job involvement as a cognitive measure by Kanungo (1982). None of these variables were found to be significant contributors to job involvement in this sample.

## CHAPTER V

### CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Job involvement as Knaungo (1979, 1982) described it is a cognitive belief state, a psychological identification with jobs, whereby individuals believe that jobs can satisfy their needs. If needs were satisfied, individuals would spend time and energy on the job. Involvement was an individual difference variable.

Hackman and Oldham (1974, 1980), on the other hand, saw the characteristics of the jobs themselves as being motivating or demotivating to individuals. When there was a lack of involvement, it was hypothesized that jobs needed to be redesigned. Involvement was seen as a situational characteristic.

Studies have been done on both individual and situational characteristics to predict job involvement. However, most of these studies have been done in business and industry. No studies could be found that investigated the effects of individual and situational characteristics on the job involvement of any group within the educational setting.

The purpose of this study was to determine the influence of demographic, psychological, and situational variables on the job involvement of college student affairs professionals in American community and junior colleges.

Data were collected from a sample of 430 through a mailed questionnaire. Multiple regression analysis was used to determine the model which accounted for 49% of the variance in job involvement.

Throughout the research process, questions arose about the validity and the usefulness of the job involvement construct with this sample. First of all, the discrepancy between the definition of job involvement and the questions that purport to measure it was a concern. It seemed a great chasm existed between the answers to questions such as "To me, my job is only a small part of who I am," "I live, eat, and breathe my job," and "The most important things that happen to me involve my present job" and the definition of job involvement as a psychological identification with jobs inasmuch as jobs can satisfy needs. However, Kanungo (1982) has made major advances in attempting to define and measure job involvement.

A second concern was that instruments designed and used in business and industry might not be valid in educational settings. The differences in education, business, and industry have long been noted. Yet, efforts to shape educational work environments into models found in business and industry continue. Kanter (1979) described a plan for reforming work environments in academia in order that there would be a better quality of work life for individuals and increased effectiveness for institutions. She saw the

disengagement of professionals as resulting from situational variables: short career ladders, unclear career paths, and few openings at the top for the many qualified professionals waiting to fill them. She saw the lack of opportunity for professional growth and power as the prime reasons for stagnation. To alleviate this situation, she advocated a business or industry-like structure and process to increase involvement. However, promotions and professional growth were not significant influences on job involvement of student affairs professionals in two-year institutions. What motivates individuals in one work environment may not motivate in another. Differences might be due to the individual, the situation, or the interaction of the two. Perhaps it is a complex interaction where the individual influences the environment and the environment influences the individual, an idea long held by social structure and personality theorists like House (1981). Individuals are both a cause and a consequence of environment. The social structure may shape values and beliefs which, in turn, affects behavior which enables social structures to remain stable.

Another result of this study was that individual characteristics were the best contributors of job involvement. In a similar study of government employees, Sekaran and Mowday (1981) found that job characteristics

were the best contributors of job involvement in their sample.

Another concern was technical. Two questions on the Importance of Job Outcomes and two questions on the Job Satisfaction Scale were confusing to several respondents. Adequate salary for a better standard of living and fair pay were too similar. The author suggests that these two questions be clarified especially since salary is such an important issue. Salary, along with age and seniority, had been found by Kanungo (1982) to be the predictors of job involvement.

### **Conclusions**

Work involvement as the greatest influence on job involvement was an expected finding. Many individuals in American society are socialized to expect that in work they will find meaning, identity, and fulfillment of their life goals.

Professionals in student affairs had their expectations met as indicated by their job involvement scores. Their jobs may have provided the outcomes or the need fulfillment they had been socialized to expect.

The other variable that proved significant, but unexpectedly so, as an influence on job involvement was satisfaction with respect and recognition from coworkers and

superiors. Its relationship to job involvement was negative. This indicated that those who were highly job involved were dissatisfied with the amount of respect and recognition they received. One reason for this might be that those that were highly involved expected more respect and recognition than they received. It could be that high job involvement may compensate for the lack of respect and recognition, a phenomena similar to the results of a study by Moch (1980) who found that high job involvement was a source of identity and esteem for individuals who were socially isolated.

However, respect and recognition from others, an interpersonally mediated extrinsic motivator, may not be a very important outcome since only four individuals (1%) ranked it as their most important job outcome or need. The profession of student affairs has always been bifurcated from others in the institution yet thriving and energetic in itself. Perhaps this finding merely added to the notion that despite their tangential status, student affairs professionals focus on their work and enjoy its interesting nature.

Interpretation of the relationship between job involvement and satisfaction with respect and recognition should be done with caution. Satisfaction with the interesting and enjoyable nature of the work, while nonsignificant, approached contribution. Almost half of the

respondents ranked this outcome as their most important job outcome out of the 15 possible choices.

Overall satisfaction was another variable that approached contribution. Interestingly, no explanation has been found in the literature for job satisfaction even in individuals who planned to leave or who had low involvement. In this study, individuals rated their overall satisfaction as moderate but it did not contribute significantly to job involvement. The relationship between overall satisfaction and involvement is complex and is influenced by the interrelationships of the variables in the model.

High intercorrelations between satisfaction with respect and recognition and other predictors and low correlation between the criterion variable and satisfaction with respect and recognition may have caused instability. The relationship between job involvement and satisfaction with respect and recognition may simply be an artifact, a function of the analysis procedure. To say that one may be satisfied yet uninvolved as the literature suggests is too little information to form any conclusion about the relationship between satisfaction and involvement. In this study, overall satisfaction was a contributor to involvement but a nonsignificant one.

Job skill variety, part of the meaningfulness dimension of work and the obverse of routinization, was expected to have a greater influence on job involvement than it did.

Free (1986) found that routinization was the best predictor of dissatisfaction. Forney et al. (1982) found that burnout was caused by repetitive tasks, lack of variety and boredom. Burns (1980) found that those who left were searching for jobs with greater variety. Hackman and Oldham (1982) found that jobs high on skill variety were highly internally motivating.

The high scores on skill variety indicated that jobs in student affairs used the individual's many skills and talents. For this sample, jobs were not routinized. This may be because so many of the sample (28%) held jobs that included several of the job categories. Regardless of the amount of variety there was, it was not a significant contributor to involvement in this sample.

Lack of satisfaction with the opportunity for promotion, too, was expected to be a great influence on involvement. Researchers have repeatedly found the lack of advancement opportunities as a reason for becoming alienated or stuck in a job or for leaving the field (Burns, 1980; Clements, 1982; Forney et al., 1982; Free, 1986; Kanter, 1979; and Rickard, 1982). Surprisingly, satisfaction with the opportunity for promotion not only approached contribution, its relationship to job involvement was positive.

Finally, satisfaction with policies and practices that are reasonable and nondiscriminatory also approached

contribution to job involvement. No studies were found that examined policies and practices and job involvement. Many organizational variables are extremely complex and have not been studied in relation to job involvement.

### **Recommendations**

Research on job involvement should be extended in several areas. First, studies should be done to determine the job involvement of faculty and administration in two-year institutions to see if student affairs professionals differ from other professionals. Studies should also be done to determine if the job involvement of student affairs professionals in four-year institutions differs from that in two-year institutions. Comparisons should be made by institutional size and type.

Second, the relationship between job involvement and satisfaction with opportunities for promotion, job involvement and satisfaction with respect and recognition and job involvement and satisfaction with policies and practices needs further study.

Third, work behaviors as outcomes of satisfaction and involvement are important variables. Performance, effectiveness, absenteeism, turnover, and attrition should be used to extend this model which utilized only affective and cognitive measures.

Fourth, studies of other areas of involvement such as family, community, and leisure should be done in relationship to job involvement. Finally, studies of job involvement should be done to test the hypothesis that extrinsically motivated individuals are as job involved as the intrinsically motivated if levels of satisfaction with important job outcomes are equal.

The profession should recognize that the older ages of practitioners in community and junior colleges may mean that the problem of unavailability of jobs in student affairs in this educational setting may be eased as natural attrition from the field occurs through retirement over the next decade. This may be accelerated if more states lower their retirement age. One-third of the present work force in two-year institutions is 50 years of age or older. Three-fourths are 40 and over.

The profession should also recognize the exemplary characteristics of its members in community and junior colleges. They are highly job involved. They are motivated by the interesting nature of a job they very much enjoy. They are job involved despite low satisfaction with the amount of respect and recognition they receive from coworkers and superiors for the work they do. This is consistent with the student affairs professional as described in the literature.

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Appendix A: Letter requesting permission to use the Job  
Involvement Scales

October 8, 1987

Professor Rabindra N. Kanungo  
Faculty of Management  
McGill University  
Samuel Bronfman Building  
1001 Sherbrooke St., West  
Montreal, PQ, Canada H3A 1G5

Dear Dr. Kanungo:

Your recent work on job involvement seems most appropriate for the research I plan to do for my doctoral dissertation in Counseling and Student Personnel at Virginia Polytechnic Institute & State University. Both my advisor, Dr. Don Creamer, and I have an interest in the job involvement of college student personnel professionals who practice in community colleges. This is an area in which, as far as we can determine, little if any research has been done. Needless to say, my excitement is high.

I am seeking permission to use the instruments you developed to measure job outcomes, job satisfaction, job involvement, work involvement, and demographics. The form of the job involvement and work involvement instruments most appropriate for my population is the questionnaire with Likert scales. I would like permission to make editorial, not substantive, changes where necessary for clarity of language.

I will be happy to provide you with the results of my research at the conclusion of the dissertation process.

Sincerely,

Sue P. Conrad

Appendix B: Letter of permission



**McGill**

Faculty of Management  
Samuel Bronfman Building  
McGill University

Postal address  
1001 Sherbrooke Street West  
Montreal, PQ, Canada H3A 1G5

October 21, 1987

Sue P. Conrad

U.S.A.

Dear Miss Conrad:

You have my permission to use the various work/job related instruments for your doctoral research with proper acknowledgement.

Sincerely,

R.N. Kanungo /  
Professor

RNK/jh

Appendix C: Letter requesting permission to use the Job Diagnostic Survey

October 8, 1987

Professor J. R. Hackman  
Dept. of Administrative Sciences  
Yale University  
New Haven, CT 06520

Dear Dr. Hackman:

As a doctoral student in Counseling and Student Personnel at Virginia Polytechnic Institute & State University, I am very interested in using the Job Diagnostic Survey for my dissertation. Both my advisor, Dr. Don Creamer, and I are interested in the motivating potential of college student personnel work in community colleges. The specific instruments I would like permission to use are Skill Variety, Task Identity, Task Significance, Autonomy, and Feedback for Job. Please provide me with information on the copyright and royalty fees involved in the use of these instruments.

If you know of studies that have utilized the JDS with the student personnel population I would appreciate it if you could provide the reference. I have found no such studies in the literature.

I will be most pleased to provide you with a copy of the results of my research at the conclusion of the dissertation process.

Sincerely,

Sue P. Conrad

*Ms Conrad -  
Sorry, but I also have  
seen no such studies.  
Good luck in  
your research.*

Notes: 1) The JDS is not copyrighted.

2) Dr. Hackman is now at Harvard University.

**National Survey of  
JOB INVOLVEMENT AND JOB CHARACTERISTICS OF  
STUDENT AFFAIRS PROFESSIONALS IN  
COMMUNITY AND JUNIOR COLLEGES**



**VIRGINIA TECH**  
College Student Affairs Program

## SECTION I Importance of Job Outcomes

### Instructions

Below is a list of things people look for in their job. Please read all the items from top to bottom before making any choice. Then rank order the items. First decide which one you think is the MOST important to you in YOUR PRESENT JOB and then place 1 in the blank provided for the item. Do the same for your choice 2, 3, 4, 5, and so on. Since there are 15 items in the list given below, your choice 15 would represent the thing that is LEAST important to you in your present job. Please be sure you have placed a number opposite each item.

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. Security (permanent job, steady work)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. Adequate salary (for a better standard of living)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. Benefits (vacations, bonus, pension, insurance, profit sharing, medical benefits, disability, dental benefits, and so on)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. Opportunity for future promotion
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. Comfortable working conditions (pleasant surroundings, good lighting, air conditioning, good office space, and so on)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 6. Interesting nature of work (a job that you very much enjoy)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 7. Sound company policies and practices (reasonable and nondiscriminatory)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 8. Respect and recognition (from superiors and coworkers for your work)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 9. Responsibility and independence (a job that gives you responsibility to work in your own way)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 10. Achievement (opportunity to achieve excellence in your work)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 11. Good interpersonal relations (a job that gives you the opportunity to work with others whom you like)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 12. Considerate and sympathetic superior
- \_\_\_\_\_ 13. Technically competent superior
- \_\_\_\_\_ 14. Opportunity for professional growth (to become more skilled and competent on the job)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 15. Fair pay for the work you do

## SECTION II Job Satisfaction

### Instructions

In this part are listed some job characteristics or qualities that people look for in their jobs. Please indicate your degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with each of the job qualities in YOUR PRESENT JOB. Using the scale provided, please indicate your feeling by circling the appropriate response.

- |   |                             |
|---|-----------------------------|
|   | 1 = Extremely Dissatisfied  |
|   | 2 = Moderately Dissatisfied |
|   | 3 = Mildly Dissatisfied     |
|   | 4 = Mildly Satisfied        |
|   | 5 = Moderately Satisfied    |
|   | 6 = Extremely Satisfied     |
| 16. With the amount of security I have on my job, I feel  | 1    2    3    4    5    6  |
| 17. With the kind of company policies and practices that govern my job, I feel                            | 1    2    3    4    5    6  |
| 18. With the amount of salary that I receive to maintain a reasonable good living, I feel                 | 1    2    3    4    5    6  |
| 19. With the kind of benefit plans (vacation, retirement, medical, and so on) that go with my job, I feel | 1    2    3    4    5    6  |

20. With the chance of future promotion I have in my job, I feel	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. With the kind of working conditions (lighting, noise, office space, and so on) surrounding my job, I feel	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. With the interesting or enjoyable nature of the work, I feel	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. With the amount of recognition and respect that I receive for my work, I feel	1	2	3	4	5	6
24. With the opportunity I have in my job to work with people I like, I feel	1	2	3	4	5	6
25. With the technical competence of my immediate supervisor, I feel	1	2	3	4	5	6
26. With the opportunity that I have in my job to achieve excellence in my work, I feel	1	2	3	4	5	6
27. With the considerate and sympathetic nature of my immediate supervisor, I feel	1	2	3	4	5	6
28. With the kind of responsibility and independence that I have in my job, I feel	1	2	3	4	5	6
29. With the opportunity for professional growth in skill and competence, I feel	1	2	3	4	5	6
30. With the amount of salary I receive for the work I do, I feel	1	2	3	4	5	6
31. From an overall consideration, with respect to my job, I feel	1	2	3	4	5	6

### SECTION III Job Involvement

#### Instructions

Below are a number of statements with which you may agree or disagree depending on your personal evaluation of YOUR PRESENT JOB. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by circling the appropriate response, based on the following scale:

- 1 = Strongly Disagree
- 2 = Disagree
- 3 = Mildly Disagree
- 4 = Mildly Agree
- 5 = Agree
- 6 = Strongly Agree

32. The most important things that happen to me involve my present job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33. I'll stay overtime to finish my job, even if I'm not paid for it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34. To me, my job is only a small part of who I am.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35. I am very much involved personally in my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36. Generally I avoid taking on extra duties and responsibilities in my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
37. I live, eat, and breathe my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
38. Sometimes I'd like to kick myself for the mistakes I make in my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
39. Most of my interests are centered around my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6

- 1 = Strongly Disagree  
 2 = Disagree  
 3 = Mildly Disagree  
 4 = Mildly Agree  
 5 = Agree  
 6 = Strongly Agree

- |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 40. I have very strong ties with my present job which would be very difficult to break. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 41. Usually I feel detached from my job.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 42. Most of my personal life goals are job-oriented.                                    | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 43. I feel depressed when I fail at something connected with my job.                    | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 44. I consider my job to be very central to my existence.                               | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 45. I have other activities which are more satisfying than my job.                      | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 46. I like to be absorbed in my job most of the time.                                   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

#### SECTION IV Work Involvement

##### Instructions

Below are a number of statements with which you may agree or disagree depending on your personal evaluation of WORK IN GENERAL without reference to your present job. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by circling the appropriate response, based on the following scale:

- 1 = Strongly Disagree  
 2 = Disagree  
 3 = Mildly Disagree  
 4 = Mildly Agree  
 5 = Agree  
 6 = Strongly Agree

- |  |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 47. The most important things that happen in life involve work.              | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 48. Work is something people should get involved in most of the time.        | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 49. Work should be only a small part of one's life.                          | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 50. Happiness in life comes mainly through work.                             | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 51. People feel guilty if they don't work.                                   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 52. Work should be considered central to life.                               | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 53. There are other activities which are more meaningful than work.          | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 54. In my view, an individual's personal life goals should be work-oriented. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 55. Work should be a fulfilling experience.                                  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 56. Life is worth living only when people get absorbed in work.              | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 57. People should derive satisfaction from work.                             | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

61. In general, how significant or important is your job? That is, are the results of your work likely to significantly affect the lives or well-being of other people?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7

Not very significant, the outcomes of my work are not likely to have important effects on other people.

Moderately significant.

Highly significant; the outcomes of my work can affect other people in very important ways.

62. To what extent does doing the job itself provide you with information about your work performance? That is, does the actual work itself provide clues about how well you are doing—aside from any "feedback" co-workers or supervisors may provide?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7

Very little; the job itself is set up so I could work forever without finding out how well I am doing.

Moderately; sometimes doing the job provides "feedback" to me; sometimes it does not.

Very much; the job is set up so that I get almost constant "feedback" as I work about how well I am doing.

### SECTION VI

Listed below are a number of statements which could be used to describe a job.

You are to indicate whether each statement is an ACCURATE or an INACCURATE description of YOUR job.

Once again, please try to be as objective as you can in deciding how accurately each statement describes your job—regardless of whether you like or dislike your job.

Please circle the appropriate response, based on the following scale:

- 1 = Very Inaccurate
- 2 = Mostly Inaccurate
- 3 = Slightly Inaccurate
- 4 = Uncertain
- 5 = Slightly Accurate
- 6 = Mostly Accurate
- 7 = Very Accurate

- |  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 62. The job requires me to use a number of complex or high-level skills.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 64. The job is arranged so that I do <u>not</u> have the chance to do an entire piece of work from beginning to end. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 65. Just doing the work required by the job provides many chances for me to figure out how well I am doing.          | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 66. The job is quite simple and repetitive.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 67. This job is one where a lot of other people can be affected by how well the work gets done.                      | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 68. The job denies me any chance to use my personal initiative or judgment in carrying out the work.                 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 69. The job provides me the chance to completely finish the piece of work I begin.                                   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

70. The job itself provides very few clues about whether or not I am performing well. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
71. The job gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
72. The job itself is not very significant or important in the broader scheme of things. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

**SECTION VII**

Research indicates that individuals have a predisposition to use thinking, feeling, or acting or a combination of these in response to various life situations. Mark with an X each of the 3 scales below in terms of how you see yourself functioning along each continuum in your present job situation.

73. Thinking 0—0—0—0—0—0—0—0 Feeling
74. Feeling 0—0—0—0—0—0—0—0 Acting
75. Acting 0—0—0—0—0—0—0—0 Thinking

**SECTION VIII  
Demographic Information**

Please place a check in the blank next to the response that is appropriate for you.

76. Gender:  
 Male  
 Female
77. Age:  
 under 20  
 20-29  
 30-39  
 40-49  
 50-59  
 60 and over
78. Job Category:  
 Counseling and Advising  
 Career Planning and Placement  
 Student Activities and Recreation  
 Financial Aid  
 Enrollment Services  
 Special Services  
 Administration  
 Other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_
79. Highest degree held:  
 Bachelors  
 Masters  
 Specialist/CAGS  
 Doctorate

(continued on back)

## 80. Salary:

- under \$15,000
- 15,001 to 20,000
- 20,001 to 25,000
- 25,001 to 30,000
- 30,001 to 35,000
- 35,001 to 40,000
- 40,001 to 45,000
- 45,001 to 50,000
- 50,001 or over

## 81. Racial-Ethnic background:

- Spanish surnamed
- Oriental
- Black
- White, not of Hispanic origin
- Native American

Please fill in the following information:

82. Years employed on present job \_\_\_\_\_

83. Years employed in student affairs \_\_\_\_\_

## 84. Marital status:

- Married
- Never married
- Previously married

Thank You

Sections I through IV are questions that were developed from existing instruments by Dr. R.N. Kanungo of McGill University in Toronto, Canada to study what people think and feel about their jobs as well as work in general. Sections V and VI are instruments that were developed as part of a Yale University study of jobs and how people react to them. Section VII was developed by Dr. David Hutchins of Virginia Tech.

Appendix E: Cover letter for first mailing

VIRGINIA TECH

Division of Administrative  
and Educational Services

University City Office Building  
Blacksburg, Virginia 24061-0302

November 7, 1988

Dear Colleague,

The quality of work life is most likely related to the delivery of services to students and to institutional effectiveness. The purpose of this study is to examine the quality of work life in student affairs by exploring the relationship between the characteristics of the jobs and the individuals' involvement in them.

Your perceptions and opinions about your job in student affairs will be the basis for analyzing jobs in student affairs and for better understanding the individuals who perform them. To my knowledge no study of such magnitude and complexity on the topic of job analysis and involvement has ever been conducted in any educational setting. Community and junior college student affairs professionals will be the first to examine such issues.

You are one of a randomly drawn national sample of student affairs professionals in community and junior colleges who are being asked for their opinions. In order that the results of this study be truly representative of our profession, it is important that each questionnaire be completed and returned.

You may be assured of complete confidentiality. The identification number on your questionnaire is for accounting purposes only. Your name will be checked off the mailing list when your questionnaire is received.

The results of this study will be disseminated through conferences and publications. If you would like a copy of the results, write "copy of results requested" and your name and address on a piece of paper and mail it with your questionnaire in the return envelope.

I will be most willing to answer any questions you might have. Please write me at Virginia Tech or call me at home at (703) 980-6218.

Thank you for your contribution to this important study.

Sincerely,

Sue P. Conrad  
Doctoral Candidate

Don G. Creamer  
Professor and Division Director

Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University

Appendix F: Post card reminder

November 14, 1988

Recently a questionnaire asking your opinion about your job was mailed to you. Your name was drawn from a random sample of junior and community college student affairs professionals in the United States.

If you have already completed and returned the questionnaire, please accept my sincerest thanks. If not, please do so today. Because the questionnaire was sent to a small, but representative, sample it is important that yours be included in the study to insure accurate job information.

If by chance you did not receive the questionnaire, or if it was misplaced, please call me collect at (703) 980-6218 and I will mail you another copy.

Sincerely,

Sue Conrad, Doctoral Candidate  
Don G. Creamer, Ed.D., Professor

Appendix G: Cover letter for second mailing

VIRGINIA TECH

Division of Administrative  
and Educational Services

University City Office Building  
Blacksburg, Virginia 24061-0302

November 29, 1988

Dear Colleague,

About three weeks ago I wrote to you asking you about your perception of your job in student affairs. As of today I have not received your completed questionnaire.

This research was undertaken because of the belief that professionals should have the opportunity to express their opinions about the jobs they do. I am writing to you again because of the importance your questionnaire has to the usefulness of this research. Your name was drawn through a scientific sampling process of nearly 800 community and junior colleges in the United States. In order for this study to be representative of the perceptions of all professionals in community and junior colleges it is essential that each person return the questionnaire.

The questionnaire may appear to be long, but the design makes it easy to complete. You are asked to fill in a blank, circle a number, or check an item. The questionnaire is divided into eight sections, each of which is an important part of the job analysis.

In case your questionnaire has been misplaced a replacement is enclosed. After you complete the questionnaire simply place it in the return envelope and drop it in the mail.

Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

✓ Sue P. Conrad  
Doctoral Candidate

Don G. Creamer  
Professor and Division Director

Appendix H: Cover letter for third mailing

VIRGINIA TECH

Division of Administrative  
and Educational Services

University City Office Building  
Blacksburg, Virginia 24061-0302

January 9, 1989

Dear Colleague:

I am writing to you about the study of student affairs professionals' perceptions and opinions of their jobs in community and junior colleges. I have not received your questionnaire.

Many individuals have returned their questionnaires and have requested a copy of the results. Other have taken the time to write comments about their jobs. But, I feel that for this topic to be taken as seriously as possible it needs the highest response rate possible. Those of you who have not responded may have opinions that are entirely different from those who have responded.

To my knowledge, this is the first national study of job analysis in student affairs ever conducted. Therefore, the results are of particular importance to our profession, to us as professionals, to our institutions, to our policy makers and to the students we serve. The usefulness of this study depends on the accuracy of your reporting. Your perceptions are very important. I am asking you to complete and return the questionnaire as soon as possible.

You may obtain a copy of the results if you so desire. Just put your name, address and "Results Requested" on a piece of paper and include it with your questionnaire in the return envelope.

Your contribution to the success of this research is sincerely appreciated.

Sincerely,

Sue P. Conrad  
Doctoral Candidate

Don G. Creamer  
Professor and Division Director

Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University

**The vita has been removed from  
the scanned document**