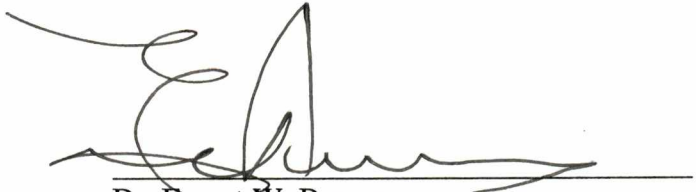


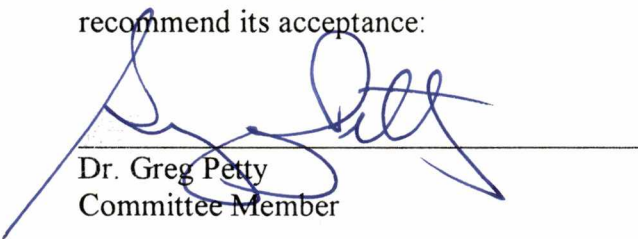
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I am submitting herewith a thesis written by Barbara E. Bright entitled "Job Satisfaction and Burnout in Clerical Workers at an Institution of Higher Education." I have examined the final copy of this thesis for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science, with a major in Human Resource Development.

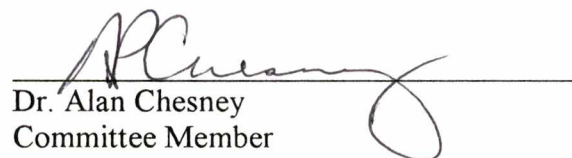


Dr. Ernest W. Brewer
Major Professor and Committee Chair

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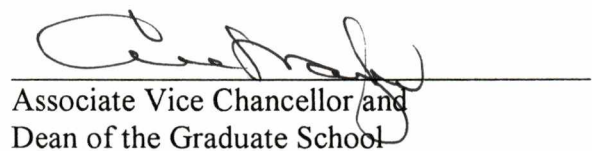


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JOB SATISFACTION AND BURNOUT IN CLERICAL WORKERS AT AN
INSTITUTION OF HIGHER EDUCATION

A Thesis
Presented for the
Master of Science
Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Barbara E. Bright
August 2000

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DEDICATION

This thesis is lovingly dedicated to my parents, Bobby and Carrie Ann Bright, who have patiently supported me throughout my lifetime. Through their love and support, I have been given the gift of an education.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Job burnout and job satisfaction are two topics that are frequently seen as interrelated (Farber, 1983, Jayaratne & Chess, 1984, Maslach & Jackson, 1984, Penn, Romano, & Foat, 1988) and both job burnout and job satisfaction have been linked to turnover rates (Maslach, 1978, Maslach & Jackson, 1981, 1985). Since recruitment and retention of qualified clerical employees is a necessary component of a successful human resources program, job satisfaction and burnout have been identified as key research factors for human resources professionals. Attracting, hiring, and retaining qualified clerical employees are integral to helping organizations achieve and maintain high levels of effectiveness. Knowing what aspects of the job impact job satisfaction and burnout could assist human resources professionals in understanding clerical employees and in identifying methods to make their jobs more satisfying.

To understand clerical employees, one must look at literature written about the subject. There is much literature about working women (Goldberg, 1983, Murphree, 1986, Needleman & Nelson, 1998, Phillips & Imhoff, 1997) and particularly women's wages (Crosby, 1982, Kahn & Figart, 1998, Scott, 1984) and socioeconomic status (Nam & Powers, 1983, Nam & Terrie, 1982, Powers, 1982). Women earn only a fraction of what their male counterparts earn even though female employees make up a major part of the business world today (Crosby, 1982, Kahn & Figart, 1998, Meleis & Stevens, 1992, Needleman & Nelson, 1998). Due to the importance of recruiting, hiring, retaining, and, most importantly, understanding clerical workers, these topics need to be researched by human resources professionals.

Statement of the Problem

In a personal conversation with a senior official of this institution (A. P. Chesney personal communication, April 1998), it was discovered that there is a need at this institution of higher education to determine how socioeconomic status differences and employee benefits impact burnout and job satisfaction in female clerical employees. This discussion and an article on the living wage (Balloch, 1999) became the basis for this study. Socioeconomic status, for this study, was based on income, education, and marital status. Some employee benefits identified by this institution were health care plans, educational assistance, professional development, and flexible work schedules. This information could be helpful in the recruitment and retention of clerical employees. Not much is known regarding the levels of job burnout and satisfaction among clerical employees.

Assumptions

The following assumptions were made in this study

- 1 The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) and the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) were valid instruments for measuring job satisfaction and burnout respectively
- 2 Subjects answered each of the survey questions honestly
- 3 Subjects' individual salaries were a representation of their socioeconomic status

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to assess the levels of job satisfaction and burnout in different categories of clerical employees at an institution of higher education and to identify the impact of marital status and total remuneration of female clerical employees.

Employees included were slotted into one of four groups based on demographic factors. These demographic factors included socioeconomic status and benefits used by the employees. The study was designed to give insight as to why current employees continue their employment with an organization. Using various statistical methods such as multivariate analyses, this study looked for any significant relationships between burnout, job satisfaction, and demographic variables. It was believed the results could have further implications for improving recruitment and retention of clerical employees by determining important aspects of clerical employees' positions and by determining which areas may need improvement or attention by the administration.

Definitions

There are certain terms used in this study. The following definitions should be referred to for interpretation.

- 1 **Burnout** "a syndrome of emotional exhaustion and cynicism that occurs frequently among individuals who do *people work*" (Maslach & Jackson, 1981, p. 99)
- 2 **Clerical Employees:** Employees who perform clerical-type work "concerned with compiling, recording, communication, computing, and otherwise systematizing data" (U.S. Department of Labor, 1991, p. 171)
- 3 **Job Satisfaction** "the fulfillment or gratification of certain needs of an individual that are associated with one's work" (Hopkins, 1983, p. 7)
- 4 **Living Wage** A wage paid to an individual that allows an individual to support him- or herself and his or her family without having to rely on government subsidies (Pollin & Luce, 1998). For this study, the living wage is defined as \$19,000 annually (Knapp, 1998)
- 5 **Socioeconomic status** "of or relating to, or involving a combination of social and economic factors specifically, of or relating to income and social position considered as a single factor" (*Webster's Third New International Dictionary*, 1976, p. 2163)

- 6 **Groups *m* and *b*** The two different groups of clerical employees based on salary. Group *m* were those subjects at or above \$19,000 per year, and group *b* were those subjects below \$19,000 per year

Demographic Variables

Demographic variables were employed in this study. Subjects were asked to select the category that best described them (Appendix A). Marital status was divided into the following categories: (a) never married, (b) married, (c) divorced, (d) separated, and (e) widowed. Age was divided into the following categories: (a) under 25, (b) 25 to 34, (c) 35 to 44, (d) 45 to 54, (e) 55 to 64, and (f) 65 or older. Subjects were asked to denote their gender.

Regarding the question of highest level of education that the subjects had completed, the choices were: (a) less than a high school degree, (b) completed high school/GED, (c) some technical school, (d) some college, (e) associate's degree, (f) bachelor's degree, (g) some graduate work, and (h) master's degree or beyond. The choices for length of service at this institution were: (a) less than 5 years, (b) 5-10 years, (c) 11-15 years, and (d) more than 15 years. Regarding whether or not the subject had ever received a promotion at this institution, the choices were: (a) no, (b) been promoted once, (c) been promoted twice, and (d) been promoted three or more times. Subjects described their positions as being either (a) full-time (40 hours per week) or (b) part-time (less than 40 hours per week).

Subjects were asked whether or not during the past year they: (a) attended training programs, (b) used the fee waiver at this institution, (c) participated in the institution's health care plans, and (d) had a flexible work schedule. For these questions, the answers were "yes" and "no."

Limitations

There were major limitations of the study. The following is a list of these

- 1 Responses were voluntary. Every effort was made to collect as many responses as possible, including (a) follow-up letters, (b) phone calls, and (c) drawing for prizes.
- 2 Non-respondents could have been burned out or had lower reports of job satisfaction. This could have changed the results if they had responded.
- 3 It was not known whether or not causality existed in this study. It was not known whether burnout caused changes in job satisfaction or job satisfaction caused changes in burnout.
- 4 The timing of the survey may have been a limitation. The survey was mailed out in January, and the subjects had just returned from a one-week break for the Christmas holiday. If conducted during the summer months, subjects could have responded differently on the survey due to overtime.
- 5 The researcher only considered the individual salaries of the subjects. It would have been helpful to know the total socioeconomic status of the subjects.
- 6 Both instruments reported demographic norms differently. This made it difficult to compare results.

Objective

The objective of this study was to determine whether or not there were any significant differences between scores on the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) and the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) in clerical female employees based on socioeconomic status. The study also examined how the availability and use of educational fee waivers, professional development opportunities, and the usage of other benefits affected job satisfaction and burnout. This was determined by seeing if there was a link between higher scores on the satisfaction instrument and lower scores on the burnout instrument and the benefits used by the employees. This study also examined how salary affected

job satisfaction and burnout and how educational level and marital status of the employee affected job satisfaction and burnout

Research Questions

When designing this study, two questions were formulated. These questions became the guiding basis for this study.

1. What are the demographics of the clerical employees at this institution?
2. Are there significant differences in the demographics as determined by the Job Descriptive Index and the Maslach Burnout Inventory? This will be addressed by the following questions:
 - a. How does income as defined by a living wage impact job satisfaction and burnout?
 - b. How does educational level impact job satisfaction and burnout?
 - c. How does marital status impact job satisfaction and burnout?
 - d. How does the use of the health care plan impact job satisfaction and burnout?
 - e. How does the use of the educational fee waiver impact job satisfaction and burnout?
 - f. How does the use of professional development programs impact job satisfaction and burnout?
 - g. How do flexible work schedules impact job satisfaction and burnout?
 - h. Does promotion impact job satisfaction and burnout?
 - i. Does length of service impact job satisfaction and burnout?

Hypotheses

The study was designed to show the demographics of the clerical employees at this institution and to determine whether or not there were significant differences in those demographics as determined by the Job Descriptive Index and the Maslach Burnout Inventory. There were questions developed to determine this, as mentioned in the above section. Those questions led to the development of nine null hypotheses listed below.

- H₀₁ There will be no significant differences for subjects based on income as defined by a living wage and job satisfaction and burnout.

- H₀2 There will be no significant differences for subjects based on educational level and job satisfaction and burnout
- H₀3 There will be no significant differences for subjects based on marital status and job satisfaction and burnout
- H₀4 There will be no significant differences for subjects based on the use of the health care plan and job satisfaction and burnout
- H₀5 There will be no significant differences for subjects based on the use of the educational fee waiver and job satisfaction and burnout.
- H₀6 There will be no significant differences for subjects based on the use of professional development programs and job satisfaction and burnout
- H₀7 There will be no significant differences for subjects on the basis of flexible work schedules and job satisfaction and burnout
- H₀8 There will be no significant differences for subjects who had been promoted and job satisfaction and burnout
- H₀9 There will be no significant differences for subjects based on length of service and job satisfaction and burnout

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND RESEARCH

Burnout, job satisfaction, the living wage, working women, and socioeconomic status are all topics that have generated copious volumes of research. All are relevant topics to the human resources field. Burnout and job satisfaction are closely related. According to Cordes and Dougherty (1993), "The most commonly accepted definition of burnout was the three component conceptualization used by Maslach and colleagues" (p 623). This definition stated that burnout was a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment that occurred among individuals who do some sort of *people work*. Many studies have been conducted on the relationship between job satisfaction and burnout (Farber, 1983, Jayaratne & Chess, 1984, Maslach & Jackson, 1984, Penn et al, 1988). However, much of the published literature on burnout has been in the human services or social work field, while most of the literature published on job satisfaction has been on blue-collar and white-collar professionals (Farber, 1983). A living wage has become a popular topic and one that has been researched for the last century. Pollin and Luce (1998) defined the living wage movement as one "for family values: the value of adult workers raising children in decent circumstances without having to depend on government subsidies" (p 2).

Female participation in the world of work has steadily increased since the 1970s. Goldberg (1983) stated, "The trend that began in the late nineteenth century, the expansion of the clerical workforce and the increasing predominance of women in that occupation, continued throughout the twentieth century" (p 15). "By 1920, 50 percent of

clerical workers were women” (Goldberg, p 13) This review of the literature addressed each of these issues

Burnout

Burnout Defined

Burnout is a syndrome that is characterized by physical, emotional, and mental exhaustion that affects a wide variety of employees “The problem of burnout has captured the interest and imagination of those involved in the human services” (Cherniss, 1980a, p 11) As a result of numerous studies, “speeches, symposia, workshops, and published papers on the topic [of burnout] suggest[ing] that staff burnout is indeed a major problem and concern in the human services” (Cherniss, 1980a, p 11).

Theories of Burnout

The concept of burnout was developed in the mid-1970s (Schaufeli, Maslach, & Marek, 1993) A psychiatrist, H J Freudenberger, worked with many volunteers in an alternative health care agency He found that many of the volunteers “experienced a gradual emotional depletion and a loss of motivation and commitment” (Schaufeli et al , p 2) According to Koeske and Kelly (1995), Freudenberger was the first to describe the concept of burnout Freudenberger (1974) cited a dictionary definition of burnout as causing a person to fail, to wear out, or to become exhausted by using excessive amounts of resources, strength, or energy He stated that this was exactly what happened to workers who burn out and soon become “inoperative to all intents and purposes” (p 160) He noted several different symptoms varying from person to person such as exhaustion, fatigue, illness, frequent headaches and gastrointestinal disturbances, sleeplessness, and shortness of breath

About the same time as Freudenberger (1974), Maslach (1976), a social psychology researcher, was studying ways in which people coped with emotional arousal on the job. She was looking at “such cognitive strategies as ‘detached concern’ and ‘dehumanization in self-defense,’ but soon discovered that both the arousal and the strategies had important implications for people’s professional identity and job behavior” (Schaufeli et al, 1993, p. 2). Maslach and Freudenberger were credited for originating the term *burnout*.

There are many definitions for the term burnout. When beginning to define the term, one might first seek out the dictionary definition. *The American Heritage Dictionary* (1985) defined burnout as, “physical or emotional exhaustion, especially as a result of long-term stress” (p. 219). From this definition, one might conclude that burnout was a “disease of overcommitment” (Cherniss, 1980a, p. 16). Freudenberger (1974) stated that dedicated and committed workers were prone to burnout. Maslach and Jackson (1985) defined burnout as a “syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among individuals who do people work of some kind” (p. 837).

With the creation of the MBI Human Services Survey came a commonly accepted definition of the term burnout (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993, Singh, Goolsby, & Rhoads, 1994). Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter (1996) stated that burnout is best measured on a continuous scale, rather than simply as being present or absent. The three components of burnout were emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment (Maslach et al.).

Studies of Burnout

According to Maslach et al (1996), emotional exhaustion was defined as the feeling of being emotionally overextended and exhausted by work. It was also theorized by Maslach and others that the first step in burnout was emotional exhaustion. Emotional exhaustion was believed to cause depersonalization that then led to lower personal accomplishment (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993, Maslach et al)

Edelwich and Brodsky (1980) defined burnout as a “progressive loss of idealism, energy, purpose, and concern as a result of conditions of work” (p 14). Pines, Aronson, and Kafry (1981) noted that burnout was “characterized by physical depletion, by feelings of helplessness and hopelessness, by emotional drain, and by the development of negative self-concept and negative attitudes toward work, life, and other people” (p 15). Pines, quoting herself and Aronson in Schaufeli et al (1993), argued, “The root cause of burnout lies in our need to believe that our lives are meaningful, that the things we do—and consequently we ourselves—are useful and important” (p 33). Similarly, Cherniss (1980a) stated, “Others have focused on changes in motivation. One no longer lives to work but works only to live. In other words, the term refers to the loss of enthusiasm, excitement, and a sense of mission in one’s work” (p 16). Maslach and Leiter (1997) wrote that many people believed that burnout is mainly a problem of the individual—that “people burn out because of flaws in their characters, behavior, or productivity” (p 18). They stated that burnout was actually a problem of the “social environment in which people work” (p 18).

According to Maslach (1978) and Maslach and Jackson (1981), studies of burnout were frequently correlated with topics such as employees’ low morale, absenteeism, and

high job turnover Furthermore, they linked burnout with employees' self-reported incidents of "personal distress, including physical exhaustion, insomnia, increased use of alcohol and drugs, and marital and family problems" (p 100) Kilburg, Nathan, and Thoreson (1986) noted that people with elevated levels of burnout wanted to spend less time in direct work with clients, they avoided people, were absent from work or took longer breaks, and more frequently wanted to quit their jobs

Kilburg et al (1986) stated that there have been many proposed sources of burnout These sources ranged from the "personal (expectations, motivations, and personality) to the interpersonal (client contact, relations with co-workers and supervisors, and relations with family and friends) to the organizations (workload, bureaucracy, feedback, and work pressure)" (Kilburg et al , p 62)

Linking burnout to job stress, Cherniss (1980b) stated

Burnout is a process that begins with excessive and prolonged levels of job stress This stress produces strain in the worker (feelings of tension, irritability, and fatigue) The process is completed when the workers defensively cope with the job stress by psychologically detaching themselves from the job and becoming apathetic, cynical, or rigid (p 21)

Likewise, Cordes and Dougherty (1993) argued that burnout is a type of job stress "in which a pattern of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and diminished personal accomplishment (strains) result from a variety of work demands (stressors), especially those of an interpersonal nature" (p 625)

Numerous studies on burnout have been done with human services workers Initial articles about burnout appeared in the mid-1970s in the United States (Freudenberger, 1974, Maslach, 1976) According to Pines and other researchers (1981),

burnout "is insidious in that it usually does not occur as the result of one or two traumatic events but sneaks up through a general erosion of the spirit" (p 3)

Maslach (1982b) stated that burnout was at first considered an issue with the helping professions, but now it has been "expanded beyond these original borders, is now considered applicable to many other sorts of occupations" (p 33) Cherniss (1982) stated that most interest for the topic of burnout was in the human services area, but that it occurred in many other occupations Farber (1983) noted that burnout afflicted human services professionals, but has also affected parents, students, blue-collar workers, and others In addition, there have been studies conducted on subjects from nurses to teachers to police officers to dentists to customer service representatives and priests The study of burnout is important for all of these subjects in that all are expected to deliver high levels of quality service to their customers in situations that can be perceived as stressful

However, research has not been conducted on burnout in female clerical workers In this study, clerical workers were members of the helping profession by their helping their bosses, helping customers, and serving institutions and organizations According to Statham (1998), clerical workers are workers who serve Needleman and Nelson (1998) stated that women's work is often related to serving others, whether it is an employer, a patient, or the public

Golembiewski and Munzenrider (1988) stated that even though much of the research on burnout has studied people in the helping professions, there should not be too much emphasis placed on the "association between burnout and these professions" (p 12)

The overall evidence shows that burnout is where you find it, that is, everywhere, whether at high levels of organization or low, in various demographic aggregates, and so on. We should not, however, neglect the solid connection between the helping professions and burnout (Golenbiewski & Munzenrider, 1988, p. 12)

Kahn (1978) suggested that organizational psychology could be helpful in understanding job burnout. Kahn related certain occupations with specific stresses and stated that as occupations are ranked by their socioeconomic status, they are also ranked according to the various emotional and social strains that are associated with various occupations. In other words, the lower the job is socioeconomically, the higher the level of physical and emotional strain becomes.

Maslach and Jackson (1985) stated that women were far more likely to experience burnout than men. They listed several reasons to support this idea, such as (a) women get more emotionally involved in their jobs, (b) women overextend themselves emotionally, and (c) women more frequently enter people-work occupations. Citing these reasons, they stated that women "are thus more at risk for burnout, [and] they are more likely to be in positions involving direct contact with people (such as 'front-line' staff) and less likely to be in higher level administrative positions" (Maslach & Jackson, p. 838).

Cordes and Dougherty (1993) stated that younger respondents reported higher levels of burnout and that married respondents reported lower levels of burnout. They also reported that married respondents with children reported lower levels of burnout.

Maslach (1976) stated that professionals who discussed their feelings and problems with co-workers had lower burnout rates. Cordes and Dougherty (1993) reported that social support from supervisors or co-workers was associated with lower levels of burnout. However, Maslach (1982a) wrote that co-workers could often be a

source of stress that added to burnout. Likewise, Maslach and Jackson (1981) noted that a supervisor could be either a valuable source of coping with burnout or a hindrance to alleviating burnout.

Effects of Burnout

There were several negative effects of burnout. Freudenberger and Richelson (1980) described a number of clinical burnout symptoms such as exhaustion, detachment, boredom, cynicism, impatience, heightened irritability, sense of omnipotence, suspicion of being unappreciated, paranoia, disorientation, denial of feelings, and psychosomatic complaints. Cherniss (1980a) added to the list of symptoms,

a high resistance to going to work every day, a sense of failure, anger and resentment, guilt and blame, frequent clock-watching, great fatigue after work, frequent colds and flus, frequent headaches and gastrointestinal disturbances, marital and family conflict, and high absenteeism (p. 17)

Cherniss (1980a) wrote that burnout was defined “as a process in which a previously committed professional disengages from his or her work in response to stress and strain experienced in the job” (p. 18). Miller (1995) placed employee burnout symptoms into three main categories: physical, behavioral, and cognitive/affective (see Table 1).

Potter (1980) stated that for much of the workforce, the way that the organization was structured could minimize personal power. “Bureaucratic practices set limits to the assertion of power by individuals in the organization, but the possession of power in organizations reduces the harmful consequences of bureaucracy to the individual” (Potter, p. 28).

Table 1. Symptoms of Job Burnout

Type of Burnout and Symptoms
Physical
Physical exhaustion
Malaise
Headaches and back pain
Gastrointestinal disturbances
Lingering minor illnesses
Behavioral
Easily agitated, angered, and irritated
Relationship problems
Marital problems
Increased alcohol and drug abuse
Impulsivity
Cognitive/Affective
Hypersensitivity or emotionally numb
Grief, sadness, or depression
Indecision, boredom, and distraction
Pessimism, cynicism, and hopelessness

Note Miller (1995), p 22

Referring to the importance of relating the effects of burnout on organizations, Maslach and Jackson (1984) wrote, "Until researchers document that burnout has real consequences that impede the accomplishment of organizational goals, organizations will be reluctant to experiment with restructuring the work of employees at risk for burnout" (p 146) Maslach and Leiter (1997) stated that the costs of burnout for organizations are increasing They noted that the workforce no longer provides the "dedication, creativity, and productivity that it once did" (p 20)

The Maslach Burnout Inventory Human Services Survey

Study of burnout led to the development of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). The MBI was designed to measure burnout specifically for members of the helping professions. Cordes and Dougherty (1993) stated that the MBI does not measure whether or not a person has experienced burnout but that “experienced levels of burnout fall on a continuum” (p. 626). According to Maslach et al. (1996), burnout of an individual is measured using the MBI on a continuous scale rather than being present or absent. It contains three subscales thought to measure burnout: Emotional Exhaustion (EE), Depersonalization (DP), and lack of Personal Accomplishment (PA). Maslach and Jackson defined the subscales as

The Emotional Exhaustion subscale assesses feelings of being emotionally overextended and exhausted by one's work. The Depersonalization subscale measures an unfeeling and impersonal response toward recipients of one's service, care, treatment, or instruction. The Personal Accomplishment subscale assesses feelings of competence and successful achievement in one's work with people. (p. 1)

Describing the MBI, Penn et al. (1988) wrote that respondents on the MBI rated the frequency (using a scale from 0-6) that they experienced a situation or an attitude and rated the intensity (scale 0-7) of that experience. Both frequency and intensity scales were obtained for each subscale. There were 22 items on the MBI (9, 5, and 8 items in the EE, DP, and PA subscales respectively). Penn et al. described a respondent as burned out if he or she had high scores on the EE and DP subscales and a low score on the PA subscale. It was also noted that while the MBI consisted of the three components, the subscale scores were not to be added for a composite burnout score.

Maslach and Jackson (1981) reported that the MBI was cross-validated with various professional groups. They stated that reliability estimates for the scales were reported from .73 to .90. Penn et al. (1988) stated that the MBI was titled as a *Human Services Survey* which reduced response bias.

Maslach and Jackson (1981) reported that the MBI was validated in several different ways. These included

(a) outside observers whose independent assessments of an individual's experience corroborate the individual's self-rating, (b) data that confirm hypotheses about the relationships between various job characteristics and experienced burnout, (c) data that confirm hypothesized relationships between experienced burnout and various outcomes or personal reactions, and (d) by distinguishing the MBI from measures of other psychological constructs that might be presumed to be confounded with burnout (p. 105).

Yadama and Drake (1995) analyzed the MBI and wrote that it was valid and reliable but that "further research using a variety of samples and larger samples was needed to establish the instrument's construct validity" (p. 191). Cordes and Dougherty (1993) stated that "support for the discriminant validity of the scale is seen in a significant, although small, positive correlation between MBI scores and job satisfaction" (p. 627).

Burnout and Job Satisfaction

According to Penn et al. (1988), "Most investigators, however, have either assumed that if workers were burned out they were also dissatisfied" (p. 158). Singh et al. (1994) stated that if burnout levels for an employee were high, the employee's job satisfaction would be low. Koeske, Kirk, Koeske, and Rauktis (1994) stated "large-scale surveys of worker morale, job stress, and burnout have included some measures of job satisfaction" (p. 27).

Jayaratne and Chess (1984) contrasted job satisfaction and burnout in a large sample of social workers, suggesting that despite certain common defining factors, these concepts were essentially orthogonal in nature (Farber, 1983)

We have little doubt that some phenomenological and definitional overlap occurs between the dimensions of burnout and job satisfaction, although behavioral scientists have not delineated the exact nature of the similarities and differences. Burnout researchers have noted these similarities and suggest that the two are different but interrelated phenomena (Jayaratne & Chess, 1984, p. 142)

Based on a review of the literature, Farber (1983) stated that high levels of job satisfaction were often correlated with high levels of stress and burnout. Further, Farber wrote that being highly committed to one's work was often found to be a precursor to burnout and that the person would probably have a relatively high level of job satisfaction. Singh et al. (1994), in a study of 377 customer service representatives, found that when levels of burnout were higher, employees' job satisfaction would be lower.

Jayaratne and Chess (1984) cited several authors whose literature dealt with job satisfaction, stating that the literature was "considerably more substantive and theory-based, and certainly more empirical" (p. 142). In a review of the job satisfaction literature, Jayaratne and Chess stated that little was written about "interpersonal factors such as depersonalization or emotional exhaustion—variables associated with burnout" (p. 142).

Maslach et al. (1996) stated in *The Maslach Burnout Inventory Manual*, "Although one would expect the experience of burnout to have some relationship to

lowered feelings of job satisfaction, it was predicted that they would not be so highly correlated as to suggest that they were actually the same thing” (p 15)

Job Satisfaction

Job Satisfaction Defined

Penn et al (1988), in a review of the literature on job satisfaction, stated, “Job satisfaction has been extensively studied for several decades” (p 158) According to Lawler (1973), one of the earliest studies of job satisfaction dated back to the 1930s Carroll (1973) stated in a summary of the literature that there were numerous studies on job satisfaction

Locke (1969) defined job satisfaction as the “pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one’s job values” (p 316) Locke stated that job satisfaction was “a function of the perceived relationship between what one wants from one’s job and what one perceives it as offering or entailing” (p 316) He reported that the concept of job satisfaction as a result of the relationship between a person and his environment was not a new idea

Brewer (1998) defined job satisfaction as the “degree to which an individual enjoys his or her work” (p 27) Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969) defined job satisfaction as “the feelings a worker has about his job” (p 6) Vroom (1964) stated that job satisfaction consisted of a group of variables, not just a single one Carroll (1973) stated that there were different definitions for job satisfaction, and that a person could be satisfied at different levels based on the ways that the definitions were developed Carroll wrote that any “future research will depend to a great extent on developing a commonly accepted system of definitions” (p. 2). Hopkins (1983) defined job

satisfaction as “the fulfillment or gratification of certain needs of the individual that are associated with one’s work” (p 7) One reason that Hopkins gave for the study of job satisfaction was the “concern for the place of the individual in today’s society, and particularly in the world of work” (p 32) Likewise, Cranny, Smith, and Stone (1992) defined job satisfaction as a reaction to the job that is derived from the worker’s comparisons of his or her desired outcomes to those actual outcomes

Theories of Job Satisfaction

There are several theories about job satisfaction Maslow’s (1954) Hierarchy of Needs, McGregor’s “Theory X” and “Theory Y,” Herzberg’s (1968) Two-Factor Theory of Job Satisfaction, and Festinger’s Cognitive Dissonance Theory have all been used to explain job satisfaction

Maslow (1954) stated that a person “is a wanting animal and rarely reaches a state of complete satisfaction except for a short time” (p 69) Maslow wrote that most people are somewhat simultaneously unsatisfied in all their basic needs Maslow developed a “Hierarchy of Needs” that included physiological needs, safety needs, belongingness and love needs, esteem needs, and need for self-actualization Citing Maslow’s hierarchy, Hopkins (1983) stated, “Job satisfaction is said to exist when an individual’s needs are met by the job and its environment” (p 3) Howarth (1984), citing Maslow, stated that, “Human behaviour is influenced very largely, though not entirely, by our attempts to satisfy certain needs” (p 11) Howarth wrote, “In Maslow’s view therefore, an organization cannot operate anywhere near its optimum, nor base itself securely for the future, without giving its employees scope to satisfy their needs for personal development” (p 12)

Job satisfaction has also been linked to certain behavioral traits Howarth (1984) wrote, "As McGregor saw it, the way a manager does his job is based upon his view of people and their behaviour" (p 13) McGregor developed two views on human nature, "Theory X" and "Theory Y " McGregor's assumptions in "Theory X" were

- 1 Most people dislike work and avoid it if they can
- 2 Because they inherently dislike work, most people must be controlled, directed and threatened with some kind of punishment if they are to work hard enough to suit the organization, [and]
- 3 Most people lack ambition, avoid responsibility, yearn for security and welcome being directed (Howarth, p 13)

Two of the assumptions in "Theory Y" were

- 1 People want to work just as naturally as they want to rest or play Under the right conditions, work can be a source of great satisfaction, [and]
- 2 Pride in a job and commitment to doing it well depend upon what a person feels he gets out of the job The most significant rewards are not financial, but, rather, the satisfaction of needs for self-respect and self-fulfillment It should be perfectly possible to find these rewards in doing a good job for the organization (Howarth, 1984, p 13)

McGregor stated that with Theory Y, managers created work conditions that helped people to satisfy their own needs by working hard so that the organization enjoyed success

According to Locke (1976), another theorist, Herzberg, added to the knowledge and understanding of job satisfaction Herzberg (1968) listed five factors that determined job satisfaction—"achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility and advancement" (p 72) Factors listed as major job dissatisfiers were "company policy and administration, supervision, salary, interpersonal relations and working conditions" (Herzberg, p 74) Herzberg called the job satisfaction factors "motivators," and the

dissatisfiers were named “hygiene” factors Herzberg suggested that the hygiene, or maintenance, events caused job dissatisfaction because one needed to avoid unpleasantness, and the motivator events led to job satisfaction because one needed to grow or become self-actualized Locke (1976) stated that Herzberg’s theory stressed that psychological growth was an important precondition of job satisfaction and that this growth came from the work itself

According to Howarth (1984), Herzberg believed that the nature of the jobs that people did was as important as the working conditions Gibson and Klein (1970) stated

classical presentation of Herzberg, et al., suggests that a U-shaped function describes the relationship between age and satisfaction the level of employee satisfaction declines with both age and tenure up to some point, and then begins to rise (p 411)

Carroll (1973) stated that Herzberg’s Two-Factor Theory and Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs Theory were related in that Herzberg’s extrinsic motivators were like Maslow’s lowest needs and the intrinsic factors were related to the higher needs

Psychologist Leon Festinger’s Cognitive Dissonance Theory has also been used to explain job satisfaction According to Carroll (1973), this theory was based on the idea that people attempt to avoid inconsistencies in their beliefs and that people were motivated by the dissonance between the cognitive elements to do whatever might be necessary to alleviate the dissonance Carroll stated that adjustment could be difficult causing frustration and dissatisfaction

Studies of Job Satisfaction

Reviewing the various studies of job satisfaction, Howarth (1984) stated that interest in job satisfaction was based upon a theory of human needs and that the

definition of needs has been modified substantially Vroom (1964) noted that the importance given to various job factors by employees would influence their overall job satisfaction Lawler (1973) reported that people seek satisfaction from pay, co-workers and supervisors, and the work itself These factors influence a person's overall job satisfaction Herman, Dunham, and Hulin (1975) declared that a person's position in the organization and his or her demographic background were related to how the employee responded to the work environment Herman et al wrote, "Employees who held similar positions in the organizational structure, indexed by department and job level, reported similar satisfaction with their work and pay" (p 227) They stated employees of similar demographic characteristics such as age, sex, marital status, and educational level had similar reports of job satisfaction

According to Locke (1969), there have been many studies that correlated job satisfaction with other variables such as age, pay, length of service, education, ethnicity, and religion, and he stated "Correlations have been both low and inconsistent from study to study" (p 321) Firebaugh and Harley (1995) found that throughout the 1980s, many studies showed that American workers experienced high levels of job satisfaction They found that women reported similar levels of satisfaction to those of men Carroll (1973) stated that studies have shown that married workers and those with two or more children were significantly more satisfied than were single workers or those with fewer children Carroll, noting several studies of workers' gender and job satisfaction, stated that gender was not a crucial factor but that other variables such as salary and promotional opportunities of the positions should be examined Carroll noted that for most studies, older people generally experienced more job satisfaction than younger workers did.

Likewise, with increased tenure, job satisfaction increased. Schwartz (1984) stated that studies have shown that the relationship between age and job satisfaction was inconsistent. Forteza and Prieto (1994) wrote that younger people are more dissatisfied, whereas older workers are more satisfied. Firebaugh and Harley (1995) also reported that older workers experienced greater satisfaction than did younger workers.

Level of job was also positively correlated with satisfaction (Cranny et al., 1992). The higher the level of the job, the more complex the job could become. Likewise, higher-level positions might have better working conditions, pay, chances for promotions, responsibility, and autonomy than lower-level positions. Lee, Mueller, and Miller (1981) reported that job level could better predict job satisfaction than could either sex or wage-earner status. Their 1981 study showed that "there was no significant difference between the level of satisfaction with intrinsic characteristics of the job reported by men and women" (p. 371). Likewise, Golding, Resnick, and Crosby (1983) stated that people most likely responded to their work based on the type of job they had rather than on the basis of their gender.

There have been objections to job satisfaction studies and the instruments used to measure job satisfaction. Portugal (1976) stated that one objection that was often mentioned about satisfaction surveys came from the "commonly observed phenomenon of the escalation of wants and expectations" (p. 8). He stated that as

people become used to prosperity (or adjusted to adversity) and cease to experience the elation (or despondency) their particular state of affairs once occasioned. People always seem to want just a little more than what they have. It is therefore assumed that the level of satisfaction will tend toward some norm, and will so be meaningless as an evaluation of the quality of the working environment. (p. 8)

The Job Descriptive Index

The study of job satisfaction led to the development of the Job Descriptive Index

(JDI) The JDI

measures satisfactions with five areas of a job the type of work, the pay, the opportunities for promotion, the supervision, and the co-workers on the job. For each area there is a list of adjectives or short phrases, and the respondent is instructed to indicate whether each word or phrase applies with respect to the particular facet of his job in question (e g , his pay) (Smith et al , 1969, p 69)

Smith et al (1969) reported that the JDI was advantageous in measuring job satisfaction, stating that the JDI was specifically directed toward areas of satisfaction rather than general satisfaction They also stated that the verbal level needed to answer the JDI is low Smith and others stated that the JDI asked the subject to describe his or her work, and did not ask the subject how satisfied he or she is with his or her work “Thus, the responses have a job-referent rather than a self-referent” (Smith et al , p 69)

Portugal (1976) stated that the JDI was “one of the most highly regarded job satisfaction scales in current use” (p 22) Locke (1976) wrote that the JDI “has been described as the most carefully developed scale to date” (p 1334) Smith et al (1969) stated that studying job satisfaction could have many implications for how organizations designed programs such as “supervisory training, organizational structure, job enrichment, automation, level and method of payment, retirement counseling, pension plans, and retirement-age policy” (p 2) Smith et al (1987) stated that the JDI “has remained one of the most popular instruments for measuring satisfaction at work” (p 31) Smith et al (1987) gave several reasons for popularity of the JDI (a) workers of low educational levels can understand the JDI, (b) the JDI has a simplified response format,

and (c) the availability of norms Portugal reported that, "Experience with the administration of this scale shows that it is not description that is obtained but evaluation" (p 22) Portugal stated that by using the JDI, "one may profitably examine satisfaction with particular aspects of the job situation as distinct from the job situation in its totality, [and] when you try to get a respondent to give you an objective description of his job and job situation what he actually gives you may be very much distorted by his attitudes and evaluations" (p 24) Smith and others stated that each of the scales was shown to have high internal consistency Leong and Vaux (1992) stated that there was evidence of the construct validity of the JDI

Socioeconomic Status

Socioeconomic Status Defined

How the term socioeconomic status (SES) originated is hard to determine, but according to Nam and Terrie (1982), "Social scientists have long used the phrase to denote the relative location of an individual or group within a socially desirable hierarchy" (p 29) *The Dictionary of Business and Economics* (Ammer, 1984) defined socioeconomic status as "describing social as well as economic status or relationships Thus *socioeconomic class* takes into account level of education, cultural interests, and other social factors, as well as wealth and earnings" (p 430) Socioeconomic status has been used for categorizing individuals and groups for purposes of research According to Nam and Terrie (1982), various indexes and scales have been used to measure socioeconomic status, and most included factors such as a person's occupation, income, education, and housing

Socioeconomic status was based on the social stratification theory and research of Max Weber. According to Powers (1982), "Weber's articulation of the distinct but interrelated class, status and power dimensions of stratification forms the theoretical basis for most measures of socioeconomic status and prestige which have been developed in North America" (p. 1).

Relationship to Female Workers

In the 1970s, with the increased participation of women in the workforce, the measurement of socioeconomic status changed. According to Nam and Powers (1983) "a measure purporting to rank the occupational hierarchy of contemporary American society could not ignore the increasing numbers of women in that hierarchy" (p. 77). Powers and Holmberg (1982) stated that by using occupation to determine the social class position of women and their families, women's characteristics have generally been ignored and they were given the status level of male heads of family. According to Powers and Holmberg, since females "are now a significant part of the occupational and class hierarchies, it is time to re-examine this practice and to evaluate their contribution to the social class position of their families" (p. 65).

Living Wage

Living Wage Defined

According to Nordlund (1997), the concept of a living wage had its roots in the creation of the minimum wage programs in the early 1900s. Beginning with state laws in Massachusetts and Oregon and the passage of the Fair Labor Standards Act (FLSA) in 1938, a minimum wage program was developed to help average workers obtain a socially acceptable level of well-being for themselves and their families while working average

hours As early as 1906, Ryan wrote, "The right to a Living Wage is individual, natural and absolute" (p 43) Glickman (1997) wrote that the living wage movement was connected to social justice movements Nordlund (1997) stated that living wage related "to the real purchasing power of wages or income earned" (p 201)

Pollin and Luce (1998) wrote that, "The basic premise of the living wage movement could not be more simple that anyone in this country who works for a living should not have to raise a family in poverty" (p 1) They stated that in 1998 there were almost eight million families in America living in poverty Pollin and Luce defined the living wage movement as "a movement for family values the value of adult workers raising children in decent circumstances without having to depend on government subsidies" (p 2)

According to Mazur (1995), it was not until 1980 that workers received an annual income of the minimum wage that was "sufficient to maintain a family of three above the official poverty level" (p 26) Mazur wrote that the minimum wage remained fixed while the cost of living rose According to Mazur, in 1990 and 1991, despite increases in the minimum wage, those families receiving the minimum wage were still in poverty Maslach and Leiter (1997) stated that "the average hourly wage of non-supervisory workers in the United States declined 11 percent between 1978 and 1995" (p 4)

According to Pollin and Luce (1998), the living wage movement had its earliest successes primarily in municipal politics They stated that businesses are still opposed to the living wage Pollin and Luce noted that the first successful municipal living wage movement developed in Baltimore in 1994 This ordinance stated

firms holding service contracts with the city pay a minimum wage that began at \$6 10 an hour in 1996, rising to \$7 70 an hour by 1999 After 1999, Baltimore's living wage minimum would rise in step with the rate of inflation Within three years of the victory in Baltimore, living wage laws passed in twelve other cities, including New York, Los Angeles, Boston, Milwaukee, Minneapolis and Portland, Oregon Movements are ongoing in dozens of other cities, including Philadelphia, Denver, and New Orleans (Pollin & Luce, p 2)

According to Kusnet (1998), in 1996 many state and local governments raised the minimum wage above the federally mandated minimum He also cited the 1995 Baltimore community-labor coalition that "prevailed upon the City Council to pass an ordinance requiring city contractors to pay \$6 10 per hour (and 50 cents per hour more by 1996)" (p 33)

The federally mandated minimum wage was increased to \$5 15 in September 1997 Yet even with the increase in the minimum wage, Pollin and Luce (1998) reported that the buying power of minimum wage after adjusting for inflation was still 30% lower than its high point in 1968 They also wrote that in 1997, the U S economy was about 50% more productive than it had been in 1968

According to Pollin and Luce (1998), with the decline in the purchasing power of the minimum wage to well below the poverty level, the United States government made changes to make economic life easier for the privileged This caused life to be more difficult for most working people, especially the poor They stated that the living wage movement challenged the way the United States economy has run for a generation Citing the national decline of average wages, they stated that the most dramatic change in economic conditions was the decline of average wages They reported that this decline

was for all workers below the supervisory level, not only for minimum wage workers

They wrote,

The decline in average wages also reflects an increasing concentration of wealth and income that has accompanied it. The trends of declining wages and increasing income and wealth concentration correspond to several other changes in national policy. The first has been the growing hostility of business toward unions and the corresponding decline in union membership (p. 4)

Noting a rise in the number of contingent workers, Pollin and Luce (1998) stated that the power of working people has declined. These employees held jobs with virtually no job security and had very little power to resist efforts by businesses to push wages downward. Citing a 1990's urban economic policy, they stated that it had been used as an instrument of the wealthy and that this policy did not address the needs of the poor. They noted that "National economic policy has also been skewed toward the rich" (p. 6)

Pollin and Luce (1998) reported that United States economic policy has harshly treated working people, especially the poor. The authors noted that in the summer of 1996, President Clinton changed the country's welfare program by signing a bill that required all welfare recipients to find employment of some kind and by giving state governments control over most aspects of welfare disbursements. They reported that this new welfare law continued a trend that had been developing for years allowing more states to obtain an exemption from federal regulations to attempt local "experiments." They stated, "There is no doubt that welfare policy was in disarray prior to the new Clinton program. However, it is also clear that the Clinton policies will push wages downward within the low-wage labor market, as more people enter this market competing for jobs" (p. 7)

The living wage movement, according to Pollin and Luce (1998), resisted these dominant trends and posed an alternative economic picture, and they stated that the living wage movement could bring about economic justice in the United States. They wrote that the living wage movement was attempting to reverse the “economy-wide wage squeeze, stopping tax giveaways to big business, reenergizing the labor movement, and ending the war on the poor” (p. 8).

According to Pollin and Luce (1998), the living wage movement has received strong leadership from “community, union, and religious groups and widespread support among the general public. But the business opposition has been similarly forceful, often in cooperation with major city officials” (p. 10). In a history of the living wage movement, Glickman (1997) stated that politicians, religious leaders, and social reformers helped shape and define the concept of a living wage.

Opposition to a Living Wage

Pollin and Luce (1998) wrote that opponents to a living wage have given many of the same arguments against living wage proposals as those made against national and statewide minimum wage laws and against the principle of a legislated wage minimum. They reported that criticism is most commonly focused on employment effects. That is, critics of the living wage stated that by increasing the standard of living for the directly affected workers by increasing the minimum wage, the higher wage floor would force unskilled workers out of the job market. This effect would harm the unemployed and the employed low-wage workers.

Glickman (1997) stated that living wage opponents viewed the movement as “a dangerous political threat, a challenge to the laws of the market and an affront to capitalist property relations” (p. 5)

Card and Krueger (1995) stated that,

According to the model presented in nearly every introductory economics textbook, an increase in the minimum wage lowers the employment of minimum-wage workers. This logic has convinced most economists. Polls show that more than 90% of professional economists agree with the prediction that a higher minimum wage reduces employment (p. 1)

This has been used as ammunition for living wage opponents. However, Card and Krueger stated that the research has not shown that an increase in the minimum wage would result in a reduction in employment. In fact, some of the evidence presented by Card and Krueger showed that increasing the minimum wage had increased employment in some areas while causing no change in other areas. Mazur (1995) stated that raises in the minimum wage did not reduce employment and that in many cases employment had increased.

Pollin and Luce (1998) stated that critics have argued that a minimum wage increase could be harmful to firms that hired many low-wage workers by causing them to pay excessive wages and thus having to lay off workers or close the companies. The argument was that some firms would pass on these higher labor costs to consumers. Likewise, Mazur (1995) wrote that many economists maintained that to raise the minimum wage would be “an unnatural act—that to do so is to invite punishment in the form of unemployment” (p. 25). They stated that the hardest hit would be the poor and the young—especially women and minorities.

However, Pollin and Luce (1998) stated that low-income working people, those who are targeted beneficiaries of minimum wage laws, received most of the wage gains. They noted that unemployment declined when the national minimum wage rose. "The various types of minimum wage laws have been viable policy tools for raising living standards of the working poor, and that the negative effects anticipated by opponents do not emerge from the data" (p. 12).

The living wage ordinances that have passed or are being considered throughout the country are one type of minimum wage law. Several other such laws have been in existence in the United States at various levels of government since 1912. The most familiar type of minimum wage law is one with near-universal coverage, that is, one applying to virtually all workers in the country, state, or municipality, depending on the government body establishing the law. The first statewide minimum wage law was passed in Massachusetts in 1912. The initial minimum set by the Fair Labor Standards Act (of 1937) was 25 cents an hour (p. 26).

Support for a Living Wage

Pollin and Luce (1998) noted that the main reason given by early supporters of minimum wage laws was identical to that of living wage proponents today. "This idea was simple: people working at full-time jobs should be able to provide a decent life for themselves and their families" (Pollin & Luce, p. 27). According to Pollin and Luce, the minimum wage has been effective in providing benefits to the recipients for whom it was intended. Yet they state that it had little impact on the problem of low-wage poverty because the actual buying power of the minimum wage (adjusted for inflation) has fallen in the last 30 years. Reporting on the increase of the minimum wage, they wrote, "Even after the October 1997 increase to \$5.15, the minimum wage still provides a full-time worker with 19% less income than needed just to maintain a family of three at the

poverty line and 37% less income than necessary to support a family of four at the poverty line” (Pollin & Luce, p 30)

Pollin and Luce (1998) stated that living wage campaigns started primarily with municipal governments and for several reasons. The first reason was that big money politics were not powerful at the municipal level. The second reason was that poverty and low-wage employment were major problems in urban areas. The third reason that Pollin and Luce gave for the emergence of living wage campaigns in municipalities was that since the early 1980s, municipalities, along with states and the federal government, have tried to actively reverse the economic decline of cities.

Benefits of a Living Wage

Pollin and Luce (1998) listed the benefits of a living wage to workers as (a) an increase in their disposable income, (b) greater access to loans and other forms of credit, (c) decreased dependence on government subsidies, and (d) a greater sense of self-worth as the workers become more self-reliant. Mazur (1995) stated that the case for a living wage has an economic rationale when he wrote, “What is good for the workers at the low end of the wage scale is good for the economy, and for the country” (p 25). The benefit to government has been that it could spend less to help workers survive. Firms that have employed a great number of low-wage workers would decline in absenteeism and turnover rates. Firms should become more efficient and have higher workforce morale. Lastly, workers’ communities would benefit from the additional spending power workers would have. Fusfeld (1973) stated that if people worked in jobs “for which their earnings are inadequate to meet even poverty standards of income, their families will remain poor, furthermore, their poverty will be reproduced from one generation to the next” (p 35).

Likewise, Mazur wrote that a “market economy needs a market. If the people who work for a wage or salary can’t make ends meet, the market economy will soon meet its end” (p. 24)

For the purposes of this study, a living wage was defined as \$19,000 annually. This figure was based on a proposed ordinance to raise salaries of lowest-paid city workers to \$19,000 annually (Balloch, 1999, p. A3).

Working Women

Working Women Defined

Working women have always had a permanent place in American society. According to Goldberg (1983), in the late 19th century much of the clerical work in the country was “carried out by large numbers of bureaucratically organized and controlled workers who were increasingly female” (p. 12). Female participation in the world of work has steadily increased since then. Goldberg noted that the trend that started in the late 1800s, the growth of the clerical workforce and the increasing numbers of women in that occupation, continued throughout the 20th century. “By 1920, 50 percent of clerical workers were women” (Goldberg, p. 13). Murphree (1986) stated that there were a number of changes in women’s life experiences that led to their entering the world of work. Murphree listed (a) a dramatic rise in the divorce rate, (b) a delay in the age women are having children, (c) an increase in women’s educational attainment, and (d) a sustained economic growth that resulted in the increased demand for women’s labor in the U. S. Murphree stated that, “In 1950 only a third of women held jobs outside the home. (in 1986) there were fifty-one million women in the work force.” According to Smith and Ward (1984), “At the beginning of this century, fewer than one in five women

were members of the labor force, by 1983, more than 6 in 10 were" (p. xv) In addition, Scott (1984) stated that in 1980 in America, "Half the women of working age were in the labor force, but only about half of them earned more than the minimum necessary to keep a family of two above the poverty line This means that some 75 percent would be dependent on resources other than their own earned income if they had to support themselves and one other person" (p 17) According to Needleman and Nelson (1998), "Most women work in jobs considered traditionally female" (p 294) They stated, "Women's work very often includes service to others, whether to a patient, an employer, or the public" (p 294)

There are several factors to consider about females in the workforce In fact, Phillips and Imhoff (1997) identified thousands of articles about working women "It is possible to argue that the literature in this area has grown beyond the point where a comprehensive review is even feasible" (p 1) For the purpose of this study, the research was narrowed to clerical workers, part-time and full-time employment, job satisfaction experienced by women, salaries of females, and family roles of females

Clerical Workers

Reeves and Darville (1986) stated that although the number of clerical workers was large, little research about them had been done In fact, Reeves and Darville cited only one other published study done on academic clerical workers Likewise, Carter (1994) stated that even with the important role that clerical workers have played in almost every workplace in the country, research has been sparse Carter's study looked at the socioeconomic status of females, "which focuses on characteristics of individuals,

spouses, and/or households, such as education, occupational prestige, and income” (p 309)

Part-time and Full-time Employment

Barker (1993) stated that with the increase in females joining the workforce came an increase in part-time jobs. According to the U S Department of Labor (1992), women held 66% of all part-time jobs, but the majority of women still worked full time. According to Barker, part-time jobs enabled women to more easily deal with demands of family. However, Hall and Gordon (1973) wrote that women working full time had experienced greater job satisfaction than part-time workers had. They believed that (a) part-time jobs might not be as challenging as full-time, (b) women working part time might be perceived as having a conflict between whether or not to work or stay home, (c) women working part time have many other conflicts and home pressures than women working full time, and (d) women working part time may not deal as effectively with role conflicts as do women working full time.

Job Satisfaction Experienced by Women

Goldberg (1983) stated that advancements in technology and greater control over the clerical workers by management had had great impact on the experienced job satisfaction of women workers.

Big business, being more complex than ever, must rely more heavily upon the paperwork carried out by the office staff, and thus it has become even more important for production to be well organized and managed, and to have the most efficient modern technology available to it. Thus, the work has become more routine and segmented, requiring less skill and working knowledge on the part of the clerk, and ensuring greater control by management (p 15)

Therefore, Goldberg (1983) reported that while clerical work had become more important to the modern capitalist society, the amount of knowledge and power held by the worker had decreased, thus decreasing the prestige that was usually found with clerical positions Bruening (1988) referred to the concept of *deskilling*, which involved the narrowing of job tasks and “created increased levels of boredom, making work less challenging and less satisfying for many workers” (p 47)

Goldberg (1983) wrote

the similarities between clerical work and factory work have grown and become more clear as the working conditions become less desirable and more routinized and controlled by management Further, it is often pointed out that clerical work has become even lower paid and less secure than manual work, a condition owing partly to the fact that many manual workers are protected by unions, while clerical workers for the most part are not (p 16)

Goldberg (1983) wrote that white-collar workers felt that joining a union would lower one’s status by the person’s being associated with the working class White-collar workers thought that due to the cognitive nature of their jobs, their positions were more prestigious than the manual work of blue-collar workers They did not want to admit that they shared common problems

However, Carter (1994), citing earlier literature, stated that through office automations, clerical workers could increase skills and autonomy, thereby enhancing their status and power “In such cases, class identity may begin to shift away from a working-class identity” (p 312)

In a review of the literature, Crosby (1982) noted that several studies have shown that women have experienced considerable disadvantages throughout their working lives, which has led to decreased job satisfaction In the *1993 Handbook on Women Workers*

(U.S. Department of Labor, 1993), Karen Nussbaum, director of the Women's Bureau of the U S Department of Labor, stated that since 1983, women have had several problems. She wrote,

The average working woman saw her real wages stagnate, her benefits contract, and the number of hours she worked grow longer. She is more likely than ever before to be working more than one job and with diminished job security (p. iii)

Salaries of Females

Crosby (1982) stated that women often occupied low-status, low-paid positions. According to the U S Department of Labor (1993), Women's Bureau, most of the traditionally female positions offer low wages. "In fact, 14 out of the 20 leading occupations for women offer median weekly earnings below the \$368 average for all women employed full time in 1991" (p. 17). Needleman and Nelson (1998) stated that the cause of a significant wage gap between average male and female earnings was due to the fact that "women are not compensated for much of the work they perform" (p. 295). Using sophisticated statistical procedures, economists and sociologists demonstrated that female workers were paid much less than comparable male workers. Kahn and Figart (1998) reported that 64% of workers who earned minimum wage were female, and they stated that many workers in "traditionally female occupations earn wages below the official poverty line for a family of three" (p. 10). Powers and Holmberg (1982) stated that the median income of women clerical workers in 1970 was "several thousand dollars below that of men employed in sales and clerical occupations" (p. 63). Kahn and Figart reported that for the last 35 years, based on information obtained from the National Committee on Pay Equity, "women have been catching up to male wages at a rate of only

1/3 of 1 percent a year, equivalent to \$2,000 in constant dollars over the entire period” (p 8) Kahn and Figart stated, “To find relevance in today’s economy, the effort to win pay equity must be recast as part of the fight for a living wage” (p 8)

Gelpi, Hartsock, Novak, and Strober (1986) stated that both governmental and academic studies have been done that described women’s poverty Women tended to be employed in clerical, retail, service, and manual positions that were usually seen as having low pay, inflexible work schedules, poor working conditions, few fringe benefits, and little job security (Meleis & Stevens, 1992)

Goldberg (1983) noted that women represented between 75% and 100% of all clerical positions She noted that women in clerical positions were paid 64 1% of the salaries earned by their male counterparts Albelda and Tilly (1997) stated that women earned considerably less than men--approximately 70% of the income of men Kahn and Figart (1998) reported that women earned about 75% of what males earn

Goldberg (1983) noted that with women entering the clerical workforce in large numbers, they were seen as cheap sources of labor Thus, Goldberg reported,

Companies justified paying them less than men because of their sex status This was especially helpful to management, given the tremendous increase in the need for clerical workers as the economy expanded The lack of unionization among clerical workers also helps explain the lower salaries (p 23)

Goldberg (1983) noted that as working women became aware of the salary differences, had increased consumption needs, and became more dependent upon their own incomes, they became more dissatisfied with their wages However, Crosby (1982) noted that many studies on working women have shown that women did not express dissatisfaction with their jobs any more than men did Mason (1994) stated that jobs in

which women could support and cooperate with others were the most satisfying to women, even if the jobs were not very challenging or demanding

Family Roles of Females

Crosby (1982) noted that studies have shown that workers who were married and had children often responded more positively regarding their jobs than did single people

Some reasons that Crosby gave for this finding follow

A full and happy home life probably prevents a person from brooding about problems that arise at work. Involvement with one's spouse and one's children may blunt one's awareness of intrigue or unfairness at the office, the shop, or the factory. Perhaps, too, domestic problems such as a spouse or a child in poor health cause the married people and parents to see problems at work in a different perspective than do single people (p 159)

Gelpi et al (1986) stated that men earned higher salaries because of their perceived higher levels of job-related skills. "Because women allegedly choose to sacrifice career advancement for home responsibilities, they are thought to lack equal skills" (p. 9). Gelpi et al stated that childcare and home responsibilities were among the influences on women's acquisition of job skills. For example, many women left the workforce to stay home to raise children. This may have lessened the length of their wage-earning careers. Women's skills could become obsolete during the time away from work. Lastly, women trying to balance work and family might be forced to work at a lower-paying job to be closer to home, have ideal work schedules, or be off when a child was ill. Murphree (1986) stated that the responsibility women had as primary home makers has "resulted in a more or less episodic—in and out—pattern of labor force participation" (p 10)

Meleis and Stevens (1992) stated that, while the number of women entering the workforce increased, women were still responsible for the domestic roles of wife and mother. Murphree (1986) wrote,

The number of families headed by women grew more than 84 percent between 1970 and 1984 alone. In March of 1984, some 10.3 million families had as their principal support women who were divorced, separated, widowed, or never married. Eighty-two percent of these women worked at full-time jobs. (p. 10)

Smith and Ward (1984), using data from a 1983 study, stated that "The clerical sector opened up a whole new set of jobs to women that presumably lessened the conflict between work and marriage" (p. 42). This study suggested that career interruptions might have been fewer in clerical work than in other jobs held by females. Pines et al. (1981) suggested that job sharing and part-time positions helped women who decided to have both a career and a family.

Crosby (1982), in a study of women subjects, determined that there was not much difference between what women obtained from their jobs and what they wanted to obtain. The study also showed that there was not much difference between what women obtained and what they thought they were entitled to obtain. Goldberg (1983) noted that there was much documentation that women were more likely to work during tough economic times when more sources of income are needed to maintain their families. Goldberg also noted that as the number of women entering the workforce increased, the problems (such as low salaries, low benefits, and the struggle between work and home) for them increased. Citing changes in office structure such as the bureaucratization of control and the entry of new technologies, Goldberg stated that clericals became more dissatisfied because they were faced with the challenge of balancing their family lives and their work lives.

Goldberg wrote that women were dealing with their family lives “in terms of practical daily living as well as in conforming to a traditional ideology that may expect them to play roles contradictory to their material needs” (p 29)

According to Kahn, Long, and Peterson (1989) much of the research on female clerical workers had not taken into account marital status, number of children, and the job level of the workers

Feminization of Poverty

Working women in America occupy the lower-paying jobs, and more women are also heads of families. This is also the trend in the U S and also worldwide. Vecchio and Roy (1998) stated that social scientists and policymakers have started to understand the issue of poverty that is experienced by one quarter of the world’s population. They stated that female-headed households are confronted by overburdened workloads and limited resources.

Kahn and Figart (1998) stated that women are increasingly seen as “heads of households and their earnings are crucial in dual-income households” (p 8). They stated that great numbers of workers in occupations seen as traditionally female earn wages that are below the official poverty line for a family of three. According to the U S Department of Labor (1993), Women’s Bureau, “Between 1970 and 1990, a startling 99 percent of the increase in the number of families living in poverty was among families headed by women” (p 28).

The authors of *1993 Handbook on Women Workers. Trends & Issues* (U S Department of Labor, 1993) stated that the “feminization” of poverty “is characterized as such because of the increase in the number of families consisting of a mother and her

children with no husband present" (p 37) Smith (1986) stated that there were two developments that have caused the poverty of women in America to grow

First, more women than ever before must depend exclusively on their own earnings or on welfare payments as the major source of support for themselves and their families. The number of women heading households with children under eighteen doubled between 1970 and 1980. By 1981 close to one-fifth of all families with minor children were headed by women, who were more than three times as likely to have incomes below the poverty line than were their male counterparts. Second, most available new jobs offer workers little chance to climb out of poverty. The vast majorities of these positions are in the rapidly expanding service sector of the economy and are occupied primarily by women (p. 121)

According to the U S Bureau of the Census, the number of women heading households in 1970 was 3,837, in 1980 was 6,299, and in 1997 was 8,822. Vecchio and Roy (1998) estimated that in the United States two out of every three poor adults are women. Zopf (1989) refers to the

feminization of poverty as reflected in the insufficiency of well-paying jobs for women and the financial problems which result from relying only on their own incomes within that structurally disadvantageous context. More specifically, some industries which provide the jobs women fill pay wages which force a woman to seek other sources of income if she and her dependents are to stay above the poverty level (p 14)

Zopf (1989) reported that the highest poverty rates were for women with "at least one child under 6 plus one or more aged 6-17, regardless of the mother's age and race" (p 30). He also stated that a childless woman could more easily enter the labor force, stay in it full time, earn an income, receive pay raises, and progress toward seniority.

Gelpi et al (1986) stated that the federal government, through various policy changes, added to the problems of working women. They reported that the Reagan administration made changes

—such as tightening the requirements for welfare eligibility and eliminating the practice of disregarding certain earned income when eligibility is determined—[that] have functioned, then, both as a cut in wages for women workers and as a way of making the work force even more captive because the need for jobs is more desperate. Indeed, women's wages are so low that women's full-time employment itself provides no automatic solution to female poverty (p 2)

Zopf (1989) wrote that females had higher poverty rates than males regardless of their age or race Gelpi and others (1986) reported that the Social Security Administration calculated "the poverty line by computing the costs of feeding a family of four and then multiplying this figure by three However, utilities, rent, taxes, and other necessary expenses may take up more than two-thirds of the family budget" (p 1)

The issues facing working women are important for a human resources professional to research The U S Department of Labor (1993), Women's Bureau, in its book, *1993 Handbook on Women Workers: Trends & Issues*, listed several factors that will affect the growing numbers of women in the labor force These included (a) a growth in the divorce rate, (b) more women attaining higher education, (c) changing social trends, (d) family-friendly benefits and workplace programs, and (e) legislation "As the baby boom generation ages, the growth of the labor force will slow but its diversity will increase, with women accounting for about 47 percent of all persons working or looking for work by the year 2005" (U S Department of Labor, 1993, p 74)

Summary of Literature Review

This review of the literature has shown that there have been numerous studies of burnout and job satisfaction It also revealed information regarding socioeconomic status, a living wage, and female workers While the researcher did not find specific studies linking all of these subjects simultaneously, she did find that these topics could be

somewhat related and that job satisfaction, burnout, and a living wage all can have an effect on female workers in their jobs and their lives

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH PROCEDURES

Introduction

This chapter provides the methods and procedures that were followed in this study. It contains a description of the population and sample selected for this study, the research design and methodology, the instruments used, the procedures to collect data, and the methods of data analysis.

Research Methodology

This study was designed to assess the levels of job satisfaction and burnout in different categories of clerical employees at an institution of higher education and to identify the impact of marital status and total remuneration of female clerical employees on total job satisfaction and burnout. Using a demographic survey developed by the researcher, the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) (Maslach & Jackson, 1981), and the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) (Smith et al., 1969), data were obtained from a sample of clerical employees at an institution of higher education. Statistical analyses, including frequency counts, one-way chi-square, and analyses of variance (ANOVA), were used to determine whether or not significant differences existed based on the nine variables. When significant differences were found between subjects using ANOVA, a chi-square test was used to determine how the sample subjects differed from the norms provided by the instruments. Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 8.0 for Windows and SPSS version 10.0 for Windows were used to perform the analyses for this study.

Research Population and Sample

The population for the study consisted of 1,141 clerical employees at an institution of higher education. These employees were categorized as clerical because of the type of work they perform. According to the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* (U S Department of Labor, 1991), clerical employees are those who perform work “concerned with compiling, recording, communication, computing, and otherwise systematizing data” (p. 171).

Population

At the time the study was designed, this institution employed 1,141 clerical employees, 98% of whom were female and approximately 2% of whom were male. The institution utilized a human resources system that categorized the employees by job category. A report was run that listed the employees by departmental account number. Clerical employees who lived in the local area were chosen for this study because the living wage data used in this study were relative to the local area.

Selection of Sample

Before selecting the sample, permission to utilize the institution’s human resources information system was obtained from the Executive Director of Human Resources (see Appendix A). The sample was randomly drawn, using the institution’s human resources information system, from clerical employees at a large southeastern, research I, land-grant institution. According to Gay (1996), “Random sampling is the best single way to obtain a representative sample” (p. 114). This study employed a systematic sampling method, which is defined by Gay as “sampling in which individuals are selected from a list by taking every *k*th name” (p. 122). Systematic sampling is

random in that the list of the population was randomly ordered. It was not in alphabetical order but by the institution's departmental account numbers. Scheaffer, Mendenhall, and Ott (1990) stated that systematic sampling was easily performed and that it was less likely to be subject to interviewer or researcher error than was simple random sampling. They stated that systematic samples usually provided more information about the population than an equivalent amount of data obtained from a simple random sample because a systematic sample is generally spread more evenly throughout the entire population.

The sampling method used to determine the sample size of clerical employees was taken from an article by Krejcie and Morgan (1970) entitled, "Determinining Sample Size for Research Activities." In this article, the authors reported a formula from which they designed a Table for Determining Sample Size from a Given Population. This formula was " $s = X^2NP(1 - P) - d^2(N - 1) + X^2P(1 - P)$ " (p. 607). The "s" in the formula represented the required sample size, " X^2 " represented the table value of chi-square for 1 degree of freedom at the desired confidence level (3.841), "N" represented the population size, "P" represented the population proportion (assumed to be .50 since this would provide the maximum sample size), and "d" represented the degree of accuracy expressed as a proportion (.05). With a population size of 1,168, a sample of 287 was determined to be appropriate.

The sample were mostly female (98%) and approximately 2% male. This sample was representative of the population. Subjects were divided into four groups based on salary and marital status. These groups were (a) those above the living wage, (b) those below the living wage, (c) those married, and (d) those not married.

Instrumentation

Before beginning this study, the researcher filed a Form A, Certification for Exemption from Institutional Review Board (IRB) for Research Involving Human Subjects and received approval from The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Materials used to conduct this study were a cover letter, the demographic questionnaire, the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) (Smith et al , 1969), the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) (Maslach & Jackson, 1981), campus envelopes, and pre-addressed return campus envelopes

The MBI and the JDI were selected because both instruments could be self-administered. The research design was a mail survey. Therefore, the instruments had to be clearly read and understood, and the subjects had to be able to answer the questions without an administrator. Also, both instruments were presented in ways that did not sensitize the subjects to the factors that the researcher was trying to measure. For example, the MBI was labeled *Human Services Survey* and the JDI was labeled *The Job Descriptive Index*. Neither instrument mentioned burnout or job satisfaction.

Another reason for selecting these instruments was the time that it would take for subjects to complete them. According to Maslach et al (1996), the MBI would take about 20-30 minutes to complete. The JDI would take about 5-10 minutes to complete. It was also noted that both instruments could be hand-scored, and that it would be relatively easy to interpret the data.

The psychometric data on the JDI and the MBI were impressive. The JDI was validated using discriminant and convergent validity both within and across samples. According to the authors of the JDI, the validation period began in 1959 and lasted for 5

years (Smith et al , 1969) They also reported various methods and strategies such as using phrases and adjectives from previous satisfaction scales, factor analytic literature on job satisfaction, interviews, and personal experiences that were used to develop items, item selection, and response formats Convergent validity was shown by correlation of the JDI with other job satisfaction measures The JDI reported coefficient alpha reliability estimations of over 0.90 According to Balzer et al (1997), the JDI demonstrated success in obtaining accurate measures of job satisfaction

The authors of the MBI reported extensive reliability and validity studies (Maslach et al , 1996) Convergent validity for the MBI was shown by comparing it to other established measures, such as independent ratings of subjects' spouses with subjects' MBI scores The correlations that resulted were significant, and discriminant validity of the MBI was also noted by the authors The MBI authors reported reliability coefficients for the subscales as 0.90 for emotional exhaustion, 0.79 for depersonalization, and 0.71 for personal accomplishment They also computed test-retest reliabilities for five different samples (Maslach et al) The test-retest reliability coefficients for each of the MBI subscales were .82 (frequency) for Emotional Exhaustion, .60 (frequency) for Depersonalization, and .80 (frequency) for Personal Accomplishment

Responses were kept confidential but were coded to determine whether or not subjects returned the surveys A questionnaire was designed to obtain demographic data from the respondents, and questions were designed to compare job satisfaction and burnout with the following factors (a) marital status, (b) age, (c) educational level, (d) training program usage, (e) fee waiver usage, (f) participation in health plans, (g) flexible

work schedules, (e) full- or part-time status, (f) length of service, and (g) promotions. Follow-up letters were sent to those subjects who had not completed and returned the instruments. A sample of the survey and letters are included in Appendix A.

Materials

The researcher designed a letter to explain the purpose of the study and sent it to all subjects (see Appendix A). This letter had a section of support from the Executive Director of Human Resources encouraging participation in the study. It was printed on the institution's human resources department letterhead to acknowledge the Executive Director's support and, therefore, gain a greater response rate. The letter and the instruments had a requested date for return. A pre-addressed campus envelope was enclosed to facilitate the return of the study.

Procedures

Data Collection

Both instruments (MBI and JDI) were sent to the sample population of clerical employees along with the cover letter and the demographic questionnaire via the institution's inter-office mail system. To increase response rate, the researcher provided response incentives in the form of a random prize drawing. If participants returned their surveys, then they were entered into a drawing for one of two \$25 gift certificates from the institution's bookstore, or one of ten free computer training classes from the institution's human resources training and development department.

Three weeks later, follow-up letters were sent to encourage the return of the instruments. Also, those subjects that returned partially completed surveys (2 subjects returned only the MBI and the demographic surveys and 1 returned only the JDI and the

demographic survey) were contacted by telephone and were asked to return the missing instruments. This ensured that the surveys were usable. After the questionnaires were returned, thank you letters were sent to participants.

Data Analysis

The final responses were divided into categories based on the predetermined criteria. The instruments were scored by the researcher based on the materials provided by the publishers of each of the instruments. The MBI was scored according to the directions provided in the *Maslach Burnout Inventory Manual* (Maslach et al., 1996). The questions for each of the subscales were added and the sums were categorized according to the scoring key. The JDI was scored according to the directions in the *Users' Manual for the Job Descriptive Index (JDI; 1997 Revision) and the Job in General (JIG) Scales* (Balzer et al., 1997). Data were tabulated from the demographic questionnaire. Multivariate statistical analyses were performed on the data and the scores from each of the instruments using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 8.0 and SPSS Version 10.0. These analyses were one-way chi-square, analyses of variance (ANOVA), and frequency counts. The researcher tallied each test and the mean, the standard deviation and/or median were computed for each group. These scores were compared to the norms provided in the user's manual of each instrument (JDI and MBI).

Summary

This chapter provided the methods and procedures that were utilized in this study. A demographic instrument that was designed by the researcher and the JDI and MBI were used to measure the levels of job satisfaction and burnout in different categories of

clerical employees at an institution of higher education. These instruments also helped to identify the impact of marital status and of total remuneration of female clerical employees on job satisfaction and burnout. The chapter also stated the reasons the instruments were selected and provided a description of the population and the sample chosen for the study. The data analysis procedures were also explained.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to assess the levels of job satisfaction and burnout in different categories of clerical employees at an institution of higher education and to identify the impact of marital status and of total remuneration of female clerical employees on job satisfaction and burnout. Using the research design in Chapter III, data were collected from a randomly selected sample to test the various hypotheses of the study. The results are presented in this chapter.

Response Rate

The cover letter, demographic questionnaire, and survey instruments were mailed to 288 clerical employees at an institution of higher education and 211 were returned. This resulted in a return rate of 72.9%.

Research Questions

This section reports findings for the research questions designed for this study. Question one asked what are the demographic characteristics of the clerical employees at this institution. The findings were reported as frequency counts. Question two was designed to determine whether or not there were any significant differences in the demographics as determined by the Job Descriptive Index and the Maslach Burnout Inventory. First, the subjects were divided into two groups so that statistical analyses could be performed to see if there were any significant differences between the groups based on salary or marital status. These group scores were compared with the norms of the JDI and the MBI. Secondly, the responses given for the demographic survey were

tallied and compared to see if there were any significant differences This was done by performing analyses of variance

Research Question One

What are the demographic characteristics of the clerical employees at this institution?

Of the 288 surveys distributed, 211 questionnaires were returned providing a response rate of 79.2% One of the respondents did not return the demographic survey and was not reported in the frequency data or was reported as unknown Frequencies were performed on the demographic results obtained from the other respondents The demographic characteristics of the total sample were 98% female and 2% male, which was representative of the total clerical population at this institution

Gender

Table 2 reports the frequencies for gender There were 203 (96.7%) females, and 7 (3.3%) males

Age

Subjects were asked to indicate the category most descriptive of their present ages The majority of the subjects (76, or 36.2%) were in the age group 35-44 years The other percentages were 3.3% (7) under 25 years of age, 18.6% (39) 25-34 years, 30.0% (63) were 45-54 years, 10.0% (21) were 55-64 years, and 1.9% (4) were in the 65 years and older group The age groupings of respondents are presented in Table 2

Table 2. Respondents' Demographic Information

Variable and Level of Responses	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
<u>Gender</u>			
Male	7	3.3	3.3
Female	203	96.7	100.0
Total	210	100.0	
<u>Age Group</u>			
Under 25	7	3.3	3.3
25-34	39	18.6	21.9
35-44	76	36.2	58.1
45-54	63	30.0	88.1
55-64	21	10.0	98.1
65 and Older	4	1.9	100.0
Total	210	100.0	
<u>Marital Status</u>			
Married	135	64.3	64.3
Total Not Married	75	35.7	100.0
Never Married	25	11.9	11.9
Widowed	3	1.4	13.3
Separated	5	2.4	15.7
Divorced	42	20.0	35.7
Total	210	100.0	
<u>Educational Level</u>			
Completed High School/GED	31	14.8	14.8
Some Technical School	10	4.8	19.5
Some College	97	46.2	65.7
Associate's Degree	19	9.0	74.8
Bachelor's Degree	30	14.3	89.0
Some Graduate Work	15	7.1	96.2
Master's Degree or Beyond	8	3.8	100.0
Total	210	100.0	
<u>Full- or Part-time Status</u>			
Full-time	199	94.8	94.8
Part-time	10	4.8	99.5
Unknown	1	0.5	100.0
Total	210	100.0	

Table 2. Respondents' Demographic Information (continued)

Variable and Level of Responses	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
<u>Flexible Work Schedules</u>			
Had Flexible Schedule	79	37.6	37.6
No Flexible Schedule	130	61.9	99.5
Unknown	1	0.5	100.0
Total	210	100.0	
<u>Length of Service</u>			
Less Than 5 Years	57	27.1	27.1
5-10 Years	66	31.4	58.6
11-15 Years	38	18.1	76.7
More than 15 Years	49	23.3	100.0
Total	210	100.0	
<u>Number of Promotions</u>			
No Promotions	60	28.6	28.6
Promoted One Time	50	23.8	52.4
Promoted Two Times	53	25.2	77.6
Promoted Three or More Times	47	22.4	100.0
Total	210	100.0	
<u>Fee Waiver Usage</u>			
Had Used Fee Waiver	57	27.1	27.1
Had Not Used Fee Waiver	153	72.9	100.0
Total	210	100.0	
<u>Training Program Usage</u>			
Had Taken Training Programs	142	67.6	67.6
Had Not Taken Training Programs	68	32.4	100.0
Total	210	100.0	
<u>Health Plan Participation</u>			
Did Participate	186	88.6	88.6
Did Not Participate	23	11.0	99.5
Unknown	1	0.4	100.0
Total	210	100.0	

Marital Status

Marital status for the subjects who returned the survey materials is reported in Table 2. Married subjects totaled 135 (64.3%), 42 (20.0%) were divorced, 5 (2.4%) were separated, 3 (1.4%) were widowed, and 25 (11.9%) were never married. Since the numbers for divorced, separated, widowed and never married groups were low and the statistical package that was used required larger sample sizes to perform the necessary tests, the researcher combined the four groups and compared those numbers with the married group. This combined percentage was 35.7%.

Educational Level

Educational level of the respondents is displayed in Table 2. The majority of those subjects (97) had some college (46.2%). Thirty-one subjects (14.8%) had completed high school/GED, 10 (4.8%) had some technical school, 19 (9.0%) had an associate's degree, 30 (14.3%) had bachelor's degrees, 15 (7.1%) had some graduate work, and 8 (3.8%) had master's degrees or beyond.

Full- or Part-time Status

The full- or part-time schedule status for the subjects is presented in Table 2. Full-time schedules consisted of 40 work hours per week, and part-time positions consisted of less than 40 hours in a work week. Full-time employees numbered 199 (94.8%), 10 (4.7%) were part time, and 1 (0.5%) was unknown.

Flexible Schedules

Table 2 depicts flexible schedules of the respondents. Respondents had a flexible schedule if they were able to defer from the traditional 40-hour work week. These

respondents numbered 79 (37 6%) and 130 (61 9%) did not have flexible work schedules.

One (0 5%) was unknown

Length of Service

The subjects' length of service at this institution is revealed in Table 2 Those subjects who had less than 5 years at this institution numbered 57 (27 1%) Sixty-six respondents (31 4%) had 5-10 years of service, 38 (18 1%) had 11-15 years, and 49 (23 4%) had more than 15 years of service

Promotions

Table 2 reports numbers of employees who had received promotions at this institution Sixty (60) subjects (28 6%) had never been promoted, 50 (23 8%) had been promoted once, 53 (25 2%) had been promoted twice, and 47 (22 4%) had been promoted three or more times

Fee Waiver Usage

Data on employees who had used the fee waiver to take classes offered at the institution free of charge are displayed in Table 2 As seen in this table, 57 (27 1%) had used the fee waiver and 153 (72 9%) had not used the fee waiver

Training Program Usage

Findings on employees who participated in any training programs offered by the institution's human resources department are shown in Table 2 This table shows that 142 (67 6%) had taken training programs and 68 (32 4%) had not taken training programs

Health Plan Usage

According to Table 2, 186 (88.6%) of the subjects participated in the university's health plan, and 23 (11.0%) did not participate. One (0.5%) was unknown.

Annual Salaries

As shown in Table 3, the 210 returned surveys were divided into two groups according to their annual salaries. One group (labeled *m*) consisted of those employees whose annual salaries were \$19,000/year or greater, and the other group (labeled *b*) consisted of those employees whose salaries were less than \$19,000/year. In group *b*, there were 111 surveys returned, or 53.7%. For group *m*, there were 99 surveys returned, or 45.8%. One survey was returned without the identification number and, therefore, could not be assigned to a group.

The human resources information system reported the annual salaries for each subject. The mean for these salaries was \$19,630.11/year. The minimum salary was \$12,000/year, and the maximum salary was \$37,493/year.

Table 3. Delineation of Respondents by Annual Salaries

Group	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
<i>m</i> (\$19,000/year or +)	99	45.8	45.8
<i>b</i> (<\$19,000/year)	111	53.7	99.5
Unknown	1	0.5	100.0
Total	211	100.0	

Research Question Two

Were there significant differences in the demographics as determined by the Maslach Burnout Inventory and the Job Descriptive Index?

This question has two answers. First, the sample was divided into four groups based on salary and marital status. These groups were (a) Group *m* (those at or above the living wage of \$19,000/annually), (b) Group *b* (those below the living wage), (c) those married, and (d) those not married. These groups were compared to the norms provided by each of the instrument's users' manuals. The results for the MBI are presented in Table 4 and 5. Table 6 presents results for the JDI.

Research Question Two: Part One

MBI Results for the Four Sample Groups

According to the MBI Manual (Maslach et al., 1996), the means of the sample and its two groups could be categorized in either a low, moderate, or high range for all three burnout subscales. For the emotional exhaustion scale, low scores were categorized 0-16, moderate scores were 17-26, and high scores were greater than 27 or above. For the depersonalization scale, low scores were 0-6, moderate scores were 7-12, and high scores were 13 and above. For personal accomplishment, low scores were 39 or greater, moderate scores were 32-38, and high scores were 0-31.

Sample Means

The means for the total sample group were 17.22 for emotional exhaustion, 4.30 for depersonalization, and 35.00 for personal accomplishment. This placed the total sample in the low category for depersonalization and in the moderate category for

emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment The means for the MBI as compared to the sample means are shown in Table 4

Table 4. Delineation of MBI Subscales

Subscale and Sample Means	Ranges of Categories		
	Low	Moderate	High
Emotional Exhaustion (EE)	0-16	17-26	27 or >
Total Sample		17 22	
Group m (\$19,000/yr or >)	16 10		
Group b (< \$19,000/yr)		18 17	
Married		17 07	
Not Married		17 47	
Depersonalization (DP)	0-6	7-12	13 or >
Total Sample	4 31		
Group m (\$19,000/yr or >)	3 99		
Group b (< \$19,000/yr)	4 64		
Married	4 30		
Not Married	4 34		
Personal Accomplishment (PA)	39 or >	32-38	0-31
Total Sample		35 03	
Group m (\$19,000/yr or >)		35 35	
Group b (< \$19,000/yr)		34 70	
Married		35 56	
Not Married		34 08	

Table 5. Summary of MBI Chi-Square Demographic Norms

Demographic Variable	N	Emotional Exhaustion		Depersonalization		Personal Accomplishment	
		M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Sex Norms							
Male	429	23 08	11 92	10 43	7 09	35 65	7 21
Female	955	24 48	11 83	8 94	6 77	36 18	6 82
Sex Sample							
Male	7	24 00	7 55	2 86*	3 34	33 71	6 21
Female	202	16 98*	11 53	4 35*	4 29	35 05	8 44
Marital Status Norms							
Single	351	26 34	11 83	10 98	6 90	33 94	7 15
Married	784	22 94	11 62	8 91	6 67	36 71	6 73
Divorced	168	25 03	11 80	9 40	6 52	35 74	6 89
Other	81	22 72	13 04	7 45	6 61	38 76	6 01
Marital Status Sample							
Single	25	17 29*	10 80	4 64*	4 05	32 24	9 06
Married	135	17 07*	11 46	4 30*	4 20	35 56	7 87
Divorced	42	17 64*	12 5	4 29*	4 74	33 81	9 50
Widowed/Separated	8	15 2	9 36	3 60	4 93	41 40	4 34

*Significant at the .05 level

Table 5 (continued)

	N	Emotional Exhaustion		Depersonalization		Personal Accomplishment	
		M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
<u>Demographic Variable</u>							
Education Norms							
No College	153	23 03	11 98	8 88	7 17	36 44	6 94
Some College	380	22 02	11 53	8 99	6 96	37 13	7 11
Completed College	349	24 66	11 21	10 23	6 73	34 34	7 25
Postgraduate Work	461	25 64	11 76	9 32	6 59	36 15	6 63
Education Sample							
Completed High School/GED	31	16 31*	12 45	3 67*	4 37	33 90	7 40
Some Technical School	10	18 50	15 28	1 80*	2 70	35 00	10 27
Some College	97	17 01*	11 27	4 99*	4 57	34 62*	8 47
Associate's Degree	19	17 42*	9 43	4 21*	3 74	34 95	10 11
Bachelor's Degree	30	19 48*	11 56	4 80	4 21	35 77	7 95
Some Graduate Work	15	14 80*	13 02	2 33*	3 58	38 33*	6 78
Master's Degree or Beyond	8	18 00*	8 37	3 50	2 07	34 88	9 23

*Significant at the .05 level

**Table 6. Comparison of JDI and Sample Norms
Using One-Way Chi-Square Tests**

Norms and Sample		JDI Scales				
Medians	Work Itself	Pay	Opportunities For Promotion	Supervision	Co-workers	Job in General
Job Tenure Norms						
0-5 Years	40	27	14 5	38	39	41 75
5-10 Years	42	31	11	35	37	42
11-15 Years	44	33	11 5	35	40	43
> 15 Years	41	33	9	30	36	43
Job Tenure Sample						
0-5 Years	41	12*	12	48*	45*	42
5-10 Years	42	10*	8	48*	42*	45
11-15 Years	44	8*	8	45*	45*	45
> 15 Years	46*	18*	8	43*	45*	45
Non-manager Norms	37	28	10	34	37	43
Non-manager Sample	43*	12*	8	47*	45*	45
Government Organization Norms	40	25	11	33	36	42
Government Organization Sample	43*	12*	8	47*	45*	45

*Significant at the .05 level

Table 6 (continued)

Norms and Sample		JDI Scales				
Medians	Work Itself	Pay	Opportunities For Promotion	Supervision	Co-workers	Job in General
Age Norms						
< 25 Years	33	21	17	39	35 5	38
25-34 Years	39 5	30	18	36 5	36 25	39 5
35-44 Years	41 5	29	11	34	36 5	42
45-54 Years	41	30	10 5	33 5	37	41 75
55-64 Years	43	33	10 5	34	40 5	42 75
> 64 Years	44	23	11	38	49	47
Age Sample						
< 25 Years	48	20	12	48	48	42
25-34 Years	39	10*	12*	48*	42*	42
35-44 Years	45*	14*	10	47*	45*	45
45-54 Years	42	8*	8	48*	44*	44
55-64 Years	45	14*	6	45*	47*	48*
> 64 Years	48	16	4	39 5	34 5	42 5

*Significant at the .05 level

Means for Groups *m* and *b*

Table 4 displays the means for group *m* were 16.10 for emotional exhaustion, 3.99 for depersonalization, and 35.35 for personal accomplishment. This placed group *m* in the high category for emotional exhaustion, the low category for depersonalization, and the moderate category for personal accomplishment. The means for group *b* were 18.17 for emotional exhaustion, 4.64 for depersonalization, and 34.70 for personal accomplishment. This placed group *b* in the moderate category for emotional exhaustion, the low category for depersonalization, and in the moderate category for personal accomplishment.

Marital Status Means

For the MBI, there were no significant differences between subjects based on marital status. For the married group, the mean for emotional exhaustion was 17.07, 4.30 for depersonalization, and 35.56 for personal accomplishment. This placed the married group in the moderate category for emotional exhaustion, the low category for depersonalization, and in the moderate category for personal accomplishment. For the not married group, the mean for emotional exhaustion was 17.47, 4.34 for depersonalization, and 34.08 for personal accomplishment. This placed the not married group in the moderate category for emotional exhaustion, in the low category for depersonalization, and in the moderate category for personal accomplishment. Table 4 shows the means for the married and not married groups.

Comparison of MBI Demographic Norms to Sample Demographic Norms

The sample was also categorized by demographic characteristics, and these were compared with MBI norms. The characteristics were (a) gender, (b) marital status, and

(c) education This was not directly related to any hypothesis but rather was an interesting way to show the significant differences between the sample and the norms Table 5 shows the relationship between the sample and the norms The males in the sample differed from the norms in depersonalization The females differed in emotional exhaustion and depersonalization For marital status, subjects who were single, married, or divorced differed from the norms in both the emotional exhaustion scale and depersonalization For education, those subjects who had completed high school/GED and those who had associate degrees differed in the emotional exhaustion and depersonalization scales For subjects that had completed some technical school, there were differences only on the depersonalization scale For the subjects who had some college and those who had some graduate work, there were differences on all three scales Subjects who had bachelor's degrees and those who had master's degrees or beyond differed only on the emotional exhaustion scale

JDI Results for the Four Sample Groups

The JDI manual (Balzer et al , 1997) stated that researchers should use the median scores rather than the mean scores because "the distribution of employees' JDI scores may make the mean scale score a biased index of employee satisfaction" (p 29) The total sample medians were 43 00 for the work itself subscale, 12 00 for the pay subscale, 8 00 for the promotion subscale, 47 00 for the supervision subscale, 45 00 for the co-worker subscale, and 45 00 for the job in general scale

The JDI manual used summary graphs for reporting norms These were for the following variables (a) job tenure, (b) manager status, (c) organization type, (d) job level, and (e) age For this study, job level was not used, the other groups were used For

manager status, non-manager norms were used. For organization type, government organization norms were used. The medians for the JDI are shown in Table 6. To determine whether or not there were significant differences between the sample median scores and the norm median scores, a one-way chi-square test was used. Sample scores were divided into two groups, above the norm median scores and below the norm median scores. The comparisons of the JDI norms and the sample norms can be found in Appendix B, Figures 1-12.

Comparison of JDI Demographic Norms to Sample Demographic Norms

As with the MBI, the sample for the JDI was divided into four groups based on salary and marital status. These groups were (a) group *m* (those at or above the living wage of \$19,000/annually), (b) group *b* (those below the living wage), (c) those married, and (d) those not married. However, the JDI did not provide norm data for marital status, nor did the JDI authors provide general norms. Therefore, the researcher could only compare subjects' means to see whether or not there were any significant differences. These results are shown in Part Two of Research Question Two.

Research Question Two: Part Two

The second part of the second research question used data obtained from the demographic surveys to determine whether or not there were any significant differences between subjects based on nine categories. Analyses of variance were conducted for these nine categories. These categories were (a) salary, (b) educational level, (c) marital status, (d) health plan usage, (e) fee waiver usage, (f) professional development programs usage, (g) flexible schedule, (h) promotion, and (i) length of service.

MBI Analyses of Variance

After performing analyses of variance for the MBI, it was determined that there were no significant differences between subjects on any of the nine categories. The multivariate tests, Hotelling's Trace, Pillai's Trace, and Wilks' Lambda did not reveal any significant differences. These overall results are shown in Tables 7 through 15.

**Table 7. Multivariate Analysis of Variance for
MBI Mean Scores for Groups *m* and *b***

Subscale	Mean Square	df	F	Sig
Emotional Exhaustion (EE)	114.289	2	0.866	0.422
Depersonalization (DP)	20.122	2	1.103	0.334
Personal Accomplishment (PA)	28.791	2	0.408	0.666

*Significant at the .05 level

**Table 8. Multivariate Analysis of Variance for
MBI Mean Scores for Educational Levels**

Subscale	Mean Square	df	F	Sig
Emotional Exhaustion (EE)	49.673	6	0.370	0.897
Depersonalization (DP)	32.375	6	1.814	0.098
Personal Accomplishment (PA)	41.004	6	0.577	0.749

*Significant at the .05 level

**Table 9. Multivariate Analysis of Variance for
MBI Mean Scores for Marital Status**

Subscale	Mean Square	df	F	Sig
Emotional Exhaustion (EE)	7.565	1	0.057	0.811
Depersonalization (DP)	7.374	1	0.004	0.95
Personal Accomplishment (PA)	104.229	2	1.487	0.224

*Significant at the .05 level

**Table 10. Multivariate Analysis of Variance for
MBI Mean Scores for Health Plan Usage**

Subscale	Mean Square	df	F	Sig
Emotional Exhaustion (EE)	159.331	2	1.211	0.300
Depersonalization (DP)	32.344	2	1.784	0.171
Personal Accomplishment (PA)	129.61	2	1.861	0.158

*Significant at the .05 level

**Table 11. Multivariate Analysis of Variance for
MBI Mean Scores for Fee Waiver Usage**

Subscale	Mean Square	df	F	Sig
Emotional Exhaustion (EE)	13.538	1	0.102	0.749
Depersonalization (DP)	0.816	1	0.044	0.833
Personal Accomplishment (PA)	6.25	1	0.089	0.766

*Significant at the .05 level

**Table 12. Multivariate Analysis of Variance for MBI Mean
Scores for Professional Development Programs Usage**

Subscale	Mean Square	df	F	Sig
Emotional Exhaustion (EE)	17.878	1	0.135	0.714
Depersonalization (DP)	0.363	1	0.02	0.888
Personal Accomplishment (PA)	24.349	1	0.346	0.557

*Significant at the .05 level

**Table 13. Multivariate Analysis of Variance for
MBI Mean Scores for Flexible Schedule**

Subscale	Mean Square	df	F	Sig
Emotional Exhaustion (EE)	350.675	2	2.704	0.069
Depersonalization (DP)	26.635	2	1.465	0.234
Personal Accomplishment (PA)	30.754	2	0.435	0.648

*Significant at the .05 level

**Table 14. Multivariate Analysis of Variance for
MBI Mean Scores for Promotion**

Subscale	Mean Square	df	F	Sig
Emotional Exhaustion (EE)	19.545	3	0.146	0.932
Depersonalization (DP)	7.906	3	0.429	0.732
Personal Accomplishment (PA)	76.984	3	1.098	0.351

*Significant at the .05 level

**Table 15. Multivariate Analysis of Variance for
MBI Mean Scores for Length of Service**

Subscale	Mean Square	df	F	Sig
Emotional Exhaustion (EE)	48 066	3	0 361	0 781
Depersonalization (DP)	23 532	3	1 296	0 277
Personal Accomplishment (PA)	46 548	3	0 659	0.578

*Significant at the .05 level

JDI Analyses of Variance

For the JDI, an analysis of variance was conducted, and, as shown in Table 16, significant differences were found between group *m* and group *b* at the 0.05 level for the work itself (0.003) and pay (0.001) subscales. As with the MBI, in reviewing the analyses of variances, and reviewing Pillai's Trace, Hotelling's Trace, and Wilks' Lambda, there were no significant differences for education levels, health plan usage, fee waiver usage, professional development programs usage, or flexible schedules. These figures are shown in Tables 17, 19, 20, 21, 22, and 24.

Also for the JDI, a multivariate analysis of variance was conducted for marital status. As Table 18 displays, there were significant differences found at the 0.05 level for the work itself (0.009) and job in general (0.009) subscales. Likewise for the JDI, for subjects who had been promoted three or more times, there were significant differences at

the 0.05 level for both work (0.002) and pay (0.001) subscales. These figures are presented in Table 23.

One interesting point is that for the length of service variable, the pay subscale was almost significant at the 0.05 level. The score was 0.052 and is shown in Table 24.

Table 16. Multivariate Analysis of Variance for JDI Mean Scores for Groups *m* and *b*

Subscale	Mean Square	df	F	Sig
Work Itself	930.112	2	6.144	0.003*
Pay	1577.204	2	10.52	0.001*
Opportunities for Promotion	30.159	2	0.184	0.832
Supervision	71.584	2	0.460	0.632
Co-workers	276.789	2	1.668	0.191
Job in General	244.625	2	2.322	0.101

*Significant at the .05 level

**Table 17. Multivariate Analysis of Variance for
JDI Mean Scores for Educational Levels**

Subscale	Mean Square	df	F	Sig
Work Itself	133 828	6	0 838	0 542
Pay	135 225	6	0 822	0 554
Opportunities for Promotion	142 156	6	0 870	0 518
Supervision	44 773	6	0 283	0 945
Co-workers	80 879	6	0 477	0 825
Job in General	56 907	6	0 526	0 788

*Significant at the .05 level

**Table 18. Multivariate Analysis of Variance for
JDI Mean Scores for Marital Status**

Subscale	Mean Square	df	F	Sig
Work Itself	1065 643	1	6 898	0 009*
Pay	464 871	1	2 867	0 092
Opportunities for Promotion	531 487	1	3 300	0 071
Supervision	105 512	1	0 680	0 411
Co-workers	3 366	1	0 020	0 887
Job in General	898 147	1	8 73	0 003*

*Significant at the .05 level

**Table 19. Multivariate Analysis of Variance for
JDI Mean Scores for Health Plan Usage**

Subscale	Mean Square	df	F	Sig
Work Itself	190 692	2	1 203	0 302
Pay	71 994	2	0 438	0 646
Opportunities for Promotion	108 217	2	0 662	0 517
Supervision	37 168	2	0 238	0.788
Co-workers	38 96	2	0 232	0 793
Job in General	95 943	2	0 898	0 409

*Significant at the .05 level

**Table 20. Multivariate Analysis of Variance for
JDI Mean Scores for Fee Waiver Usage**

Subscale	Mean Square	df	F	Sig
Work Itself	57 919	1	0 363	0 547
Pay	4 134	1	0 025	0 874
Opportunities for Promotion	16 536	1	0 101	0 751
Supervision	5 83	1	0 037	0 847
Co-workers	67 994	1	0 406	0 525
Job in General	2 034	1	0 019	0 891

*Significant at the .05 level

Table 21. Multivariate Analysis of Variance for JDI Mean Scores for Professional Development Programs Usage

Subscale	Mean Square	df	F	Sig
Work Itself	5.848	1	0.037	0.848
Pay	11.869	1	0.072	0.788
Opportunities for Promotion	8.846	1	0.054	0.816
Supervision	0.524	1	0.003	0.954
Co-workers	89.59	1	0.535	0.465
Job in General	2.614	1	0.024	0.876

*Significant at the .05 level

**Table 22. Multivariate Analysis of Variance for
JDI Mean Scores for Flexible Schedule**

Subscale	Mean Square	df	F	Sig
Work Itself	66 04	2	0 413	0 662
Pay	76 837	2	0 467	0 627
Opportunities for Promotion	51 864	2	0 316	0 729
Supervision	0 443	2	0 003	0 997
Co-workers	40 839	2	0 243	0 785
Job in General	73 968	2	0 691	0 502

*Significant at the .05 level

**Table 23. Multivariate Analysis of Variance for
JDI Mean Scores for Promotion**

Subscale	Mean Square	df	F	Sig
Work Itself	758 981	3	5 057	0 002*
Pay	838 835	3	5 456	0 001*
Opportunities for Promotion	250 141	3	1 548	0 203
Supervision	180 68	3	1 169	0 323
Co-workers	82 103	3	0 488	0 691
Job in General	132 583	3	1 247	0.294

*Significant at the .05 level

**Table 24. Multivariate Analysis of Variance for
JDI Mean Scores for Length of Service**

Subscale	Mean Square	df	F	Sig
Work Itself	292 233	3	1 862	0 137
Pay	419 004	3	2 621	0 052
Opportunities for Promotion	207 024	3	1 276	0 284
Supervision	46 916	3	0 300	0 826
Co-workers	107 52	3	0 641	0 590
Job in General	104 321	3	0 977	0 404

*Significant at the .05 level

Results of Null Hypotheses

For research question two, nine null hypotheses were tested using descriptive statistics to determine whether or not there were differences, as measured by the MBI and JDI, in burnout and job satisfaction of clerical employees based on total remuneration. At a significance level of .05, each null hypothesis was either rejected or accepted.

The researcher proposed Null Hypothesis 1, which stated that there were no differences between groups *m* and *b*. There were no significant differences between the two groups on the MBI. However, there were significant differences for the work itself (.003) and pay (.001) subscales on the JDI. Therefore, this hypothesis was rejected (see Tables 7 and 16).

In looking at educational level, Null Hypothesis 2 was developed. It stated that there were no significant differences between education level and job satisfaction and burnout. The analyses of variance did not find any significant differences between educational level and job satisfaction and burnout. Therefore, the researcher failed to reject this hypothesis (see Tables 8 and 17).

Null Hypothesis 3 stated that there were no significant differences between marital status and job satisfaction and burnout. There were no differences for marital status on the MBI. However, there were significant differences for the work itself (0.009) and job in general (0.003) subscales on the JDI. Therefore, this hypothesis was rejected (see Tables 9 and 18).

The researcher stated in Null Hypothesis 4 that there were no significant differences between use of the health care plan and job satisfaction and burnout. No significant differences were found. Therefore, the researcher failed to reject this hypothesis (see Tables 10 and 19).

Regarding Null Hypothesis 5, it was proposed that there were no significant differences between the use of the educational fee waiver and job satisfaction and burnout. No significant differences were found. Therefore, the researcher failed to reject this hypothesis (see Tables 11 and 20).

For Null Hypothesis 6, the researcher stated that there were no significant differences between the use of professional development programs and job satisfaction and burnout. There were no significant differences found. Therefore, the researcher failed to reject this hypothesis (see Tables 12 and 21).

The researcher proposed in Null Hypothesis 7 that there were no significant differences between flexible work schedules and job satisfaction and burnout. No significant differences were found. Therefore, the researcher failed to reject this hypothesis (see Tables 13 and 22).

Null Hypothesis 8 stated that there were no significant differences between subjects who had been promoted and job satisfaction and burnout. There were no significant differences for the MBI and burnout. However, for the JDI, there were significant differences found on the work itself (0.002) and pay (0.001) subscales. Therefore, this hypothesis was rejected (see Tables 14 and 23).

Lastly, the researcher proposed in Null Hypothesis 9 that there were no significant differences between length of service and job satisfaction and burnout. No significant differences were found. Therefore, the researcher failed to reject this hypothesis (see Tables 15 and 24).

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

This section provides a summary of this study of job satisfaction and burnout among clerical employees at an institution of higher education. Overall, there were not major significant differences among clerical employees based on total remuneration. However, there were a few differences based on demographics, and these are presented here in the major findings of the study. The study is divided into seven sections: (a) summary of the study, (b) methods and procedures, (c) limitations of the study, (d) major findings, (e) implications and discussions of the results, (f) conclusions, and (g) recommendations for further study.

Summary of the Study

Purpose of the Study

For this study the researcher reviewed numerous studies of burnout and job satisfaction. The literature also revealed information regarding a living wage and female workers. While the researcher did not find specific studies linking all variables with clerical employees, she did find that these topics could be somewhat related and that job satisfaction, burnout, and socioeconomic status or a living wage could affect female workers in their lives and their careers.

The research concerned whether or not there were significant differences among clerical employees based on salary and other demographic variables. It was the researcher's expectation that determining whether or not there were any significant differences for clerical employees based on the findings from this study would add to the body of literature regarding female clerical employees. This information could assist

human resources professionals in their effective hiring and retention of clerical employees. It could also aid the institution in determining the extent to which fringe benefits offered to employees were used by the employees and alert administrators to various areas of clerical employees' jobs that may need attention or improvement.

Methods and Procedures

A random sample of 288 clerical employees at an institution of higher education was administered the Maslach Burnout Inventory and the Job Descriptive Index. A cover letter to the subjects identified a response deadline for returning the surveys. Follow-up letters were sent to those subjects who did not return the materials by the deadline date. After the response deadline, a random drawing was held for each of the subjects. Two \$25.00 gift certificate response initiatives and ten free computer training classes were given to 12 winners. Thank you letters were sent to all participants.

There was an overall response rate of 72.9%. The data gave the researcher an overall measure of job satisfaction and burnout, various group measurements of job satisfaction and burnout, and demographic data on age, gender, education, marital status, and usage of various benefits offered by the institution. These data were used to answer the two research questions. The two research questions were

1. What are the demographics of the clerical employees at this institution?
2. Are there significant differences in the demographics as determined by the Job Descriptive Index and the Maslach Burnout Inventory? This was addressed by the following questions:
 - a. How does income as defined by a living wage impact job satisfaction and burnout?
 - b. How does educational level impact job satisfaction and burnout?
 - c. How does marital status impact job satisfaction and burnout?
 - d. How does the use of the health care plan impact job satisfaction and burnout?

- e. How does the use of the educational fee waiver impact job satisfaction and burnout?
- f. How does the use of professional development programs impact job satisfaction and burnout?
- g. How do flexible work schedules impact job satisfaction and burnout?
- h. Does promotion impact job satisfaction and burnout?
- i. Does length of service impact job satisfaction and burnout?

For the second question, nine null hypotheses were formulated and were tested at a significance level of 0.05

Statistical analyses, including frequency counts, one-way chi-square, and analyses of variance (ANOVA), were used to determine whether or not significant differences existed based on the nine variables. When significant differences were found between subjects using ANOVA, a chi-square test was used to determine how the sample subjects differed from the norms provided by the instruments. Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 8.0 for Windows and SPSS version 10.0 for Windows were used to perform the analyses for this study.

Limitations of the Study

This study did have some limitations. One was that the results are not generalizable beyond the clerical population of this institution. It is not clear whether or not those subjects who did not respond to the study would have the same results as those who did. Non-respondents could be more burned-out or could have a lower measurement of job satisfaction. Had these subjects responded, the data might have been different.

Another limitation concerned the sample. When looking at salary, the researcher looked only at the individual salary of the employee. It would have been helpful to know the total socioeconomic status of the subjects. The researcher could have obtained the total household income from the subjects via the demographic survey. Perhaps a subject

who had a low individual salary was in a higher socioeconomic bracket due to a second income. Such a subject's job satisfaction score could be higher and the burnout score could be lower than an employee with the same salary but no second income.

One limitation could have been the timing of the survey. The survey was mailed out in January, and the subjects had just returned from a one-week break for the Christmas holiday. If conducted during the summer months, subjects could have responded differently on the survey due to having to work overtime.

Another limitation was that the JDI and the MBI reported demographic norms differently. This made it difficult to compare results. For example, there were no norms provided for the JDI based on educational level or marital status. Also, there were overall MBI norms for burnout but no overall norms for the JDI.

There may have been a limitation related to the demographic survey in that subjects may not have known what the terms meant or may have interpreted them incorrectly. For example, the question regarding usage of the fee waiver could have been interpreted as used only by the respondents or by members of their family. Some respondents may have understood the question to mean that they would have answered "Yes" only if they had used the fee waiver and had not used it for a family member. Other respondents may have answered "Yes" if either they or a family member had used it.

A final limitation could be that there were no data collected on employee morale, absenteeism, or job turnover. A great deal of research has correlated job satisfaction and/or burnout with these subjects. These data could have been correlated with burnout.

scores and job satisfaction measures to see whether or not there were any relationships

This could have been helpful information to the administration of this institution

Major Findings

There were major findings for the two questions that guided this study. The questions will guide the discussions of the findings. They are listed below.

- 1 What are the demographics of the clerical employees at this institution?
- 2 Are there significant differences in the demographics as determined by the Job Descriptive Index and the Maslach Burnout Inventory?

Findings Related to Research Question One

The first research question addressed the demographics of the sample. These results are found in Table 2. The demographics were representative of the total clerical population at this institution.

- 1 The majority of the respondents were female (203 or 96.7%). There were 7 males (3.3%). This was representative of the total population at this institution. This supports the literature that stated that the majority of clerical employees are female (Goldberg, 1983; Meleis & Stevens, 1992; Smith & Ward, 1984).
- 2 Most subjects (76, or 36.2%) were in the 35-44 year-old age group; the next largest group was the 45-54 year-old age group having 63 (30%). The 25-34 year-old age group numbered 39 (18.6%), the 55-64 year-old age group totaled 21 or 10%, under 25 years of age numbered 7 or 3.3%, and for the 65 and older group, there were only 4 subjects or 1.9%.
- 3 The majority of the subjects were married (135, or 64.3%). Since the numbers for divorced (42), separated (5), widowed (3), and never married (25) were low, and the statistical package that was used required larger sample sizes to perform the necessary tests, the researcher combined these four groups and compared those numbers with the married group. This combined number was 75 (35.7%).
- 4 The majority of subjects (97, or 46.2%) had some college. There were 31, or 14.8%, who had completed high school/GED, 10 (4.8%) who had taken some

technical school, 19 (9 0%) had associate's degrees, 15 (7 1%) had some graduate work, 8 (3 8%) had master's degrees or beyond, and 30 subjects (14 3%) had bachelor's degrees

- 5 The majority of the respondents (94 8%) worked full-time
- 6 Regarding schedules, over two-thirds of the subjects did not have flexibility.
- 7 The majority of subjects (66, or 31 4%) had been working at the institution for 5-10 years, 57, or 27 1%, had been there less than 5 years, 38, or 18 1%, had been there 11-15 years, and 49, or 23 3%, had worked there more than 15 years
- 8 For employees who had received promotions at this institution, 60, or 28 6%, had never been promoted, 50, or 23 8%, had been promoted once, 53, or 25.2%, had been promoted twice, and 47, 22 4%, had been promoted three or more times
- 9 The majority of subjects (153, or 72.9%) had not used the fee waiver
10. The majority of subjects (142, or 67 6%) had participated in training programs offered by the institution's human resources department
11. The majority of respondents (186, or 88 6%) participated in the university's health care plans
- 12 The mean for the respondents' annual salaries was \$19,630 11/year

Findings Related to Research Question Two

The second research question addressed significant differences, as measured by the MBI and the JDI, on burnout and job satisfaction among clerical employees based on total remuneration

MBI Results

The means for the total sample group were 17 22 for emotional exhaustion (EE), 4 30 for depersonalization (DP), and 35 00 for personal accomplishment (PA) This placed the sample in the low category for depersonalization and in the moderate category for both emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment The means for the MBI as

compared to the sample means are shown in Table 4. According to Maslach et al (1996), burnout is measured on a continuous scale rather than being present or absent. Penn et al (1998) stated that a respondent was burned out if he or she had high scores on the EE and DP subscales and a low score on the PA subscale. Based on this statement, the respondents did not seem to be burned out, because they scored in the low category on DP and in the moderate categories on EE and PA.

When the sample was divided between those subjects above and those below \$19,000/annually, the subjects in the >\$19,000/annually (group *m*) were in the high category for emotional exhaustion. The subjects in the <\$19,000/annually (group *b*) were in the moderate category for emotional exhaustion. Both groups were in the low category for depersonalization and in the moderate category for personal accomplishment. This data demonstrated that when subjects were divided into the two groups based on salary, those in group *m* with the higher salaries had higher reports of burnout.

The researcher performed analyses of variance on the data from the demographic survey. There were no significant differences found for the MBI. However, when subjects were divided into demographic groups (i.e., marital status, gender, and education level) and were compared to MBI norms, some differences were found. For marital status, three sample groups were significantly different from the norms. These were single, married, and divorced subjects. All three groups were significantly different from the norms in emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. The mean score for single subjects for emotional exhaustion was 17.29 and was compared to the norm mean of 26.34. The mean score for single subjects for depersonalization was 4.64 and was compared to the norm mean of 10.98. The mean score for married subjects for emotional

exhaustion was 17.07 and was compared to the norm mean of 22.94. The mean score for married subjects for depersonalization was 4.30 and was compared to the norm mean of 8.91. The mean score for divorced subjects for emotional exhaustion was 17.64 and was compared to the norm mean of 25.03. The mean score for divorced subjects for depersonalization was 4.29 and was compared to the norm mean of 9.40. These scores placed all three groups in the low category for emotional exhaustion and the low category for depersonalization. All of these differences were at the 0.05 significance level.

Male subjects were found to be significantly different from the male norm scores for depersonalization. The male sample mean for depersonalization was 2.86, compared to the norm of 10.43 ($p=0.05$). Female subjects were found to be significantly different from the female norm scores for emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. Female sample mean for emotional exhaustion was 16.98, compared to the norm mean of 24.48 and the female sample mean for depersonalization was 4.35, compared to the norm mean of 8.94 ($p=0.05$). This placed the male subjects in the low category for depersonalization and the female subjects in the low categories for both emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. The literature stated that women were far more likely to experience burnout than were men (Maslach & Jackson, 1985). However, data did not support that research. This was perhaps due to the small representation of males in the sample.

Subjects who had completed high school/GED were significantly different from the norms in emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. The subjects' mean for emotional exhaustion (16.31) was compared to the norm mean of 23.03. For depersonalization, the subjects' mean of 3.67 was compared to the norm mean of 8.88. Subjects who had some technical school education differed from the norms only in

depersonalization (1 80 compared to 8 88) These scores placed the subjects in the low categories for the subscales These differences were significant at the 0 05 level

Subjects who had some college differed on all three subscales Subjects' mean for emotional exhaustion (17 01), compared to the norm mean of 24 66, placed them in the low category for emotional exhaustion Subjects' mean for depersonalization (4 99), compared to the norm mean of 10 23, placed them in the low category Subjects' mean for personal accomplishment (34 62), compared to 34 34, placed them in the high category for personal accomplishment These differences were all significant at the 0 05 level

Subjects who had associate's degrees differed in emotional exhaustion (17 42 compared with 22 02) and depersonalization (4 21 compared with 8 99) This placed these subjects in the low categories for both subscales Subjects who had bachelor's degrees differed only in emotional exhaustion (19 48 compared with 24 66) This placed them in the moderate category for emotional exhaustion Subjects who had some graduate school differed in all three subscales For emotional exhaustion, the sample mean of 14 80 was compared with the norm mean of 25 64 For depersonalization, the sample mean of 2 33 was compared with the norm mean of 9 32 Both of these subscales placed the subjects in the low category For personal accomplishment, the sample mean of 38 33 was compared with the norm mean of 36 15 This placed them in the high category for personal accomplishment The subjects who had master's degrees or beyond differed only in emotional exhaustion (18 00 compared with norm mean of 25 64) This placed those subjects in the moderate category for emotional exhaustion All these differences were significant at the 0 05 level

Burnout is an important aspect of clerical employees' work to study in that they are expected to deliver high levels of quality service to their customers in situations that can be perceived as stressful. Statham (1998) stated that clerical employees were workers who served. Maslach and Jackson (1984) stated that burnout had real consequences that could impede the accomplishments of an organization's goals. This study could help the administration be aware of and understand the implications of a burned-out clerical workforce.

JDI Results

Numerous researchers stated that there was a relationship between burnout and job satisfaction (Jayaratne & Chess, 1984, Koeske et al., 1994, Penn et al., 1988, Singh et al., 1994). Maslach et al. (1996) stated that the experience of burnout might lead to lowered feelings of job satisfaction but that the two were not so highly correlated that they could be considered the same thing. Lawler (1973) reported that people sought satisfaction from pay, co-workers and supervisors, and the work itself. These factors were measured by the JDI.

For the JDI, significant differences between groups *m* and *b* were found at the 0.05 level only for the work (0.003) and pay (0.000) scales. There were no other significant differences found for any of the other scales between groups. Herzberg (1968) listed salary as a possible "job dissatisfier" or a "hygiene" factor and stated that the dissatisfiers could lead to unpleasantness and job dissatisfaction. Data from the present study seemed to parallel this research.

There were significant differences found between married and not married subjects at the 0.05 level for the work (0.009) and job in general (0.003) scales.

When comparing sample scores to JDI norms, significant differences were found on all scales. For job tenure, subjects who had 0-5 years service, 5-10 years service, and 11-15 years service were significantly different for the pay, supervision, and co-workers subscales. Those subjects having >15 years were significantly different on the same three scales and on the work itself scale.

For the non-manager norms, the subjects differed on the work itself, pay, supervision, and co-workers scales. The same differences appeared for the government organization norms.

Subjects who were < 25 years old and those who were > 64 years old had no significant differences from the norms. The 25-34 year-old subjects differed in pay, opportunities for promotion, supervision, and co-workers. The 35-44 year-old subjects differed in work itself, pay, supervision, and co-workers scales. The 45-54 year-old subjects and the 55-64 year-old subjects both differed in pay, supervision, and co-workers scales. These scores were all significant at the 0.05 level.

Implications and Discussion of the Results

Based on the data analyses from the study's data and the review of the literature, implications were drawn from this study. They are as follows:

1. The researcher failed to reject null hypotheses 2, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 9 because there were no significant differences found for these questions.
2. Null hypothesis 1 was rejected because there were significant differences found at the 0.05 level on the JDI between Groups *m* and *b* for the work and pay scales. This means that the scores of the two groups differed in two out of the six scales on the instrument.
3. Null hypothesis 3 was rejected because there were significant differences found at the 0.05 level on the JDI between marital status and job satisfaction.

Married subjects were significantly different from not married subjects in the work itself and job in general subscales on the JDI

4. Null hypothesis 8 was rejected because there were significant differences between subjects who had been promoted and those who had not on job satisfaction as reported by the JDI. Subjects were significantly different for the work itself and pay subscales
5. Administrators at this institution should realize that salaries and benefits offered at this institution affect the employees' reports of job satisfaction and burnout. This could also affect the organization as a whole because by determining where the salaries and benefits are causing negative effects on job satisfaction or burnout, administrators could attempt to improve these areas
6. One interesting fact is that in looking at the results of the MBI for the groups *m* and *b*, group *m* (equal or greater than \$19,000/annually) were in the high category for emotional exhaustion and group *b* (less than \$19,000/annually) were in the moderate category for emotional exhaustion. The subjects of group *m* may have higher salaries because they have been in their positions longer or have higher-level positions and, therefore, could have higher rates of burnout
7. Both groups *m* and *b* were in the low category for depersonalization and the moderate category for personal accomplishment. This could imply that clerical employees do not have an uncaring attitude toward the people for whom they work and that they have a moderate feeling of competence and successful achievement in their work with people regardless of their salary
8. There were significant differences between the sample and various demographic norms provided by the JDI. The sample differed from the norms provided by the JDI. This implies that this sample is different from other subjects having taken the JDI and that the results are not generalizable.
9. Since two-thirds of the sample did not have flexible work schedules, supervisors at this institution may want to consider utilizing these to enhance job satisfaction or lower burnout in clerical employees
10. Since 153 subjects (72.9%) had never used the fee waiver, administrators should find out why this incentive was not being utilized and whether or not the use of this benefit should be recommended or if it should be eliminated
11. Training program usage was relatively high (67.6%) and should be supported and continued by this institution. However, results on effectiveness of programs should be obtained

12. Likewise, health care plan participation was high (88.6%) and the program should be continued by this institution. However, it is not known whether or not this plan is a good plan, or whether it is the only one available to the employees.

Conclusions

From the demographic survey, statistical data were compiled and analyzed. Using analyses of variance, these data showed that there were no significant differences for either of the instruments in relation to job satisfaction and burnout between those employees who used benefits and those who did not use the benefits. The only significant difference was between those promoted and those who had a greater length of service. Both factors are related to salary. These subjects should have higher salaries than other employees, which could relate to higher job satisfaction scores and lower burnout scores.

One interesting observation was found between the groups *m* and *b*. For the MBI, both were in the low category for depersonalization and the moderate category for personal accomplishment. The groups differed in the emotional exhaustion category. Subjects in group *m* (\$19,000/annually or above) were in the high category and group *b* (<\$19,000/annually) subjects were in the moderate category for emotional exhaustion. The reason for this finding could be that employees at the higher salaries have been in their positions longer and, therefore, have higher salaries. Due to the longer length in the job, these employees may have a higher level of emotional exhaustion. Another reason could be that this group of employees has higher level jobs that require them to deal with more problems or have more responsibility. This might cause a higher level of emotional exhaustion.

There were also differences among various demographic groups of the sample, such as gender, marital status, and educational level, and the various demographic norms provided by the instruments. These differences were interesting to note, but it is not necessary to be of a certain gender, a certain marital status, or educational level to be a clerical employee. These data do not provide useful research information for human resources professionals or the administration of the institution.

Overall, the results showed that the clerical employees did not have high job burnout scores or low job satisfaction scores. The information provided in this study could be helpful to the administration of this institution. There may be certain benefits that employees are not using, such as the fee waiver program. These programs could either be eliminated, which would result in cost savings to the institution, or the programs could be better promoted, encouraging more individuals to use them, which might help in retention of employees.

The results of this study could be important to human resources professionals and administrators at this institution for other reasons. Due to shrinking budgets and lack of monies to grant salary increases for employees, administrators could use the data from this study to determine where to place emphasis on clerical employees' jobs. It seems that subjects who are in positions with lower salaries and those who have not been promoted have lower reports of job satisfaction. Therefore, these are areas that administrators need to focus upon. Also, administrators need not focus on improving supervision or the various benefits provided by the university. Rather, they should look at the nature of the jobs and at how the employees can obtain more ownership of and pride in their jobs. Administrators could take actions such as surveying employees to

determine what they like and dislike about their jobs, consider redesigning jobs, determine ways to empower employees, and educate supervisors on ways to motivate their employees without using money. All of these things could play a role in improving measures of job satisfaction and lowering reports of burnout of clerical employees.

Recommendations for Further Study

The following recommendations are proposed for future studies on clerical workers

- 1 Additional investigations on clerical workers should include reasons that women choose certain types of occupations
- 2 Further studies should be undertaken to determine how work ethic affects job satisfaction and burnout
- 3 Additional studies should be undertaken to include a broader population of clerical employees at various types of organizations to determine whether or not the results are generalizable
- 4 Further research should be conducted to ascertain what types of benefits clerical employees desire
- 5 Further research should be conducted to include other factors that could influence burnout or job satisfaction such as number of children, hobbies, religion and personal values, communities' characteristics, individual goals, and ways people react to stressors, etc
- 6 Additional studies should consider levels of jobs to determine the influence on burnout and job satisfaction
- 7 The response rate of 72.9% was viewed as favorable. Yet to achieve an even higher rate, the instruments could be administered during training classes or clerical seminars held at this institution
- 8 However, employees who have high rates of job burnout or low rates of job satisfaction might not be inclined to attend these classes or seminars. This could be another interesting study

- 9 It would be interesting to see if clerical employees who had more student contact had higher or lower measures of job satisfaction and burnout than those employees who had less student contact
- 10 Further studies should include a higher percentage of males to determine whether or not there are differences of measures of job satisfaction and burnout between genders
- 11 Future studies should take into account the socioeconomic status of clerical employees This should include factors such as cultural interests, total wealth and earnings, and housing

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

**DEMOGRAPHIC SURVEY AND
LETTERS TO PARTICIPANTS**

For the following statements, please select the answer that best describes you.

1 Your present marital status (Circle number)

- 1 NEVER MARRIED
- 2 MARRIED
- 3 DIVORCED
- 4 SEPARATED
- 5 WIDOWED

2. Your present age (Check the category)

- ☐ UNDER 25
- ☐ 25 TO 34
- ☐ 35 TO 44
- ☐ 45 TO 54
- ☐ 55 TO 64
- ☐ 65 OR OLDER

3 Which is the highest level of education that you have completed? (Circle number)

- 1 LESS THAN A HIGH SCHOOL DEGREE
- 2 COMPLETED HIGH SCHOOL/GED
- 3 SOME TECHNICAL SCHOOL
- 4 SOME COLLEGE
- 5 ASSOCIATE'S DEGREE
- 6 BACHELOR'S DEGREE
- 7 SOME GRADUATE WORK
- 8 MASTER'S DEGREE OR BEYOND

4 Did you attend any training programs offered by UT Human Resources within the past year? (Check one)

- ☐ YES
- ☐ NO

5 Did you use the fee waiver (take any classes offered by the University) within the past year? (Check one)

- ☐ YES
- ☐ NO

6 Do you participate in any of the University's health plans? (Check one)

- ☐ YES
- ☐ NO

7 Do you have a flexible work schedule? (Check one)

- ☐ YES
- ☐ NO

- 8 My position is (Check one)
☐ FULL TIME (40 hours/week)
☐ PART TIME (less than 40 hours/week)
- 9 How long have you been employed at UT? (Check one)
☐ LESS THAN 5 YEARS
☐ 5-10 YEARS
☐ 11-15 YEARS
☐ MORE THAN 15 YEARS
- 10 Have you been promoted from one level to another since you have worked at UT?
(Check one)
☐ NO
☐ BEEN PROMOTED ONCE
☐ BEEN PROMOTED TWICE
☐ BEEN PROMOTED THREE OR MORE TIMES



Human Resources
224 Conference Center Building
Knoxville, TN 37996-4125
(865) 974-5151
FAX (865) 974-3856

MEMORANDUM

TO Barbara E Bright
FROM Alan P Chesney, Executive Director
DATE December 20, 1999
SUBJECT Use of Employee Database

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "A. Chesney", written over the printed name in the "FROM" line.

This memo is to grant you permission to use the University of Tennessee employee database in order to randomly sample names for your thesis project. The names and salary information provided are for your use only and are to be kept confidential.

Good luck with your thesis

APC/cnr

C Dr Ernest W Brewer
Ms Brenda Lawson



Human Resources
224 Conference Center Building
Knoxville, TN 37996-4125
(865) 974-5151
FAX (865) 974-3856

(DATE)

Dear Colleague,

You have been randomly selected from all clerical employees at this University to participate in a study designed for the completion of my thesis. This study will examine some factors related to your employment at UTK. Dr. Alan Chesney, Executive Director of Human Resources, encourages your participation in this study. Participation in this study is voluntary, and you may decline to participate without penalty. If you decide to participate, you may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty and without loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. If you withdraw from the study before data collection is completed, your data will be returned to you or destroyed. By returning the completed questionnaires, you are agreeing to participate.

You may be assured of complete **CONFIDENTIALITY**. The questionnaires have an identification number for mailing purposes only. This is so that I may remove your name from the mailing list when your questionnaires have been returned. Do not place your name on the questionnaires. The return of your completed questionnaires is crucial to the success of this project. Please return your completed questionnaires by January 20, 2000 in the campus envelope provided in your package of materials. Upon receipt of your completed questionnaire, your name will be entered into a drawing for a chance to win one of two \$25 gift certificates from the UT Book and Supply Store or a free computer class offered by Human Resources Training and Development.

The results of this research will be included in my thesis. I hope that you are willing to participate in this study. These surveys should only take about 15 minutes to complete. Should you have any questions or concerns, please do not hesitate to call me at 974-6642.

Thank you for your assistance!

Sincerely,

Barbara E. Bright
Human Resources

Xc Dr. Ernest W. Brewer
Professor and Chair of Thesis Committee

Creating Opportunities for Success
WEBSITE <http://web.utk.edu/~ohrm>



Human Resources
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FAX (865) 974-3856

(DATE)

Dear Colleague,

Earlier this month, a survey for my thesis study was sent to you. After reviewing my list, I discovered I have not yet received your survey. The return of your completed survey is crucial to the results of my thesis. Also, returning it will automatically enter you into the drawing for one of two **\$25 UT Book and Supply Store gift certificates** or a **free computer class** from UT Training and Development! Please try and return the instruments to me before **February 11, 2000**. If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to call me at 974-6642.

If you have already returned your survey, please disregard this letter.

Thanks again for your participation!

Sincerely,

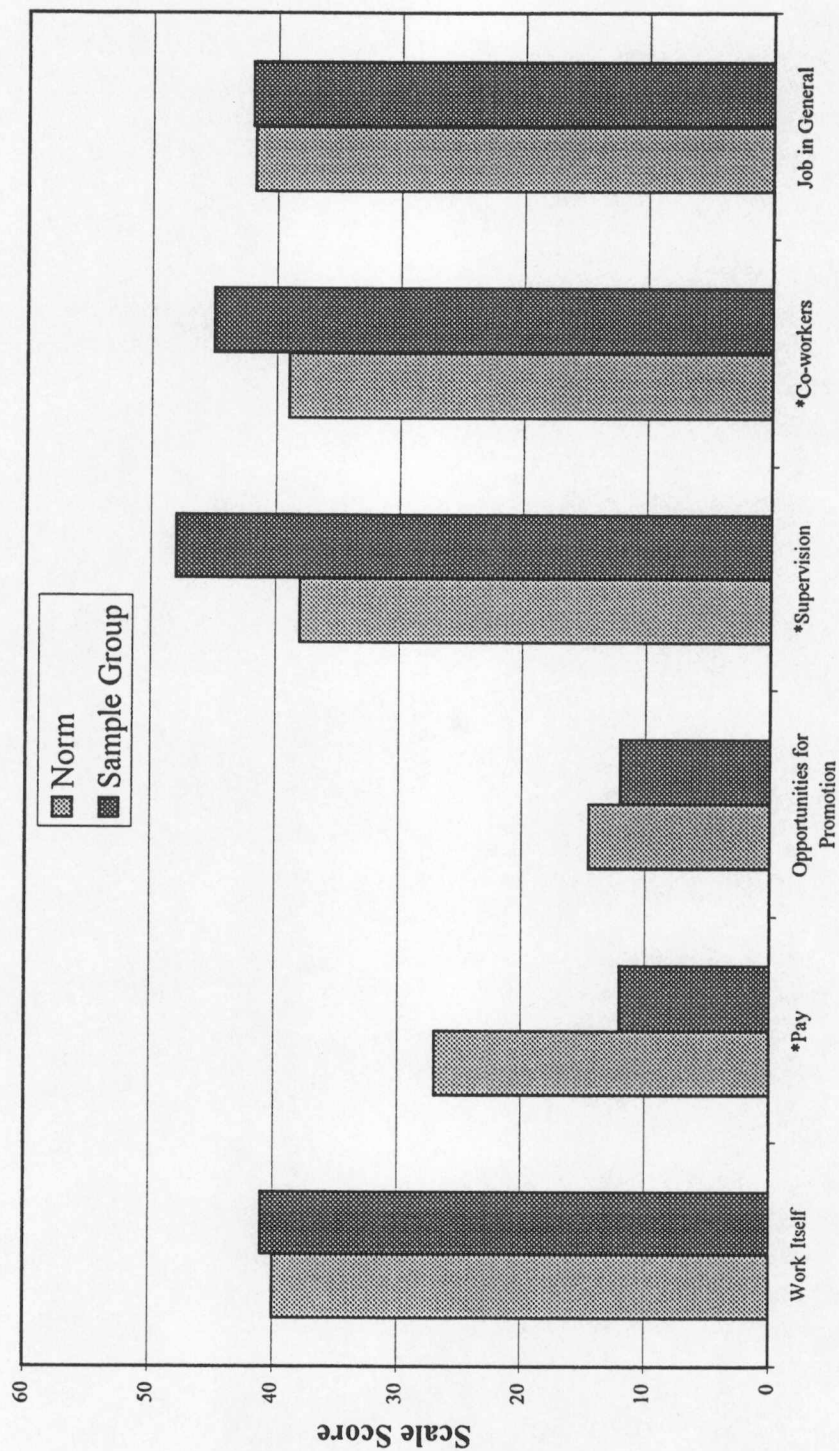
Barbara E. Bright
Human Resources

Xc: Dr. Ernest W. Brewer
Professor and Chair of Thesis Committee

APPENDIX B

FIGURES 1-12

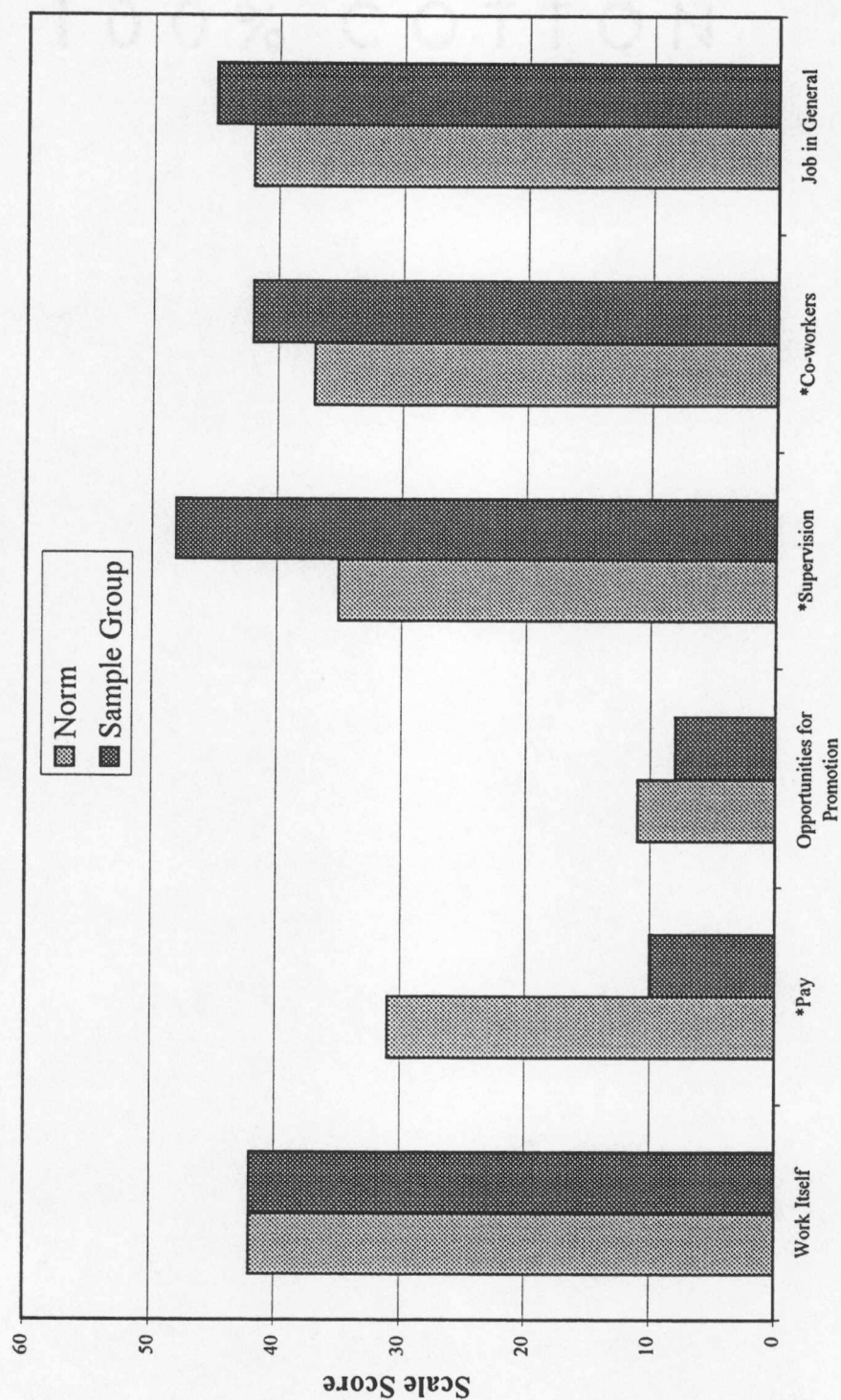
Figure 1. 0-5 Year Length of Service



JDI Subscales

* Significant at the .05 level.

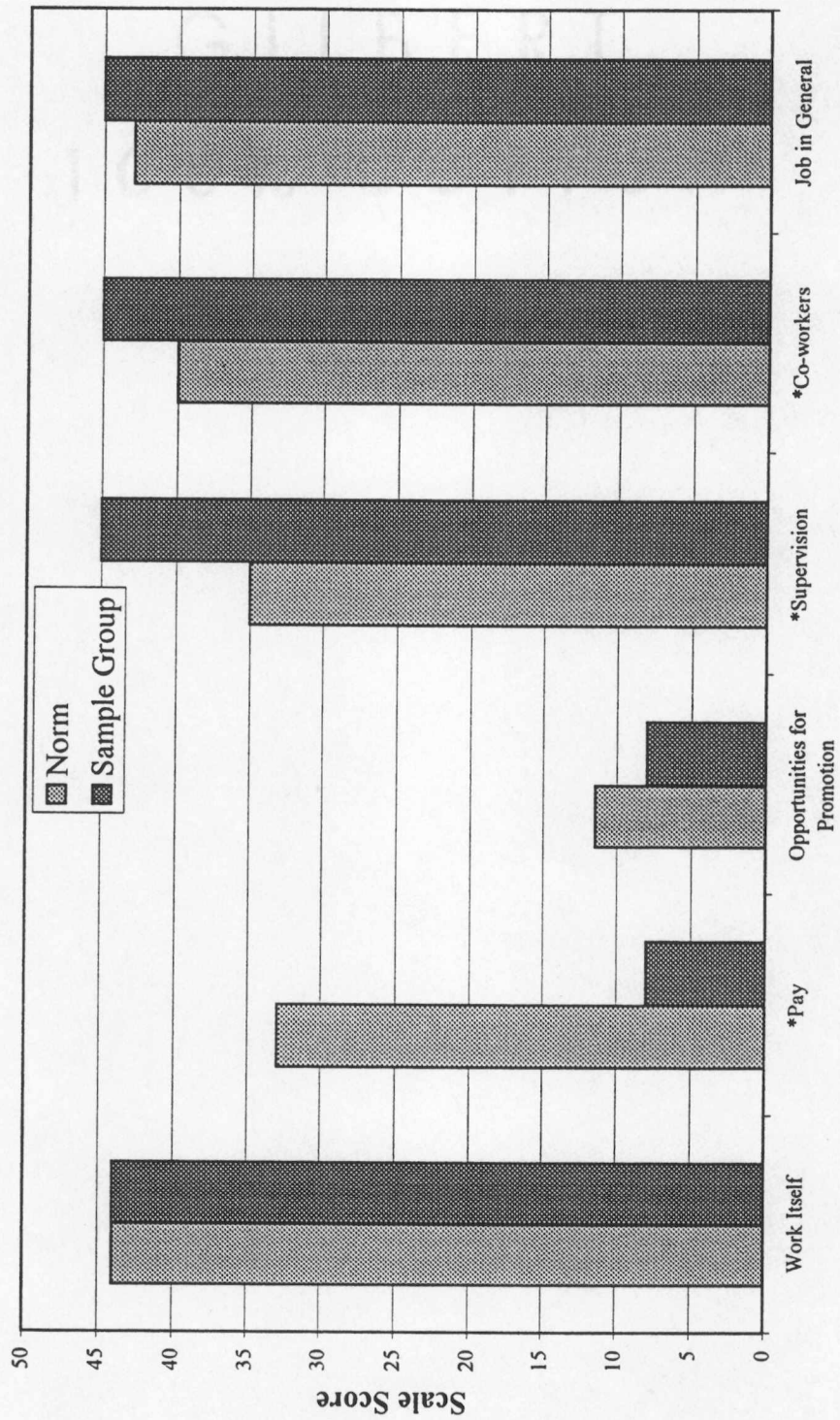
Figure 2. 5-10 Year Length of Service



JDI Subscales

* Significant at the .05 level.

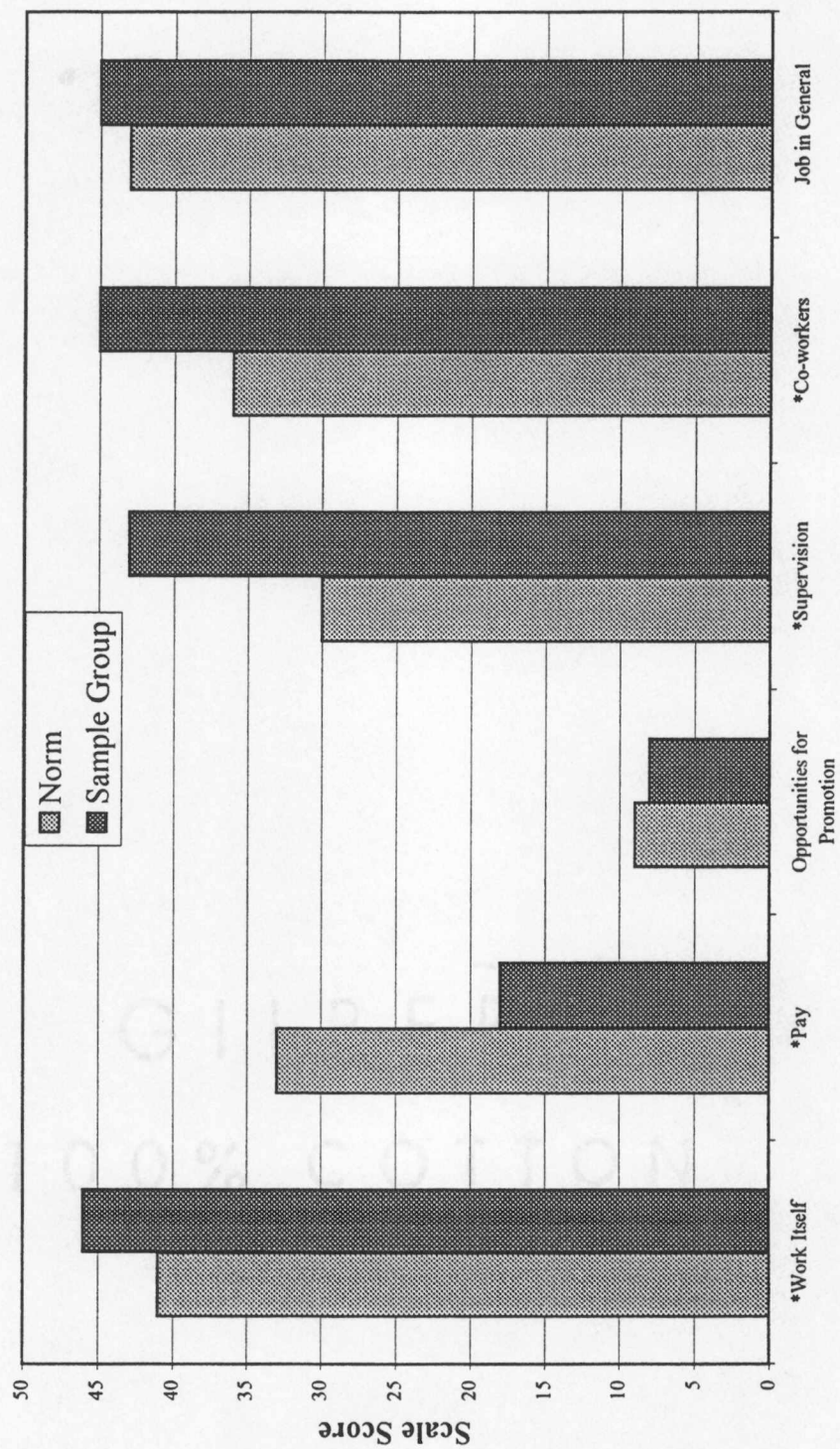
Figure 3. 11-15 Year Length of Service



JDI Subscales

* Significant at the .05 level.

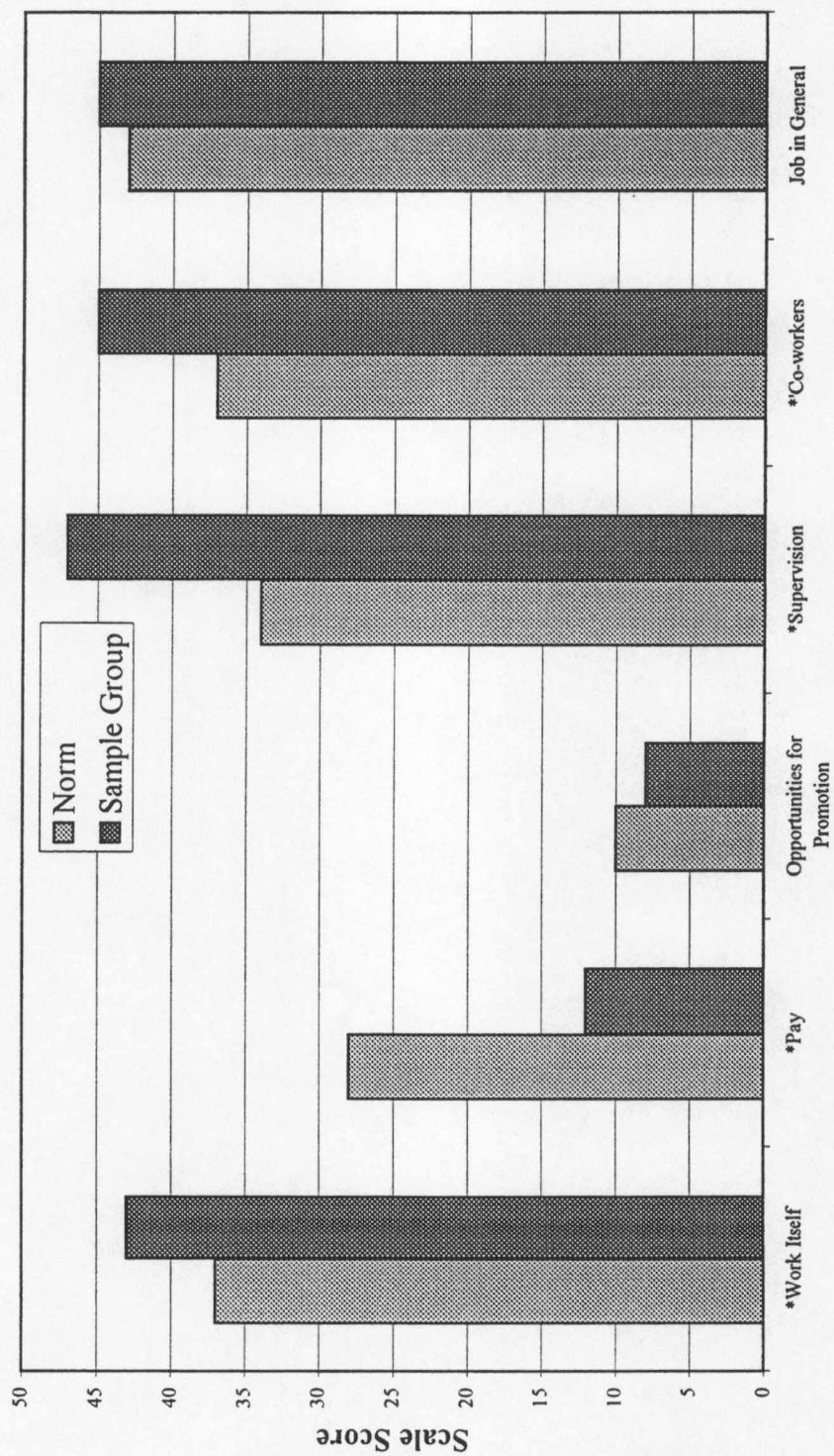
Figure 4. >15 Year Length of Service



JDI Subscales

* Significant at the .05 level.

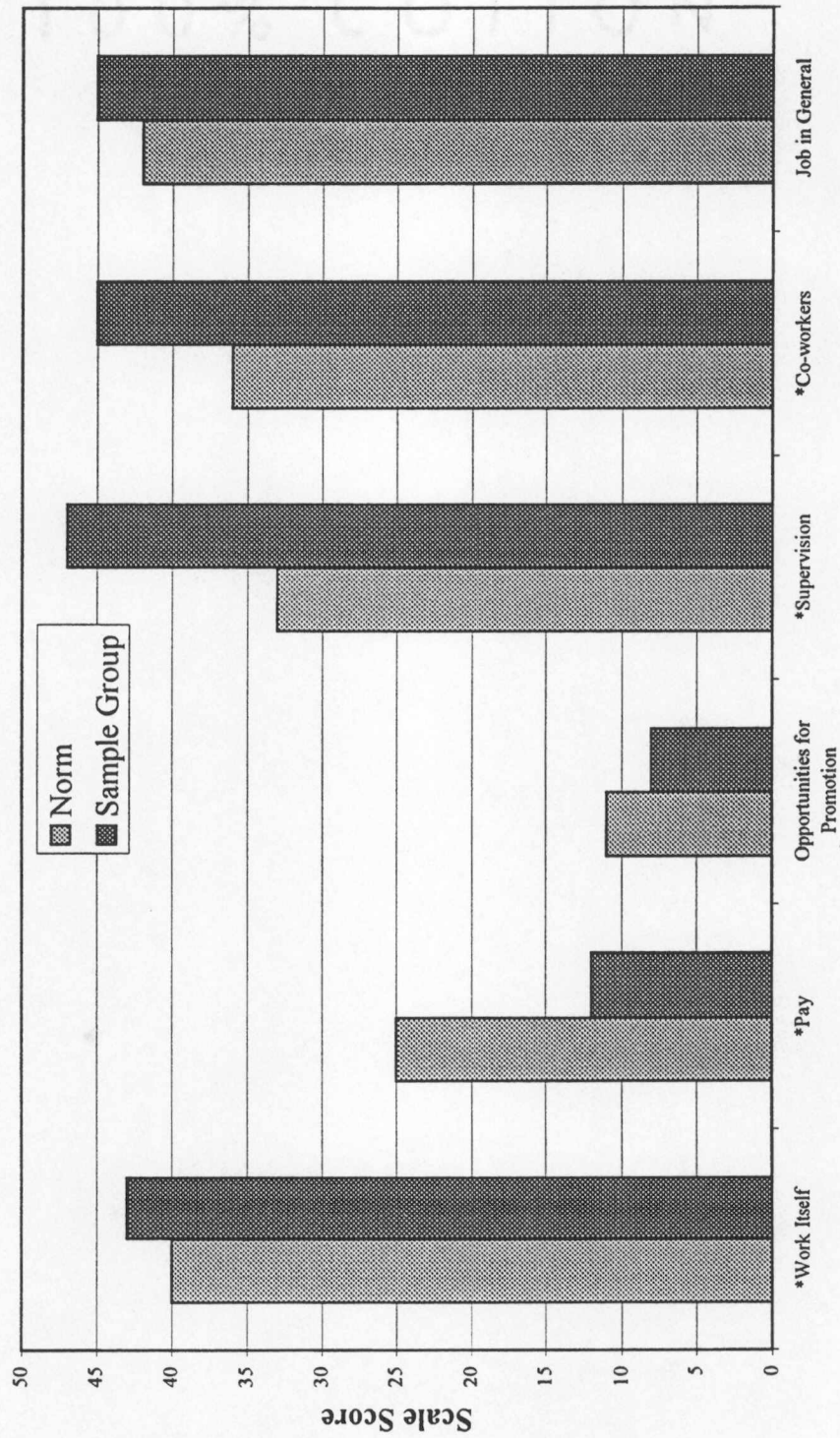
Figure 5. Non-manager



JDI Subscales

* Significant at the .05 level.

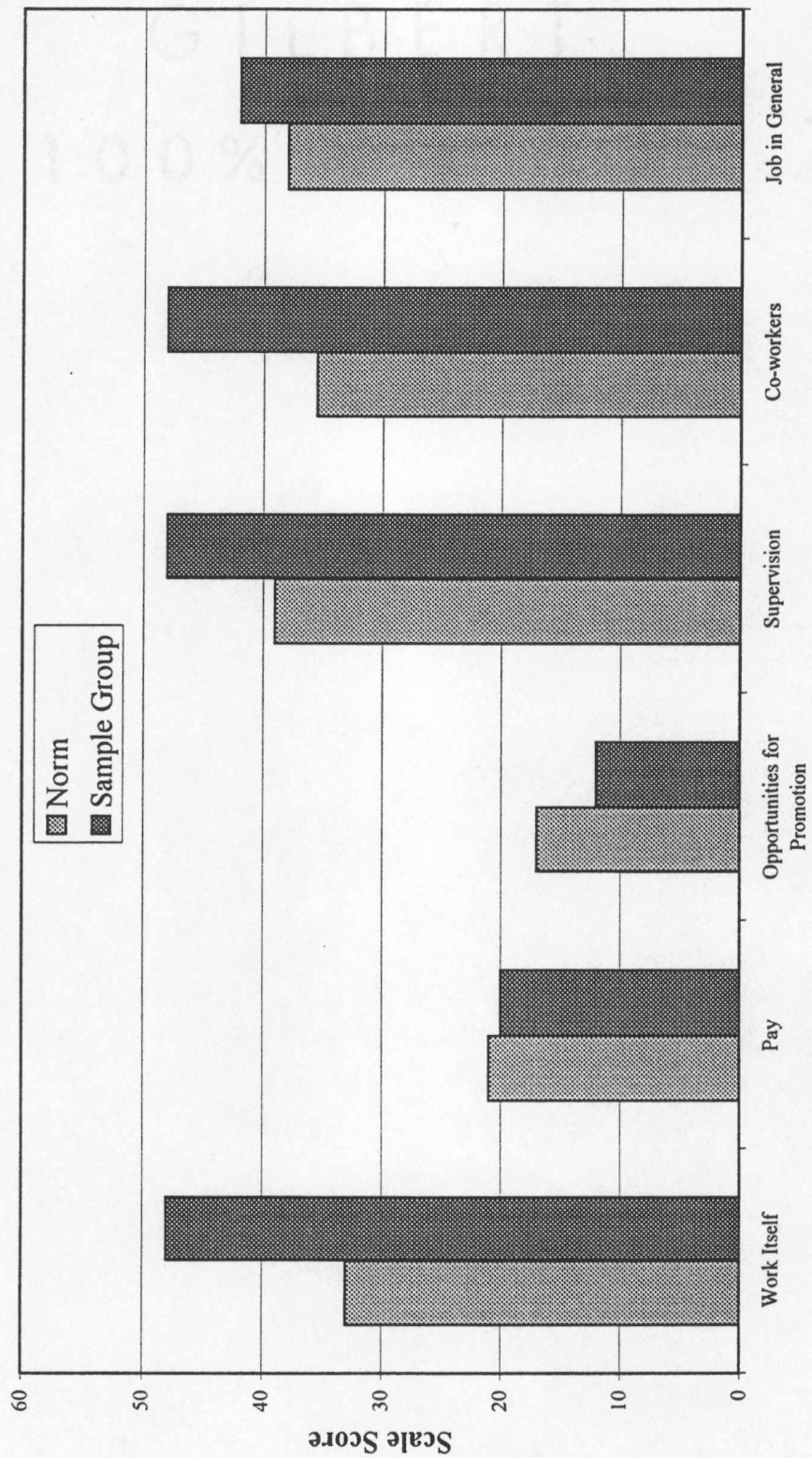
Figure 6. Government Organization



JDI Subscales

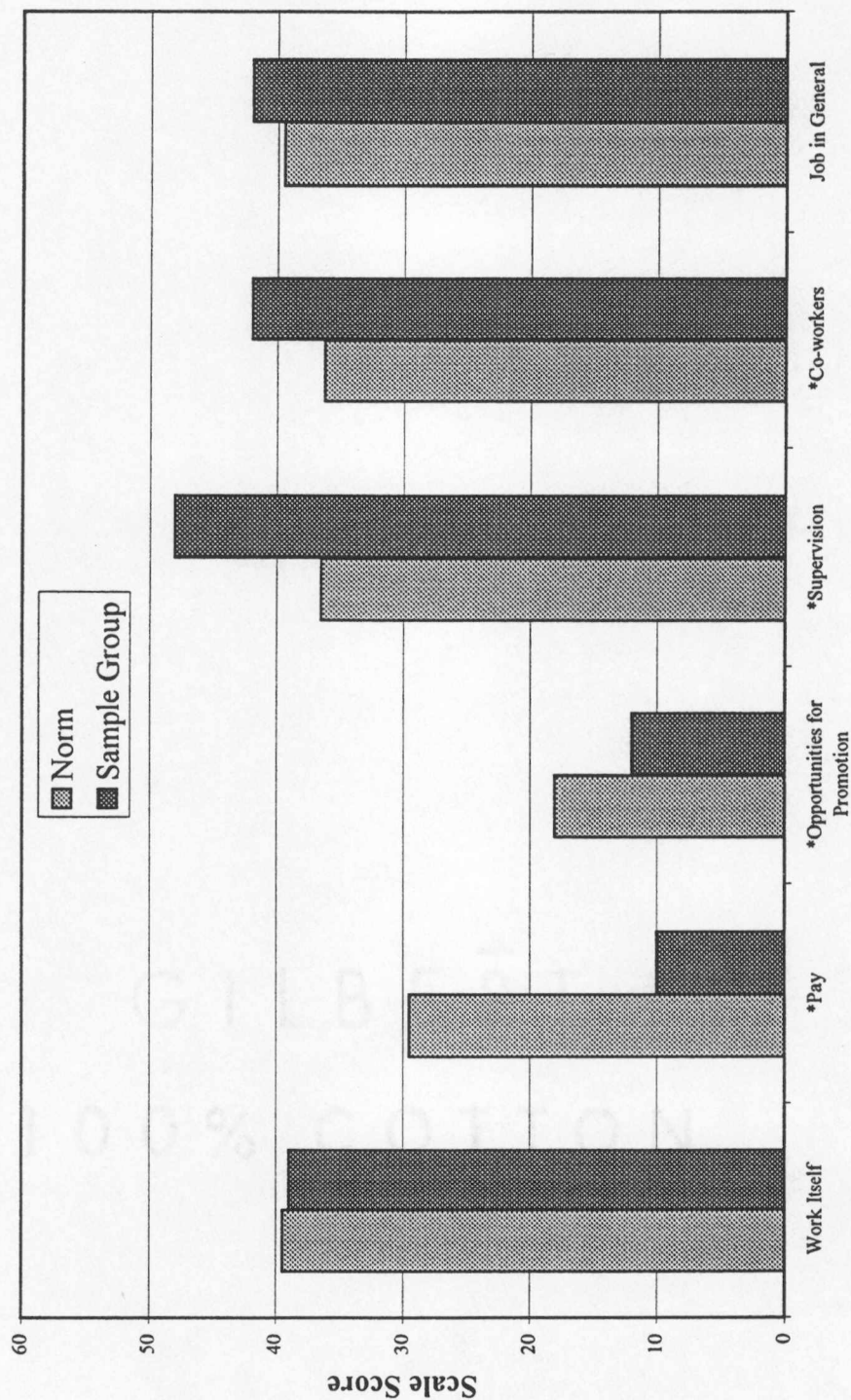
* Significant at the .05 level.

Figure 7. <25 Years of Age



JDI Subscales
* Significant at the .05 level.

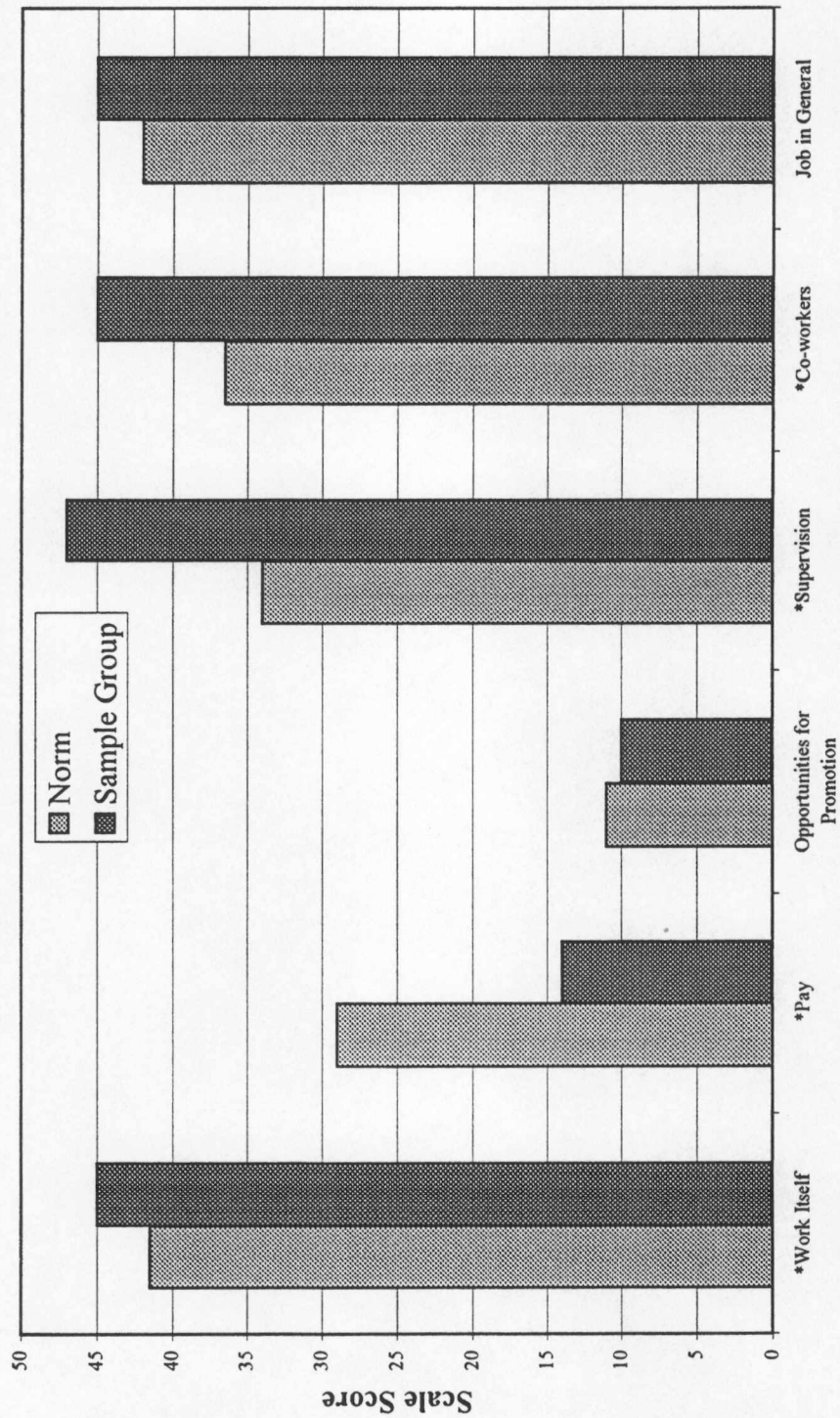
Figure 8. 25-34 Years of Age



JDI Subscales

* Significant at the .05 level.

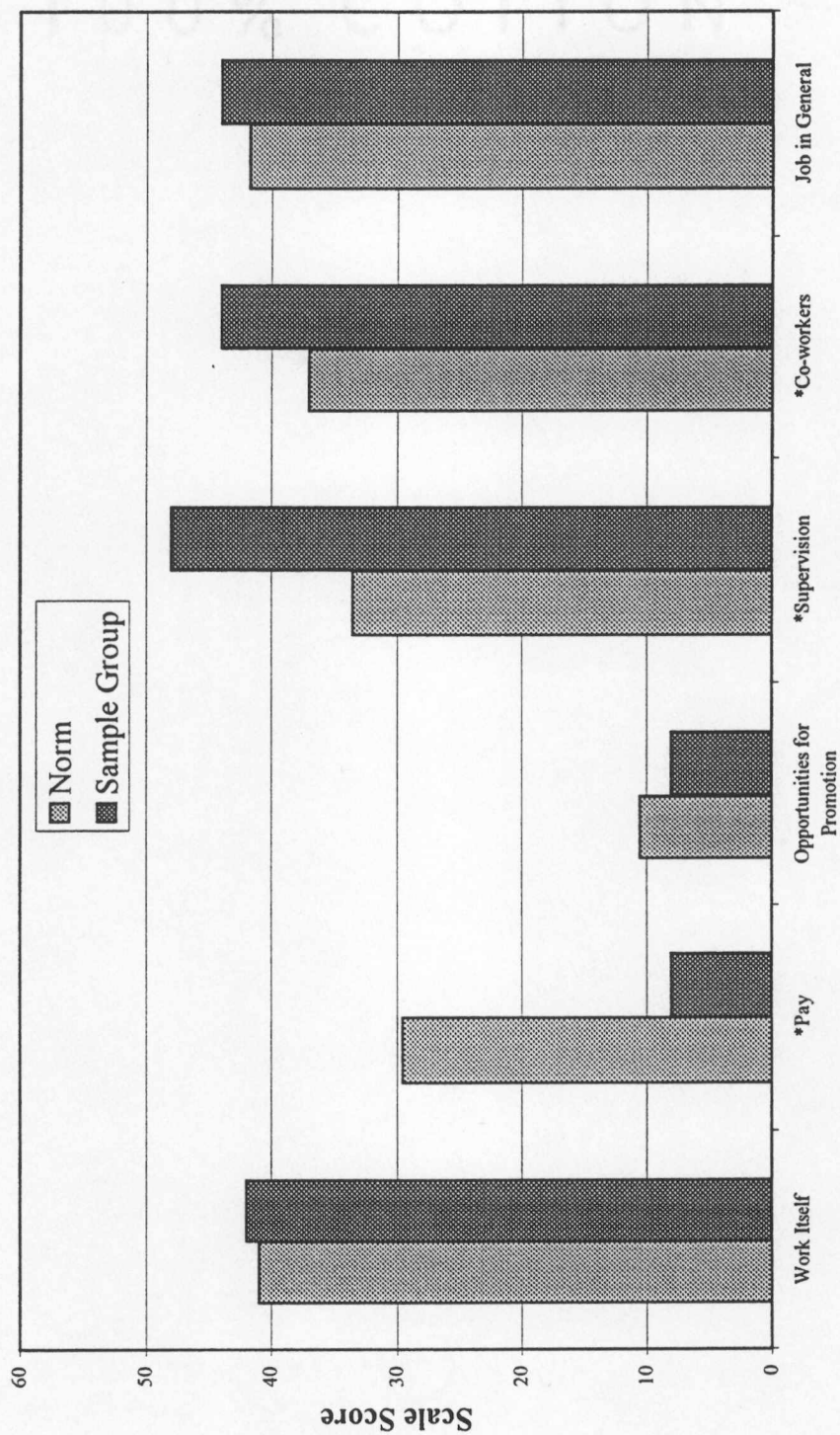
Figure 9. 35-44 Years of Age



JDI Subscales

* Significant at the .05 level.

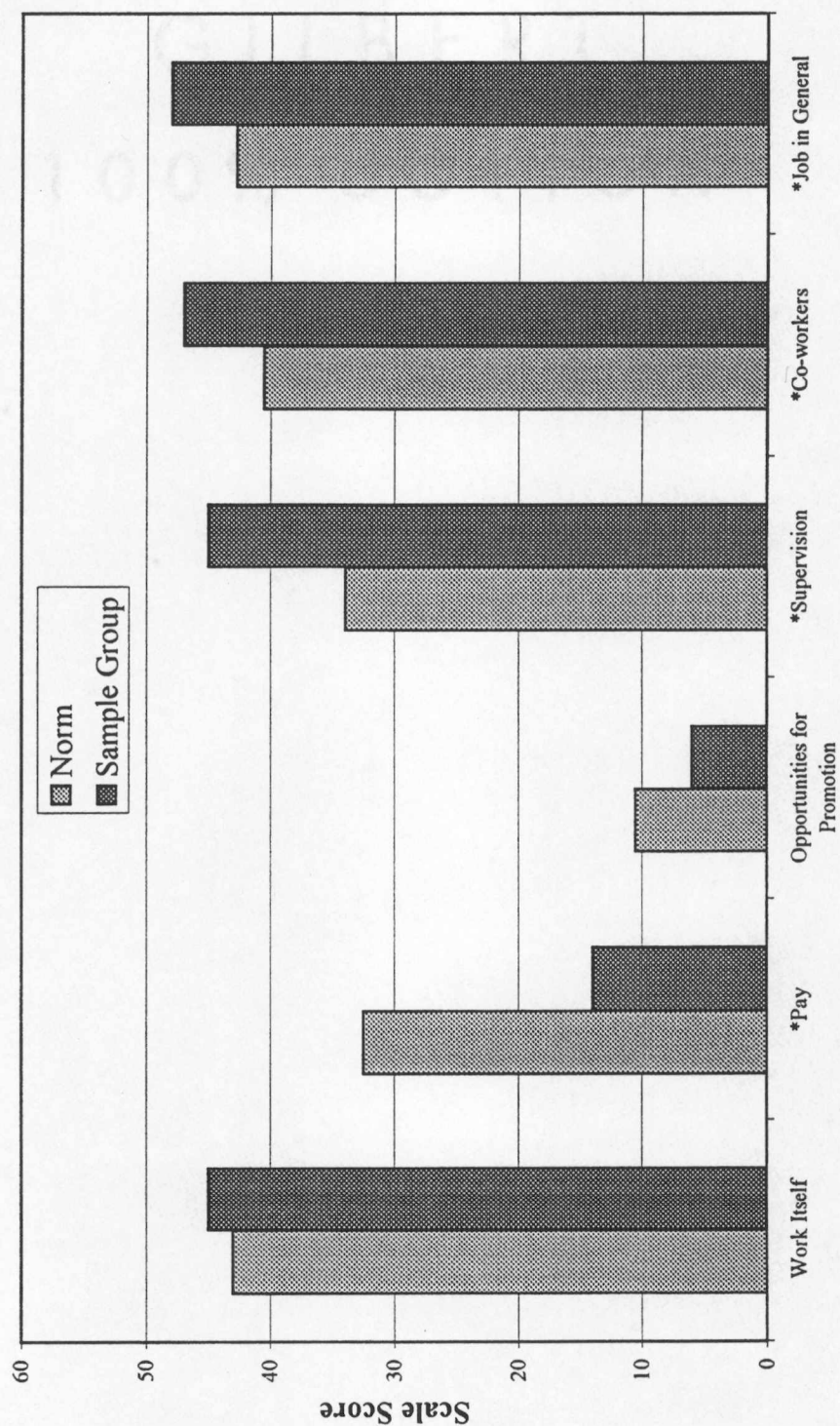
Figure 10. 45-54 Years of Age



JDI Subscales

* Significant at the .05 level.

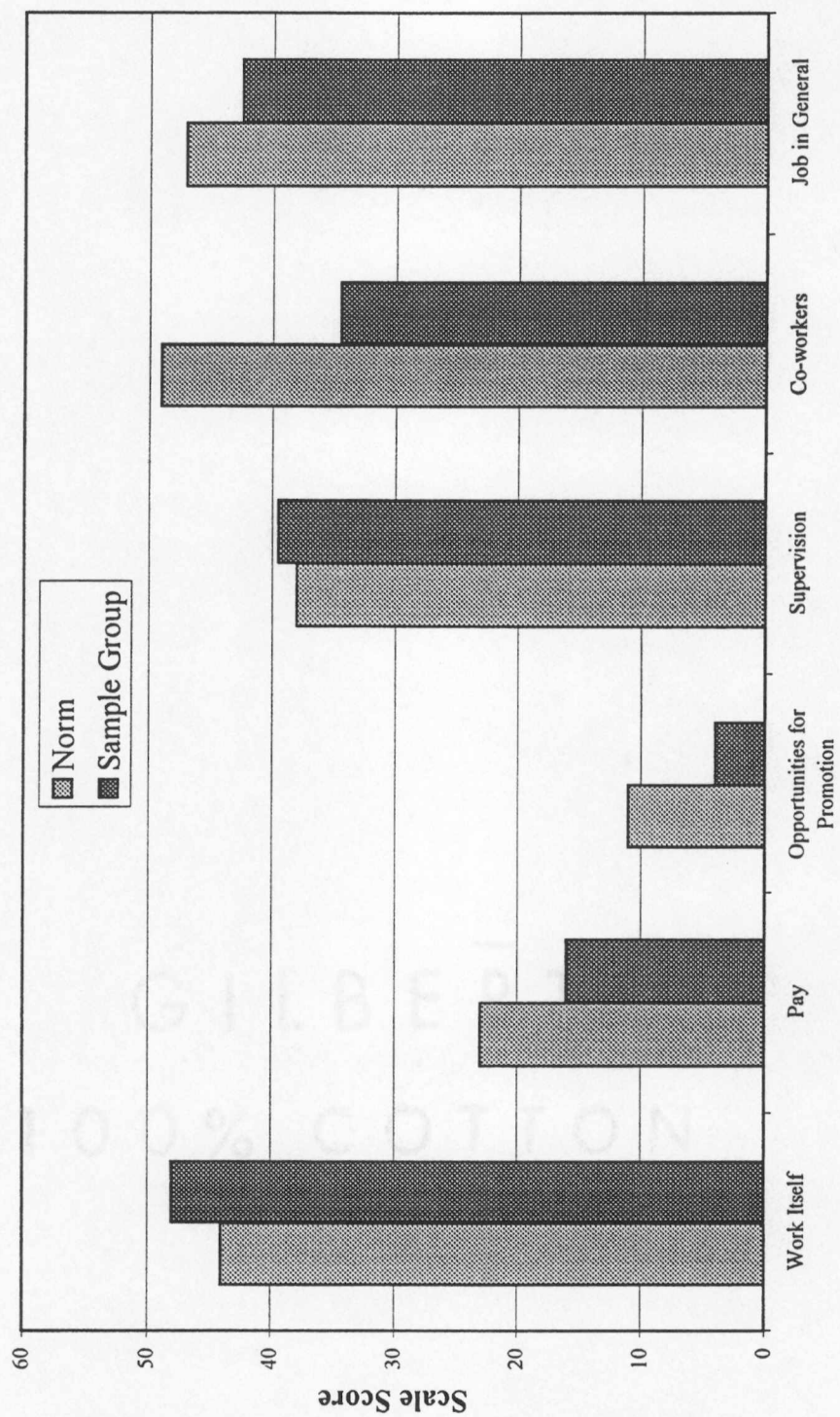
Figure 11. 55-64 Years of Age



JDI Subscales

* Significant at the .05 level.

Figure 12. >64 Years of Age



JDI Subscales

* Significant at the .05 level.

VITA

Barbara Elaine Bright was born in Sweetwater, TN where she attended public schools. In 1990 she received a Bachelor's of Arts in Psychology with High Honors from The University of Tennessee, Knoxville (UTK). Barbara worked for UTK from October 1992 to January 2000 in Human Resources Management. During this time, she entered the graduate school at the same university. She is currently seeking a Master's of Science in Human Resource Development, which is scheduled for completion in August 2000.

Barbara is presently employed as a recruiting and staffing specialist for Wackenhut Services, Inc. in Oak Ridge, TN.