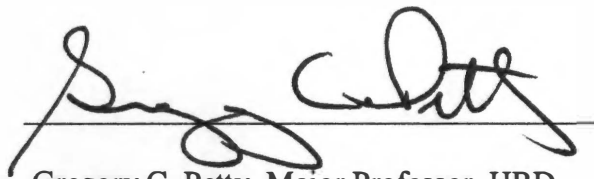


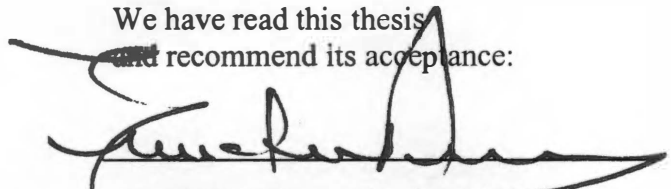
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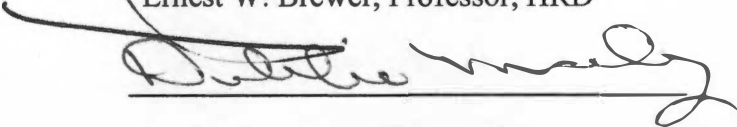
I am submitting herewith a thesis written by Beth Brown entitled "Job Satisfaction Among Employees of a Youth Development Organization." I have examined the final paper copy of this thesis for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science, with a major in Human Resource Development.



Gregory C. Petty, Major Professor, HRD

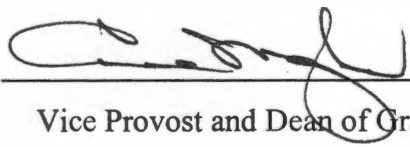
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and recommend its acceptance:



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Vice Provost and Dean of Graduate Studies

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**JOB SATISFACTION AMONG EMPLOYEES
OF A YOUTH DEVELOPMENT ORGANIZATION**

**A Thesis
Presented for the
Master of Science
Degree**

The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

**Beth Michelle Brown
August 2002**

ABSTRACT

The degree of job satisfaction that an employee experiences has been identified with the employee's quality of life, physical well-being, and psychological well-being (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Fisher, 2000; Heslop, Smith, Metcalfe, & Macleod, 2002; Locke, 1976; Sheehan, 1993). The purpose was to investigate whether or not a significant association existed between job satisfaction and specific demographic variables. The demographic variables examined were company tenure, age, gender, marital status, and education.

The population study consisted of all employees of The Boys and Girls Clubs of America (BGCA) in a particular city. The BGCA contributes to successful academic and personal outcomes for high-risk youth (Buzzi, 1997; Tierney, Grossman, & Resch, 1995). Employees of youth development organizations that serve underprivileged, high-risk youth are especially prone to job stress and problems with job satisfaction (Shassian & Hampl, 2000).

Overall job satisfaction was measured using the Job Satisfaction Index (JSI). This study was designed to answer these questions: (a) Does a significant relationship exist between job satisfaction and company tenure and age? (b) Is there a significant difference between job satisfaction and gender, marital status, and education? and (c) What was the level of job satisfaction among the employees at BGCA? Data analyses for the null hypotheses included ANOVA, coefficient correlations, and *t* tests. No significant relationships or differences were found in the 5 demographic variables. Results indicated that the BGCA employees were overall highly satisfied with their job.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The degree of job satisfaction that an employee experiences has been identified with the employee's quality of life, physical well-being, and psychological well-being (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Fisher, 2000; Heslop, Smith, Metcalfe, & Macleod, 2002; Locke, 1976; Sheehan, 1993). Employees have consistently ranked their jobs as the number one source of stress in their lives (Fisher). Statistics show that company costs run at least \$200 billion a year in stress-related absenteeism, lower productivity, increased compensation claims, health insurance, and direct medical expenses (Clugston, 2000). A low level of job satisfaction with one's job can theoretically result in one leaving his or her job. Several studies showed how an employee's intention to quit is linked to job dissatisfaction (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Clugston; Heslop et al.; Locke; Turnley & Feldman, 2000). Employee turnover due to job dissatisfaction has created further company costs in recruiting, selecting, and training new employees (Halpern, 1999).

Changing demographic variables could have a significant impact on the job satisfaction of today's workforce: Employees are becoming more educated, the mandatory retirement age is rising, a greater number of women are entering the workforce, and more dual-household careers are existing (Clugston, 2000). The findings of past research on job satisfaction and demographic variables were mixed. Several studies have shown education, age, and gender to be highly linked to job satisfaction (Lambert, 1991; Lee & Wilbur, 1985; Ting, 1997). However, other studies have shown these demographic variables to not be linked with job satisfaction (Mack, 2000; Niblock, 1999; Wu, 1994). The association between demographic variables and job satisfaction

could affect the workplace effectiveness or the stress experienced through certain jobs (Clugston). An investigation of the association between job satisfaction and company tenure, age, gender, marital status, and education could assist human resource personnel and managers in creating a better workplace (Clugston; Heslop et al.).

Employees of youth development organizations that serve underprivileged, high-risk youth are especially prone to job stress and problems with job satisfaction (Franze, Foster, Abbott-Shim, Frances, & Lambert, 2002; Halpern, 1999; McLaughlin, Irby, & Langman, 1994; Shassian & Hampl, 2000). These teachers, counselors, and office staff work with high-risk youth who live in an environment often mixed with prejudice, limited future job prospects, poverty, violence, gangs, alcohol and drug abuse, and turbulent family life (Franze et al., 2002; McLaughlin et al.). Youth development programs such as the Boys and Girls Clubs of America (BGCA) are necessary and highly successful for underprivileged, high-risk youth (Shassian & Hampl). However, these types of nonprofit organizations do not have the money to keep selecting and retraining employees. Due to the lack of research, the job satisfaction of employees involved with youth development organizations should be further investigated.

An important part of the job for employees in youth development organizations is to help youth deal with the negative environment surrounding them. Duties for the BGCA staff include educating, counseling, and initiating disciplinary action for youth as well as coordinating a variety of health and academic performance programs. Unfortunately, dealing with high-risk youth creates stress and a high rate of employee turnover (Shassian & Hampl, 2000). Employees involved with high-risk youth are faced with the added stress of dealing with violence, gangs, crime, and frequent child misbehavior compared to

employees of other after-school care programs that do not involve high-risk youth (McLaughlin et al., 1994). Nearly one-third of the BGCA staff were lost each year (Halpern, 1999). As with other nonprofit organizations, the BGCA cannot afford turnover of employees because they do not have a great amount of money for temporary help, training, and retraining. Job dissatisfaction could be related to this increase in employee turnover (Franze et al., 2002; Sheehan, 1993). Thus, the increase in turnover rates among the BGCA employees could indicate that they were dissatisfied with their job. Therefore, this research determined whether the BGCA employees are satisfied or dissatisfied with their current job. The BGCA participants were all from one city in the United States. The BGCA asked the researcher to not disclose the city name or state, so the geographic location of the BGCA participants was referred to as “City X” for this study.

Rationale

It is reported that the health of an organization is dependent on the satisfaction of its employees, and subsequently, job satisfaction is an important area to research (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Clungston, 2000; Locke, 1976). One survey showed that having a “satisfied job” surpassed “salary” as a consideration in choosing a job (Kock, 1998). For an organization or profession to grow and to remain healthy, it periodically needs to assess the level of job satisfaction of its members. Moreover, the association between job satisfaction and the high costs of employee turnover, recruitment, absenteeism, and decreased productivity has demonstrated the need to research job satisfaction (Soler, 1998).

Drummond and Stoddard (1991) suggested that low job satisfaction might cause a great source of frustration, anxiety, and depression for employees. Research on job

satisfaction has consistently confirmed that low job satisfaction could cause employees to withdraw from their jobs, look for new jobs in another organization, or simply change careers (Locke, 1976; Soler, 1998). Moreover, Porter and Steers (1973) reviewed 20 studies that demonstrated a significant association between higher job satisfaction and better job performance.

With the increase of dual-career households, the demand for after-school youth development programs has increased from 66% to 78% over the past 20 years (Kock, 1998). Furthermore, women with young children make up 47% of the workforce, which increases the demand for youth development organizations (Kock). Youth development organizations, like the BGCA, allow low-income parents to work during the after-school hours. The majority of parents either pay a low fee of \$5 a month or qualify for free childcare at the BGCA. More over, these youth development programs are an important positive influence for underprivileged youth (Franze et al., 2002; Kroll, 1999). Youth involvement with these after-school programs are associated with successful academic and personal outcomes, especially for high-risk youth (Tierney, Grossman, & Resch, 1995).

Employee turnover is extremely high on a national level for youth development organizations serving high-risk youth (Franze et al., 2002; Halpern, 1999). Turnover in youth development organizations are 30% or more each year (Halpern). Employee turnover occurs at any time during the year and often unexpectedly (Clugston, 2000). Furthermore, job vacancies at youth development organizations can last for long periods of time, which multiplies the stress on remaining employees and could cause certain youth development programs to stop because no one is available to teach the programs

(Halpern). The BGCA is one of the most highly recognized nonprofit youth development organization that deals primarily with underprivileged, high-risk youth (Hirsch et al., 2000).

Although focusing on employee demographics shifts the burden away from the organization to the employee rather than identifying ways to improve job task or organizational factors that negatively affect job satisfaction, it was important to study how employee demographics can affect the level of job satisfaction. More research was needed relating to employee demographics and general job satisfaction. The rationale for conducting this study was the inconsistency of research findings relative to job satisfaction and demographic variables. Although studies of job satisfaction have been conducted, little research has been reported of the job satisfaction of employees involved with youth development organizations. No studies have been conducted to acquire the level of job satisfaction of the BGCA employees. For these reasons, this study examined the association between demographic variables and the level of job satisfaction of the BGCA employees in City X. The study added to the body of literature regarding the association between job satisfaction and specific demographic variables.

Statement of the Problem

Demographics are driving changes in the workforce (Clugston, 2000; Good, 2002). Although numerous researchers have investigated demographic variables associated with job satisfaction, an incongruity existed for the association between personal demographics and job satisfaction (Lambert, 1991; Lingren et al., 1987; Johnson & Johnson, 2000; Mack, 2000; Moore, 1999; Ting, 1997). To increase the body of knowledge regarding job satisfaction and demographic variables, the purpose of this

study was to examine the association between job satisfaction and specific demographics. The demographics examined were company tenure, age, gender, marital status, and education.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose was to investigate the association between overall job satisfaction and demographic variables of various employees at a nonprofit organization that cares for underprivileged, high-risk youth. More specifically, this study investigated whether or not significant relationships or differences existed between job satisfaction and specific demographic variables. The variables examined were company tenure, age, gender, marital status, and education. These variables could have had a significant impact on the job satisfaction of the BGCA employees.

Research Questions

To investigate the effects of demographic variables on job satisfaction, several research questions and hypotheses were developed to focus this study. The research questions and hypotheses were based on the purpose. This research provided information to the following six research questions:

1. Does a significant relationship exist between company tenure and job satisfaction?
2. Does a significant relationship exist between age and job satisfaction?
3. Does a significant difference exist between gender and job satisfaction?
4. Does a significant difference exist between marital status and job satisfaction?
5. Does a significant difference exist between education and job satisfaction?
6. What is the level of job satisfaction among the BGCA employees in City X?
In other words, are the BGCA employees satisfied with their job?

Null Hypotheses

The purpose was to investigate the association between overall job satisfaction and demographic variables. In relation to the study's purpose and research questions, five null hypotheses were formed:

- H₀1: There is no significant relationship between overall job satisfaction and company tenure for the BGCA employees as measured by the JSI.
- H₀2: There is no significant relationship between overall job satisfaction and age for the BGCA employees as measured by the JSI.
- H₀3: There is no significant difference between overall job satisfaction and gender for the BGCA employees as measured by the JSI.
- H₀4: There is no significant difference between overall job satisfaction and marital status for the BGCA employees as measured by the JSI.
- H₀5: There is no significant difference between overall job satisfaction and education for the BGCA employees as measured by the JSI.

Assumptions, Delimitations, and Limitations

Assumptions of the Study

When examining the association between demographic variables and job satisfaction, some assumptions existed. Most importantly, this study assumed that the participating the BGCA employees responded truthfully to the survey. The following assumptions applied:

1. Job satisfaction was assumed to be defined as having a positive attitude towards one's professional job position.
2. The participants fully understood and comprehended all of the survey items.
3. Survey responses reflected the overall accurate attitude of the population.
4. The Job Satisfaction Index was an appropriate instrument as well as a reliable and valid index to measure job satisfaction.

5. The Likert response scale yielded useable data.

Delimitations of the Study

Several delimitations existed for this study. These delimitations were based on the purpose of this study. The following delimitations applied:

1. The subjects of this study were the population of the BGCA employees in City X.
2. Data used for this study were based on the perceptions of the BGCA employees regarding their job satisfaction.
3. Data were limited to items on the Job Satisfaction Index and demographic survey.
4. Nonrandom sampling was used instead of random sampling. Random sampling provided the best opportunity to obtain unbiased samples.
5. Only employees present at the BGCA club the day the survey was passed out were able to participate.

Limitations of the Study

To investigate the effects of demographic variables on job satisfaction, several limitations existed. This study was limited in that it was a correlation research design and did not test causal comparative hypotheses. The following limitations for interpreting the results were made:

1. The major limitation of the present study was based upon the sample. The study was limited to the BGCA employees in City X. The study was limited to the BGCA employees who volunteered to participate in the research project.
2. Analysis of the study's data were limited to the measurements of the 5-point Likert rating scale.
3. The demographic variables examined were limited to company tenure, age, gender, marital status, and education.

4. Conclusions developed were only applicable to the BGCA employees in City X. Further, the motives for this research were limited to examining the association between demographics and job satisfaction of the BGCA.
5. Results were limited to the participants' responses on the job satisfaction survey and demographic survey.
6. Although the findings from this research did help better understand the association between the levels of job satisfaction and demographic variables, the results were not sufficient for planning and designing employee development programs at the BGCA.
7. The results were only as accurate as the perceptions of the participants. With participants voluntarily responding to the survey, the information could be biased due to those who chose to respond and those who chose to not respond to the survey. Furthermore, the response reported towards job satisfaction could have been higher or lower than usual due to a current situation in the workplace.

Operational Definitions

The purpose was to investigate the association between overall job satisfaction and demographic variables of employees among a youth development organization. The specific demographic variables investigated were company tenure, age, gender, marital status, and education. The following five terms were defined for proper interpretation.

1. *Job satisfaction.* A pleasurable or positive overall attitude towards one's job.
2. *Education.* One's highest completed level of education. For this study, education had five attributes: less than high school diploma, high school graduate or GED, 2 years of college or associate's degree, a bachelor's degree, or a graduate degree.
3. *Demographic variables.* Personal characteristics that described an individual, such as one's age, gender, race, marital status, income, and education.
4. *Marital status.* Participants had two attributes to choose from for marital status: (a) married or (b) not-married. The not-married category included those who were single, separated, divorced, or widowed.
5. *Company tenure.* The length of employment at a particular company. For this study, company tenure applied to the BGCA.

6. *The Boys and Girls Clubs of America*. The BGCA is a leading youth development, nonprofit organization that serves high-risk, low-income youth. The employees that participated included counselors, teachers, and office staff.

Summary

The purpose of this research was to investigate whether or not a significant association existed between job satisfaction and demographic variables. The five demographic variables were company tenure, age, gender, marital status, and education. Based on the purpose, this research tested five null hypotheses. Although focusing on employee demographics shifts the burden away from the organization to the employee rather than identifying ways to improve job task or organizational factors that negatively affect job satisfaction, it was important to study how employee demographics can affect the level of job satisfaction. These variables could have had a significant impact on the job satisfaction of the BGCA employees.

The population consisted of the BGCA employees in City X. Because after-school youth development programs are viewed as necessary for underprivileged, high-risk youth (Kroll, 1999), it was essential to look at the job satisfaction level of the people directly involved in this profession. This study examined how satisfied the BGCA employees were with their job. No other study has investigated the job satisfaction of the BGCA employees. Human resource, administrators, industrial psychology, and social scientist professionals should be interested in the findings.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Employees spend numerous hours at their job, therefore job satisfaction was an important area of research (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Kock, 1998). Job satisfaction has been one of the most common research topics in regards to the work place environment (Clugston, 2000; Fisher, 2000; Soler, 1998). Locke (1976) stated that it was important to research job satisfaction because job satisfaction contributed to other actions, attitudes, and outcomes.

Current Theoretical Perspectives

Job satisfaction has been defined several ways. Brayfield and Rothe (1951) defined job satisfaction as a feeling or affective state employees had towards their job. Hoppock (1935) defined job satisfaction as any combination of psychological, physiological, and environmental elements that caused a person to feel job satisfaction. Spector (1985) defined job satisfaction as “an emotional affective response to a job or specific aspect of a job” (p. 695). Vroom (1964) defined job satisfaction as the reaction of the employees against the role they play in their job. Job satisfaction was defined as having a pleasurable or positive overall attitude towards one’s job.

General and Specific Job Satisfaction

Past researchers have divided job satisfaction into two main categories: general satisfaction and specific satisfaction. General satisfaction is defined as an overall evaluation of one's feeling for his or her job (Drummond & Stoddard, 1991). General satisfaction was referred to as overall job satisfaction. On the other hand, specific satisfaction was defined as an evaluation of various aspects of the job. Examples of

specific job satisfaction included working conditions, pay, relationships with coworkers or supervisor, pay, policies, and the nature of the job itself (Drummond & Stoddard). Furthermore, specific satisfaction is divided into subgroups: intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (Herzberg, 1968). The focus of this study was related to the overall attitude (general satisfaction) of one's feeling for his or her job instead of various aspects of the job (specific satisfaction).

Job Satisfaction Theories

Taylor's Theory

Frederick Taylor introduced the theory of scientific management in an effort to make employees more productive (Copley & Taylor, 1923). Although this theory was used more to increase productivity than to increase employee satisfaction, the study showed the importance of looking at employee attitudes. Taylor's solution was to scientifically measure and time all components of each job to find the one best way to get the job done. Taylor's time and motion studies showed employees how through the piece-work based pay, they could earn more money (Copley & Taylor). Taylor stated that employees who followed the scientific management philosophy appeared to be satisfied and productive.

Hoppock's Study

Robert Hoppock published the first extensive study on job satisfaction (Hoppock, 1935). Consisting of a sample population of 500 teachers, the 100 most satisfied teachers were compared to the 100 least satisfied (Hoppock). As a result, significant relationships were found between job satisfaction and personal characteristics of emotional adjustment, religion, feelings of success, interest in job, and fatigue (Hoppock). Hoppock's study

showed that job satisfaction involves numerous factors instead of just one or a few specific job factors.

Maslow's Theory

Job satisfaction is related to general theories of human needs. Maslow's (1954) Theory of Human Motivation has provided important contributions to job satisfaction. This theory was classified as a content theory, which states that one's needs or values must be fulfilled in order for a high level of job satisfaction to occur (Locke, 1976). Maslow's hierarchy of needs is widely recognized and provided a framework to observe and evaluate human motivation. Maslow's theory placed human needs in an hierarchical sequential fashion. Maslow's theory stated that as basic needs were met, more complex needs became important, but higher needs could not be reached until the basic needs were satisfied.

According to Maslow's hierarchy of needs, needs are prioritized in six levels: (a) physiological needs for survival, such as food and water; (b) safety needs for protection, such as shelter; (c) belongingness and the need for love; (d) esteem needs, or the need for self-respect; and (e) self-actualization, or the need for personal fulfillment. The highest level of Maslow's model addressed an employee's need for self-development, which Maslow termed self-actualization. Although Maslow did not develop a specific theory of employee motivation, his theory led to the development of employee incentive programs (Stone, Mowday, & Porter, 1977).

Hawthorne Study

The famous Hawthorne studies recognized the association between job satisfaction and productivity (Mayo, 1966). The Hawthorne studies were probably the

first studies to attract serious attention to job satisfaction. Mayo and his associates conducted their studies at the Western Electric Plant at Hawthorne, IL. Findings from the proposed study showed that when illumination was increased, the level of performance increased (Mayo). However productivity also increased in the control group. This unanticipated effect became known as the Hawthorne Effect. The researchers concluded that productivity increased because employees had received personal attention. When morale was high among the employees, productivity was also high. As a result, this research showed the importance of employees' attitudes.

Theory X and Theory Y

McGregor identified two management styles labeled Theory X and Theory Y (1960). Theory X assumed that employees were basically lazy, disliked work, and had opposite goals from their organization (McGregor). Theory X stated that management had to provide close supervision and guidance to insure high employee performance (McGregor). However, Theory Y stated that employees needed little rigid organizational or interpersonal control to obtain high employee performance. Although Theory X and Theory Y did not focus on job satisfaction, these theories along with Hawthorne, Maslow, and Taylor's studies helped attract serious attention to job satisfaction.

Vroom's Theory

Vroom's (1964) work provided a foundation for examining the factors that contributed to job satisfaction. Vroom's expectancy theory showed that a relationship existed between wanting to accomplish an action and reaching a desirable outcome. Expectancy referred to an employee's perception of the likelihood that the desired outcome was achievable. Vroom contended that discovering what was important to

particular individuals improved their motivation and job satisfaction. Furthermore, Vroom suggested that the more satisfied an employee was, the more likely the employee was to remain on the job.

Herzberg's Theory

The works of Herzberg (1968) has provided important contributions to job satisfaction. After a depth interview with more than 200 engineers and accountants, Herzberg found events and factors that contributed to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Following this study, Herzberg suggested that factors involved in creating job satisfaction were separate and distinct from factors that led to job dissatisfaction. This led to Herzberg developing his two-factor hypothesis known as the Motivation-Hygiene theory (Herzberg). This theory, like Maslow's theory, was classified as a content theory (Locke, 1976).

Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene theory made some basic distinctions between intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Intrinsic and extrinsic resulted from human characteristics that were created from basic animal nature, which was the drive to avoid pain from the environment and other basic needs (Herzberg). Herzberg stated that intrinsic factors were known as motivators and extrinsic factors were known as hygiene factors, so job satisfaction (intrinsic factors) and job dissatisfaction (extrinsic factors) were measured with different scales. For example, an employee could be satisfied with his or her professional job but not be satisfied with his or her work environment.

Intrinsic factors resulted from the human ability to personally advance and grow, so intrinsic rewards drove from the satisfaction of work and responsibility (Herzberg, 1968). Furthermore, intrinsic rewards were factors that directly lead to job satisfaction,

which Herzberg identified five job satisfiers. The five job satisfiers were achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, and advancement. One study showed that the most important intrinsic factors that influenced job satisfaction were job tasks, pay and other economic rewards, and interpersonal relationships (Thompson, McNamara, & Hoyle, 1997).

Extrinsic factors were the drive to earn a good salary because it was built upon the basic need of hunger (Herzberg, 1968). Extrinsic rewards were those elements that prevent job satisfaction and employee growth. Money was the most popular extrinsic reward (Lambert, 1991). Examples of job dissatisfiers or hygiene factors were policy and administration, supervision, salary, interpersonal relations, and working conditions (Lambert). Where as intrinsic rewards were ultimately related to the nature of the job experience, extrinsic rewards were related to the context and material aspects of the job itself (Herzberg). Although both of these factors (intrinsic and extrinsic) seemed to have important influence to job satisfaction, research emphasized that intrinsic and extrinsic factors did not alone create job satisfaction (Cranny, Smith, & Stone, 1992; Firebaugh & Harley, 1995; Thompson et al., 1997).

According to Herzberg's theory, the only way to Maslow's self-actualization was through the fulfillment of motivator (intrinsic) needs. Some researchers argued against Herzberg's theory to form a more traditional theory of job satisfaction (Porter & Steers, 1973; Stone et al., 1977). The traditional theory stated that job factors could be associated with either job satisfaction or job dissatisfaction. Herzberg's theory argued that job factors might be associated with (a) job satisfaction, (b) job dissatisfaction, (c) neither job satisfaction nor dissatisfaction, or (d) any combination. Moreover, Vroom (1964) had

been a critic of Herzberg's theory. Vroom stated that differences between sources of job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction could result from factors within the individual.

Discrepancy and Equity Theory

The difference between what a person received from his or her job and what that person expected to receive determined one's level of job satisfaction (Lawler, 1978).

Through the discrepancy theory, a determination must first be made as to whether (a) the discrepancy was a result of what was received versus what ideally should have been received or (b) the discrepancy was a result of what was received versus what one expected to have received (Lawler). In Lawler's experiment, participants increased quantity but reduced the quality of their work to increase payments for less output.

Job satisfaction was a result of the employee's rewards matching the employee's perceptions of what was fair and equitable. The equity theory concluded that employees who were over rewarded experienced feelings of guilt and employees who were under rewarded experienced feelings of unfair treatment (Lawler, 1978). The more balanced the productivity and company rewards were, the greater the job satisfaction. Thus, job satisfaction resulted when perceived equity existed. To criticize the equity theory, Locke (1973) argued that the problem with this theory was that it was too loose to be accountable.

Fulfillment Theory

The degree to which a job fulfilled employees' needs determined their level of job satisfaction (Vroom, 1964). In regards to the fulfillment theory, Lawler (1978) stated that researchers who adopted the fulfillment theory viewed job satisfaction as depending on how much of a given outcome a person received. The fulfillment theory measured job

satisfaction on simply asking the employee how much of a given facet or outcome he or she received from the job.

Super's Self-Concept Theory

According to the self-concept theory, job satisfaction was the degree to how a job and individual were compatible (Super, 1951). Super's self-concept theory stated that a person chose an occupation that he or she perceived as representing the characteristics that they see in themselves (self-concept). Self-concepts were formed in early experiences through socialization, life situations, and education (Super). Moreover, Super believed that the amount of job satisfaction employees had were related to how well they were able to implement their self-concept in their job. Individuals who were not able to implement their self-concept in their work would make a job change.

Reference Group Theory

The reference group theory concluded that a reference group was of great importance to one's job satisfaction (Thoits, 1983). A reference group was the group to whom an individual related. For example, college educated managers could have higher expectations of salary because they compared themselves to a reference group that was highly educated and highly paid. This theory was based on how an individual felt about how fair he or she was treated as compared to others in their reference group (Lawler, 1978).

Potential Consequences of Job Dissatisfaction

Low job satisfaction has been shown to contribute to productivity loss, employee frustration, loss in employee morale, high employee absenteeism, and increased job turnover (Fisher, 2000; Locke, 1976; Porter & Steers, 1973; Vroom, 1964). Middle

school teachers who were the most satisfied with their job had the lowest rate of absenteeism, but the highest rate of employee morale and company loyalty (Smith, 1996). Other employee behavior related to job dissatisfaction included complaints, grievances, lateness, leaving early, and taking longer-than-authorized employee breaks (Cranny et al., 1992; Firebaugh & Harley, 1995). Drummond and Stoddard (1991) suggested that low job satisfaction might be a great source of frustration, anxiety, and depression to employees. This could cause employees to withdraw from their jobs, look for new jobs in another organization, or simply change careers. Furthermore, job satisfaction has been linked to an employee's mental and physical health (Fisher, 2000; Locke, 1976; Sheehan, 1993).

Research on employee job satisfaction has consistently confirmed that low job satisfaction contributed to low organizational commitment, low employee morale, and increased job turnover (Soler, 1998). Results showed that a low level of job satisfaction has resulted in an employee leaving his or her job (Locke, 1976; Porter & Steers, 1973). Moreover, Porter and Steers reviewed 20 studies that demonstrated a significant relationship between higher job satisfaction and better job performance.

Related Literature on Job Satisfaction

Although many job satisfaction theories existed, not one theory was superior over the others. Furthermore, a thorough review of the existing literature on job satisfaction indicated that several factors could influence job satisfaction. Although this research focused on specific demographic variables and their association to job satisfaction, it was worthwhile to mention the nondemographic elements that could influence job

satisfaction. Specific nondemographic elements of job satisfaction as well as the demographic variables that could influence job satisfaction are discussed.

Nondemographic Elements of Job Satisfaction

Literature suggested that many nondemographic elements could affect job satisfaction. The most common nondemographic elements that affect job satisfaction included job security, working conditions, work policies, conflict, ambiguity, work itself, recognition, job autonomy, supervision, responsibility, promotional opportunities, and salary (Cranny et al., 1992). Past research on these elements are reported as well as a few other elements, such as stress, organizational communication, and coworkers.

Job Security

Job security has been highly linked to job satisfaction (Locke, 1973). Because the fear of losing one's job was strong for some employees, many valued job security more than other aspects of their job. For blue-collar employees, Locke found security to be highly valued. Some employees were even willing to sacrifice lower pay or poor job conditions to avoid unemployment or moving from job to job.

Working Conditions and Work Itself

An organization's working conditions are an important variable related to job satisfaction (Padilla-Velez, 1993). Moreover, work has been reported to be a factor of job satisfaction. Both these factors could reflect the degree of interest or enjoyment one received from his or her job or some particular element of work, such as task variety or the opportunity for new learning (Locke, 1973). Other working conditions included temperature, ventilation, job hours, and equipment (Locke, 1976).

Work Policies, Conflict, and Ambiguity

Work policies, conflict, and ambiguity in role expectations are organizational factors that have influenced job satisfaction (Lee & Wilbur, 1985). For example, certain organizational policies, such as sick leave or absence policy, could have significantly affected job satisfaction (Lee & Wilbur). Lee and Wilbur found that the more employees favored their organizational policies and goals, the more satisfied they were with their jobs. Role conflict generally pertained to what degree role expectations were incompatible or contradictory. Role ambiguity related to the vagueness or lack of clarity in role expectations. Role ambiguity and skill variety were significant factors of job satisfaction as well as role conflict, task identify, and job task (Tabor & Alliger, 1995).

Recognition

Another element related to job satisfaction could be recognition (Maslow, 1954). Maslow stated that employee recognition for work well done was important in meeting an employee's self-esteem needs. For example, praise was a frequent response for recognizing good work. Maslow's need hierarchy theory stated that self-actualization was a person's highest need. However, for this need to be met, physiological and safety needs must be met first. Several studies showed how recognition was an important factor in job satisfaction for blue-collar employees (Locke, 1973; Maslow).

Supervision

Three interrelated factors with job satisfaction included the nature of the organization, the human dimensions of the supervisory relationship, and the technical quality of supervision (Lawler, 1978). It is generally recognized that the quality of supervision has influenced job satisfaction (Lawler; Warr, 1991). The human dimensions

of the supervisory relationship referred to a supervisor's friendliness and empathy. The technical quality of supervision referred to the supervisor's planning and supervising skills.

A supervisor's ability to supervise correctly has shown to increase job satisfaction significantly for employees (McCormick, 2000). McCormick noted the impact of supervisory style on job satisfaction. McCormick found that employees in organizations with adequate resources and professional support staff had higher job satisfaction than did employees who did not have the adequate resources or support.

Job Autonomy and Responsibility

Regarding job satisfaction, research has shown that employees who experienced greater job autonomy and have greater control over their jobs had higher levels of job satisfaction than those with less autonomy (Firebaugh & Harley, 1995). Responsibility also has been related to job satisfaction (Herzberg, 1968). Herzberg argued that employees feel greater satisfaction when they were able to learn, grow, and achieve through challenging work. Another factor relating to job autonomy and responsibility was job achievement (Clugston, 2000). Similar to achievement was job challenge. Clugston found that job challenge was the strongest predictor of job satisfaction for administrators. Furthermore, administrators did not find challenges satisfying if they could not successfully achieve them.

Promotional Opportunities, Benefits, and Salary

Pay or salary level, advancement, and promotion opportunities were highly significant factors in job satisfaction (Johnson & Johnson, 2000; Lawler, 1978; Warr, 1991). Lawler found a significant association between job satisfaction and salary and

benefit levels. One study found job satisfaction increased as income levels increased (Ting, 1997). Benefits, such as paid vacations, medical, annual leave, and pensions have shown to effect job satisfaction (Locke, 1976). After reviewing 30 studies involving various Federal Aviation Administration organizations, Witt and Nye (1992) stated that fairness in pay and promotions were important components of job satisfaction.

Other Factors

Stress and organizational communication were other areas shown to influence job satisfaction (DeFleur, 1992). Both elements influenced employee effectiveness and efficiency. Even relationships with coworkers have been linked to job satisfaction (Padilla-Velez, 1993). Fisher (2000) found that the role employees play among their coworkers and the extent to which these relationships were compatible with one's interest and skills were important influences on job satisfaction. Furthermore, the greater the similarity in attitudes, values, and philosophy among coworkers demonstrated a greater cohesiveness and group support among employees. Firebaugh and Harley (1995) found some additional factors of job satisfaction: race, personal values, professional accomplishment, age, professional preparation, assistance, and personal demographics.

Demographic Variables

With employees becoming more educated, the mandatory retirement age rising, and a greater number of women entering the workforce, these demographic variables could have affected job satisfaction (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Clugston, 2000). Research has found that demographics can affect job satisfaction (Good, 2002; Heslop et al., 2002; Lambert, 1991; Locke, 1976; Mack, 2000; Pugliesi, 1995; Ting, 1997; Warr, 1991). Although focusing on employee demographics or characteristics shifts the burden away

from the organization to the employee, it was important to study how demographic variables could have affected the level of job satisfaction. More research was needed on how demographic variables could be related to general job satisfaction. The demographic characteristics examined were company tenure, age, gender, marital status, and education. The following section summarized the major findings regarding demographic variables. Both sides of past research regarding the association between job satisfaction and these specific demographic variables were presented.

Company Tenure

Newly employed employees tended to report high job satisfaction as well as employees who have been with a company for 10 year or more (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Clugston, 2000; Heslop et al., 2002; Locke, 1976). It has been reported that employees between 3 and 7 years exhibit lower job satisfaction than other groups of company tenure (Drummond & Stoddard, 1991). It was expected that employees who have been employed at a particular company for a small amount of time would report lower levels of job satisfaction than those who have been with a company for a long time (Dickinson, 2000; Fisher, 2000; Padilla-Velez, 1993). Wesolowski (1991) found company tenure to be mildly associated with job satisfaction. Company tenure accounted for 9% of the variance associated with job satisfaction.

One study found employees with less than 3 years with a company reported higher satisfaction than those who had worked for the company 3 to 6 years (Bransford, 1991). However, employees who had worked 7 or more years reported the highest amount of job satisfaction (Bransford). This study used a population of nursing majors. Another study using the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire examined adult education

administrators (Moak, 1992). This study tested age, gender, race, level of education, and company tenure with job satisfaction. As a result, all five variables were found to not be significant of job satisfaction. Pugliesi (1995) also found company tenure to not be related to job satisfaction.

One study used 125,126 employees of various 43 organizations to examine company tenure and job satisfaction (Warshauer, 1993). Company tenure was found to be significantly related to job satisfaction. Moreover, Sandkam (1996) also found statistical significance between company tenure and job satisfaction.

Age

Considerable discrepancies have been reported in the literature as to the relationship between age and job satisfaction. Mack (2000) and Ting (1997) have affirmed that job satisfaction increased with age. Previous research showed positive relationships between job satisfaction and age (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Good, 2002; Hulin & Smith, 1965; Lee & Wilbur, 1985; Pugliesi, 1995; Sandkam, 1996). Older employees have been found to report greater levels of job satisfaction than younger employees (Bedelan et al., 1992; Kuo-Tsai, Sylvia, & Brunk, 1990; Lee & Wilbur, 1985). Warr (1991) found the youngest age group had the greatest intent to leave their organization, and they were the least satisfied. Because older employees tended to have higher job satisfaction, younger employees were more likely to leave their current employers or career fields.

Herzberg (1968) believed that a U-shape function existed between age and job satisfaction. Job satisfaction at a young age was originally high, dipped in middle age, and returned to high status later. Morale was high for young employees entering the

workforce and then slowly dropped due to boredom and a perception of decreasing opportunities. But, rose again as the employees continued their jobs. However, Hulin and Smith (1965) concluded that the relationship between age and job satisfaction was best described as a linear correlation.

Hulin and Smith (1965) found that as age increased, job satisfaction tended to be higher. With 93% of employees over the age 55 judging themselves as satisfied with their jobs, this study showed that older employees were clearly satisfied with their jobs (Filipczak, Ganzel, Gordon, & Lee, 1998). Several other studies show older employees were satisfied with their jobs than were younger employees (Hulin & Smith). Niblock (1999) concluded that age was not a significant factor for job satisfaction. Moreover, Moak (1992) and Wesolowski (1991) found age to not be significant with job satisfaction.

Gender

Differences between gender and job satisfaction were visible (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Firebaugh & Harley, 1995). Men were brought up to value themselves in terms of their occupation or achievements and women were brought up to value themselves in terms of family and relationships (Firebaugh & Harely). Some studies showed women to be more satisfied with their job than men (Cranny et al., 1992; Hulin & Smith, 1965; Kuo-Tsai et al., 1990). Lambert (1991) found that female teachers reported higher job satisfaction than male teachers. Furthermore, Hulin and Smith (1965) found female employees were more satisfied. However, Herzberg (1968) believed that job satisfaction for females depended upon factors different from those that effected males.

According to Pugliesi (1995), gender did not effect job satisfaction. However, other studies found gender to be positively related to job satisfaction (Kellough, 1990; Wu, 1994). Moore's (1999) study revealed that in the technology profession, males tended to have higher job satisfaction than did the female employees. Differences in level of job satisfaction between males and females existed even though both held the similar rank and job. One conclusion drawn from this was that women had to overcome more barriers (Wu). Wesolowski (1991) found gender to be mildly associated with job satisfaction. Several studies did not find conclusive evidence with regards to gender differences and satisfaction (Moak, 1992; Sandkam, 1996; Warshauer, 1993).

Marital Status

Previous research showed that differences might exist between job satisfaction and marital status (Sandkam, 1996; Wesolowski, 1991). Lambert (1991) found that married employees were more satisfied with their jobs than were single employees. However, Mack (2000) showed that marital status had no effect on job satisfaction. Thomas and Talpade (1999) found married teachers to have a lower level of job satisfaction than single teachers. However, several studies have shown mixed results with marital status and job satisfaction (Bedelan, Ferris, & Kacmar, 1992; Hulin & Smith, 1965; Lee & Wilbur, 1985; Moak, 1992).

With the rise of single women as one of the most rapidly growing populations in society, how marital status has affected job satisfaction was a variable that needed further research (Lingren, Kimmans, & Van Zandt, 1987). This rise in numbers of single women in the workforce resulted from an increase in the availability of attractive career

opportunities and higher divorce rates (Lingren et al.). Kellough (1990) found that married employees had higher overall job satisfaction than did not-married employees. Lingren et al.'s study showed that single females reported that they were slightly to moderately satisfied with their jobs. Although job satisfaction has been shown to not be related to marital status, loneliness was highly correlated with low job satisfaction (Lingren et al.).

Education

With more and more employees earning college degrees, the differences between education and job satisfaction should be examined (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Johnson & Johnson, 2000). A difference between employee education level and job satisfaction has been identified. Lee and Wilbur (1985) found a positive difference between education and job satisfaction. Furthermore, it has been shown that more educated employees often had more job alternatives (Hurley, 2002; Ting, 1997). It is expected that employees with less education would report lower levels of job satisfaction (Dickinson, 2000; Wesolowski, 1991).

Several studies showed employees with more education improved their levels of job satisfaction (Hurley, 2002; Ting, 1997, Mottaz, 1984). However, Smith (1994) found that as education increased, job satisfaction tended to be lower due to individuals' having higher career expectations. Some employees with higher levels of education found themselves overqualified for their current positions. Lincoln and Kalleberg (1990) found a negative difference between education and job satisfaction. Overqualifications for a job due to one's level of education demonstrated a negative effect on job satisfaction (Johnson & Johnson, 2000).

Mack (2000) found instructors with doctorate degrees had lower levels of job satisfaction than did those without doctoral degrees. Niblock (1999) found employees with Bachelor's degrees or higher had lower job satisfaction than those who only had a high school diploma or GED. Other studies found level of education to not have an effect on job satisfaction (Kuo-Tsai et al., 1990; Moak, 1992; Wu, 1994).

Studies Involving Youth Development Organizations

A demand exist for youth development organizations that serve primarily to underprivileged, high-risk youth (Franze et al., 2002). The National Association for the Education of Young Children (1995) estimated that some 80,000 day care centers including nonprofit organizations look after 5 million preschool and school-age children. After-school youth development programs were developed during World War I, The Great Depression, and World War II to serve the increase of mothers in the workforce (Kock, 1998). More women than ever before, especially single parents have joined the workforce, which has further increased the demand of these after-school programs (Kock). However, turnover was high even at the best youth development organizations (Blau & Robins, 1998). According to the National Association for the Education of Young Children, the average after-school program lost nearly one-third of its employees each year. Vacancies for youth development employees are expected to remain high (Franze et al, 2002; Michalopoulos, Robins, & Garfinkel, 1992).

Besides the negative effects of employee turnover for a company, employee turnover for youth development organizations can upset children who have grown attached to the employee who left and can also hinder their social development (Franze et al., 2002; National Association for the education of Young Children, 1995). Staff

turnover disrupts bonds formed with these high-risk youth (Halpern, 1999). Instability with youth development organizations has had adverse consequences for child development (Franze et al., 2002; Nuttall, 1991).

The two main causes of this high rate of turnover among youth development organizations were low compensation and stress level of job due to child misbehavior and violence (Franze et al., 2002; McLaughlin, Irby, & Langman, 1994). Even though all employees of a youth development organization mentioned a love of children as a motivating factor in their job, one study showed that these employees reported the lowest job satisfaction compared to other career fields (Anderson, 1989). However, a different study showed that youth development professionals were satisfied with their job (Murphy, 1986). Buzzi (1997) found that employees of youth development organizations who were content with their marital difference were more satisfied with their job than those not content with their marriage.

Employees of after-school youth development programs, like the BGCA, are important role models for high-risk youth (Franze et al., 2002; Murphy, 1986; National Association for the Education of Young Children, 1995). Studies have shown that the support of a teacher, counselor, or other adult outside of the immediate family contributed to better outcomes in life for high-risk youth (Shassian & Hampl, 2000). Most importantly, these places are safe places for large groups of youth who are likely to get involved with gangs, criminal activities, drugs, or teen pregnancies (Hirsch et al., 2000). However, employees directly involved in the after-school programs for high-risk youth perform difficult and stressful jobs (Halpern, 1999). Many staff working at these particular programs only stayed for 1 or 2 years. Many left once they earned a college

degree or moved on to a higher-paying job position (Murphy). Kersey (1998) reported high levels of job satisfaction for youth development professionals who were involved with youth of middle-class families. No job satisfaction studies were conducted on the BGCA employees.

Conclusion

Conflicting findings were reported from past research on the association between job satisfaction and demographic variables. Additional research was necessary. The exploration of specific demographic variables were useful for discovering the unique difference of these variables to job satisfaction. This study investigated the association between specific demographic variables and job satisfaction. Furthermore, there was a need to investigate the level of job satisfaction for the employees of youth development organizations because this profession was increasing in labor demand and in job turnover (Blau & Robins, 1998; Franze et al., 2002; Halpern, 1999; Kock, 1998; Murphy, 1986).

Summary

The literature was divided into several sections: (a) theories of job satisfaction, (b) elements of job satisfaction, (c) the effects of job dissatisfaction, (d) studies involving demographic variables, and (e) literature involving youth development organizations. Numerous job satisfaction theories were provided to suggest what contributed to job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. As a result of reviewing literature on job satisfaction, evidence has shown that several nondemographic elements influenced job satisfaction. Furthermore, several studies indicated that company tenure, age, gender, marital status, and education were demographic variables that could affect job satisfaction. However, some disagreement was noted.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

In this chapter, an overall description of the study population is provided. Moreover, the instrument and procedures used to collect the data are discussed. Also, the methods of analyzing the data for this research as well as the sampling and method limitations are described.

Methods

This study aimed to determine whether an association existed between job satisfaction and demographic variables of counselors, teachers, and office staff at a nonprofit organization that provides youth development programs to underprivileged, high-risk youth. The correlation research method was used. The product moment correlation coefficient (Pearson r) was analyzed to reveal whether a significant relationship existed for age. The rank difference correlation coefficient (Spearman rho) was used to test whether a significant relationship existed for company tenure at the BGCA.

The Pearson r and the Spearman rho were the most appropriate measures of correlation when data represented ratio or interval scale of measurement (Gay & Airasian, 2000). Age was ratio data and company tenure was ordinal or ranked data. After correlating the scores, the resulting correlation coefficient determined the degree of relationship. To show that job satisfaction and demographic variables were highly significantly related, the calculated coefficient should have fallen somewhere between $\pm .68$ and ± 1.00 . However, a relationship was considered worthy of discussion when the coefficient fell between $\pm .3$ and $\pm .6$.

The t test was used to determine if significant differences existed between job satisfaction and gender and marital status. The t test was the most appropriate because gender and marital status provided two choices to select (Gay & Airasian, 2000). Gender and marital status were nominal scales of measurement. The one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to determine if education was significantly different from job satisfaction. Because education had five choices to select from, the ANOVA was the most appropriate (Gay & Airasian). Education was an ordinal scale of measurement. A probability level of $p = .05$ was used to test for significance. Important to mention, even if a significant difference existed between job satisfaction and specific demographic variables, this did not mean that the specific demographic variables caused the existing level of job satisfaction.

Selection of Population

With the increasing need for after-school care programs due to the increased number of dual-career households and single mothers (Kock, 1998), it was important to assess the level of job satisfaction of employees directly involved with underprivileged, high-risk youth. These youth development programs support high-risk youth to enhance their self-esteem, academic achievement, and physical safety (Hirsch et al., 2000). However, high employee turnover was visible for nonprofit organizations serving high-risk youth due to the job stress of dealing with deeply troubled youth, youth misbehavior, gangs, violence, and drugs (Teirney, Grossman, & Resch, 1995).

The BGCA has been one of the leading youth development organizations in America throughout the 20th century (Hirsch et al., 2000). The BGCA is a youth development organization that has a long-standing presence in inner-city neighborhoods.

Serving nearly 3 million youth, the BGCA has more than 2,000 facilities (Shassian & Hampl, 2000). Approximately, 80% of the BGCA youth live in urban or inner-city areas; 56% are from minority families, and slightly more than one-half are from single-parent families (Hirsch et al.).

The BGCA programs are available to youth of all incomes, but the BGCA's mission is to inspire and enable underprivileged, high-risk youth. Involvement with these type of the BGCA programs has been associated with successful academic and personal outcomes for underprivileged, high-risk youth (Tierney, Grossman, & Resch, 1995). The BGCA's youth development programs focus on achieving academic and personal success, preventing drug and alcohol use, and resisting premature sexual activity, gangs, and violence (Hirsch et al., 2000). Moreover, the BGCA has a mix of employees in regards to their level of education, age, gender, marital status, and company tenure. Employee turnover is common for this type of organization (Shassian & Hampl, 2000).

For these reasons, the BGCA employees were the population. The BGCA participants were from one particular city in the United States. The BGCA asked the researcher to not disclose the city name or state, so the geographic location of the BGCA participants was referred to as "City X" for this study.

Sampling Frame and Procedure

A list of all current employees was obtained from the BGCA main office in City X. This was the sampling frame. Therefore, the study population comprised of all 350 the BGCA employees in City X. The entire population was used so the sample could be as large and representative as possible (Gay & Airasian, 2000). Through this procedure, all

350 BGCA employees were invited to participate. However, only the BGCA employees who volunteered to respond to the survey were the participants.

Job Satisfaction Measurements

Hoppock (1935) designed the earliest known job satisfaction measurement. Originally, Hoppock tested a series of simple attitude scales as part of an interview study of 40 employees. These scales were revised to consist of four statements each with seven responses at step intervals. Values were assigned to the responses in each statement, so that the smaller numbers were assigned to the responses indicating dissatisfaction. The range was 4 to 28. The corrected split-half coefficient for the same 301 cases was reported at 0.93. This scale has been assumed to have face validity.

Various instruments to measure job satisfaction existed. The most well-known job satisfaction instruments were the Job Satisfaction Index (JSI), Job Descriptive Index (JDI), and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) (Spector, 1997). Spector (1990) developed the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) to assess employees' attitudes about their jobs. These measurements have been used numerously and are viewed as highly valid and reliable forms of instruments (Spector). Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969) designed the JDI to measure the principal features of job satisfaction. Weiss, Rounds, Dawis, England, and Lofquist (1967) designed the MSQ to measure intrinsic, extrinsic, and overall job satisfaction. It was developed to explore the work environment and employee personality. The areas measured in the JSS included pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication (Spector).

Brayfield and Rothe (1951) designed the JSI to measure general or overall job satisfaction. The JSI consisted of a total of 18 negative and positive statements that uses a 5-point Likert scale. The possible range of mean scores was 1 to 5. Because a score of 3 on the JSI was the neutral point, a score above 3 represented job satisfaction and a score below 3 represented job dissatisfaction. Furthermore, the JSI was of public domain, so the researcher did not have to obtain permission or pay cost to use the instrument.

Past Studies Using JSI

Brayfield and Rothe (1951) reported that the first respondents to complete the final version of the JSI were 231 young female office employees. The range of job satisfaction scores for this sample was 35 to 87. The mean score was 63.8 with a standard deviation of 9.4. Brayfield, Wells, and Strate (1957) reported means of 60.54 and 63.81 in a study of civil service office employees. Furthermore, several studies have used the JSI with a narrower focus to assess job satisfaction (Rousseau, 1977; Stone et al., 1977). Rousseau found a consistent pattern of significant positive correlations with the JSI. Rousseau quoted mean scores on the survey between 61.59 and 71.08 for differing work technologies.

Using the JSI, Ronen (1977) examined the relationships of overall job satisfaction with age, occupational level, and job tenure between public and private sector employees. For the 135 public sector employees, mean values of job satisfaction were 65.29 with a standard deviation of 9.92. The 187 private sector employees resulted with a mean of 61.13 and a standard deviation of 11.91. Rosenberg (1965) reported a mean of 62.3, a standard deviation of 10.4, and an internal reliability of 0.87. Rosenberg's study consisted

of 523 employees in a school system. In that study, African American employees were found to be more satisfied with their jobs than were Caucasians (Rosenberg).

Recent Studies Using JSI

Soler (1998) used the JSI to investigate the relationship between organizational structure, job characteristics, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. Soler's study involved a sample population of New Jersey schoolteachers. Smith (1996) used the JSI to determine whether teachers' level of decision making was related to their job satisfaction. Burgner (1994) used the JSI to compare the relationship between personality characteristics and job characteristics to job satisfaction. Three other studies involving the JSI investigated the association between demographic variables and job satisfaction (Padilla-Velez, 1993; Smith, 1994; Warr, 1991).

Two studies used the JSI to investigate the overall job satisfaction of industrial employees (Begley, 1990; Guerra, 1989). Guerra's study revealed that the older, married, and experienced employees were more satisfied than were the younger, unmarried, and less experienced employees. A measure of overall job satisfaction using the JSI revealed that 89.6% of British dietetics were satisfied with their job (Barr, 1992). Other studies using the JSI focused on overall job satisfaction within the field of education, nurses, and administrators (Glenn, 1987; McIntire, 1985; Richter, 1985; Wickett, 1989; Wickman, 1994; Wu, 1994).

Instrumentation

The JSI measured the BGCA employees' overall job attitudes (see Appendix A). The sum of the respondents' scores provided an overall index of job satisfaction. The JSI consisted of 18 statements, which included 8 negative and 10 positive statements.

Participants responded to each statement using a 5-point Likert scale. The Likert scale helped minimize confusion and was easy to score. Furthermore, the JSI only required 5 to 10 minutes to complete. Soler (1998) reported that the JSI was used extensively with diverse populations working in many different occupations to measure overall job satisfaction.

A 5-point Likert response method allowed participants to indicate at what level they agreed or disagreed with a statement. Participants responded to each statement using a 5-point Likert scale: strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree, and strongly disagree. If a participant strongly agreed with a positive statement, a value of 5 was assigned for that statement. If a participant strongly disagreed with the same statement, a value of 1 was assigned for that statement. For negative statements, a value of 1 was coded for strongly agree; whereas a value of 5 was coded for strongly disagree. The undecided or neutral response was assigned a value of 3 regardless if the statement was a positive or negative statement. The possible range of mean scores for a sample population was 1 to 5 with the neutral score at 3. A mean score above the neutral point of 3 (score of 4 or 5) represented job satisfaction. Thus, a mean score below 3 (score of 1 or 2) represented the dissatisfied end of the scale or job dissatisfaction. In the measurement selection process, the JSI was chosen over other surveys for several reasons:

1. It provides an overall level of job satisfaction rather than specific aspects of job satisfaction.
2. It is used for a wide variety of jobs or careers.
3. It is sensitive to variations in job satisfaction.
4. It is a highly reliable and valid instrument.

5. It only takes 5 to 10 minutes to complete and is easy to score.
6. The JSI is of public domain, so no permission or charge is necessary to use the scale (see Appendix B).
7. This JSI has been used for numerous studies and perhaps used more than most job satisfaction measures for overall job satisfaction (Soler, 1998).

Development of JSI

The JSI was the researcher's chosen measurement to obtain data for overall job satisfaction, so the development of the JSI was examined. When developing the JSI, Brayfield and Rothe (1951) choose statements that were reactions to a job on a favorable and unfavorable scale. Covering a range of evaluative reactions, the 18 statements of the JSI were chosen through statistical examinations from over 1,000 statements.

To test its validity and reliability, the JSI was administered to 91 adult night school students in Personnel Psychology classes at the University of Minnesota. With a median age of 35 years, the sample population consisted of 49 males and 42 females. The majority of the sample population were employed in clerical, professional, or managerial and supervisory positions. Responses were anonymous. As a result, the mean was 70.4 with a standard deviation of 13.2.

It was assumed that those students in the class employed in occupations appropriate to their expressed interest would, on the average, be more satisfied with their jobs than those members of the class employed in occupations inappropriate to their expressed interests in personnel work. The assumption seemed reasonable to Brayfield and Rothe (1951) and provided a test of the validity of the JSI. The 91 students in this study were then divided into two groups (personnel and nonpersonnel) with respect to their employment position. In all, 40 students comprised the personnel and 51 the

nonpersonnel groups. A comparison was made between the mean scores for the two groups on the JSI. The possible scores were 18 to 90, with 54 as a neutral score.

The mean for the personnel group was 76.9 with a standard deviation of 8.6, however the nonpersonnel group had a mean of 65.4 with a standard deviation of 14.02. This difference of 11.5 points was significant and the difference between the variances was also significant. Brayfield and Rothe (1951) argued that if the original assumption as to the differential significance of membership in one or the other of the two groups was accepted, the data furnished evidence for the validity of the JSI.

To further validate the JSI, a comparison was made between the means of the personnel and nonpersonnel groups using the Hoppock (1935) survey. The mean for the personnel group was 22.2 with a standard deviation of 2.6 and the mean for the nonpersonnel group was 19.2 with a standard deviation of 4.0. Differences between the variances were significant, but the measures were not significantly different.

Reliability and Validity of JSI

As discussed in the above sections, the JSI provided a reliable and valid measure of job satisfaction. Brayfield and Rothe (1951) tested the validity of their instrument through content, criterion-related, and construct validity. The reliability was tested with the Spearman-Brown correction formula and the stability test. A reliability coefficient of .87 resulted for the JSI. As a result, the JSI has been recognized as a highly valid and reliable instrument (Barr, 1992; Begley, 1990; Glenn, 1987; Guerra, 1989; McIntire, 1985; Padilla-Velez, 1993; Rousseau, 1997; Smith, 1996; Soler, 1998; Stone et al., 1977; Warr, 1991).

JSI Statements

The instrument for collecting data was the JSI. In regards to the JSI, no statements referred to specific aspects of a job, such as pay and working conditions. The goal of this instrument was to obtain an employee's general job attitude. Each statement on the JSI was stated in a clearly favorable or unfavorable direction. Ten statements of the JSI represented the favorable end of the job satisfaction scale:

1. My job is like a hobby to me.
2. My job is usually interesting enough to keep me from getting bored.
3. I enjoy my work more than my leisure time.
4. I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job.
5. I am satisfied with my job for the time being.
6. I feel that I am happier in my work than most other people.
7. Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.
8. I like my job better than the average worker does.
9. I find real enjoyment in my work.
10. I feel that my job is no more interesting than others I could get.

Eight statements of the JSI represented the unfavorable end of the survey scale:

1. It seems that my friends are more interested in their jobs.
2. I am often bored with my job.
3. I consider my job rather unpleasant.
4. Most of the time I have to force myself to go to work.
5. I definitely dislike my work.
6. Each day of work seems like it would never end.

7. My job is pretty uninteresting.
8. I am disappointed that I ever took this job.

Demographic Section

To investigate the five null hypotheses, the JSI included a demographic section (see Appendix A). Moreover, the demographic section helped to gain a description of some general characteristics of the participants. The researcher designed the demographic section of the survey. Participants were asked their age, company tenure, gender, marital status, and level of education. Participants selected the option under each category that best described their level of education, marital status, and gender. Participants were asked to report their age and company tenure at the BGCA. For participants who worked less than 1 year at the BGCA, the investigator requested those individuals to mark 1 year of company tenure.

Likert Scale

The Likert scale has remained one of the most popular attitude and assessment methods (Alreck & Settle, 1995). The Likert scale was used as a rating method for surveys that present statements, instead of questions. Respondents were asked to decide the degree of how they agreed or disagreed to specific statements presented to them (Alreck & Settle). Alreck and Settle stated that an advantage of using a 5-point Likert scale was that it allowed each statement on the survey to be analyzed independently of each other. Thus, each statement on a survey can be presented in its own chart, showing the number of responses for each category as well as the percentage of respondents' replies.

Data Collection and Analysis

Human Subject Form A was submitted to the UT Committee on Research Participation to request permission to conduct research involving human subjects. After approval, the collection of data began. This research was strictly confidential. The participants' responses were kept highly confidential.

Data Collection

The data were gathered through site visits to the various BGCA clubs of City X during a two-week period. The JSI was handed out during a scheduled BGCA employee meeting. The employees present on that particular day were asked to respond to the JSI. The front page of the survey explained the purpose and importance of the study, and assured participants of anonymity and confidentiality. The demographic section of the survey was included on the first page. The survey confirmed that completed surveys meant participants agreed to participate. The BGCA employees were asked to voluntarily complete the survey. The second page of the survey consisted of the 18 JSI statements.

After the JSI was completed, participants were instructed to enclose their completed survey into an empty envelope and seal it. Participants were then asked to place their envelopes in a designated box, which was located in the same room where they completed the JSI. They were instructed not to put their name or other identifying information on the JSI or demographic section. The investigator informed the participants that the only demographic information reported was company tenure, age, gender, marital status, and educational background.

Participants were informed that neither the investigator nor the BGCA supervisor would be in the room during the time they completed the JSI. The BGCA supervisors

completed the JSI after everyone else to ensure confidentiality and anonymity. However, before the investigator left the room, those completing the survey were given time to ask questions and to seek clarity regarding the survey process and were informed that the investigator was available if a participant had a question or concern. Participants were informed where the investigator would be located in the event that a participant did have a question or concern that required immediate attention or assistance during the time they were completing the JSI. The investigator was alone at the designated place in order to avoid association with participants or BGCA supervisors.

Participants were instructed not to show their JSI to the investigator at anytime. They were informed that blank copies of the JSI along with file folders were placed in the same room where they were completing the surveys. If participants had a question about a particular statement, they were instructed to take their JSI and place it in a file folder where it would be completely covered. They were told to take a blank JSI, as well as the authentic one placed in their folder, to the room where the investigator was located to reference their question about a specific statement or concern. Participants were instructed not to leave the JSI they were completing unattended at any time until it was placed in the sealed envelope and put in the designated box.

Within two weeks, surveys from all the BGCA clubs were completed and collected. The investigator visited each club during a scheduled employee meeting. Only one day at each site was allocated for data collection. The JSI was completed and collected on the same day of the investigator's visit to a particular BGCA club. Participants were requested to complete only one survey. The investigator did not open the box of completed surveys until it was taken away from the research site. Completed

surveys were kept in a locked file cabinet and destroyed after data analysis procedures were completed.

Surveys reached a large number of people and allowed participants some time to think about responses, so this research method was chosen. Furthermore, completion of the survey took approximately 5 to 10 minutes. Although response rates would likely be quite lower compared to interviews, several techniques were used to ensure a higher return rate. All BGCA employees were asked to respond to the JSI. The investigator informed the BGCA employees of the importance of research and the vital need of their participation during a scheduled staff meeting. Having a scheduled employee meeting allowed all the BGCA employees to be present and allowed the time to complete the JSI. The BGCA employees were paid for the time spent to complete the survey because it took place during a scheduled employee meeting. Also, the researcher provided time for the BGCA participants to ask questions about the survey and to seek assistance if needed from the investigator. The goal for the response rate was 70%.

Data Analysis

Quantitative procedures were used to examine the association between job satisfaction and demographic variables. The data were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics. The Spearman rho, Pearson r , t test, and ANOVA were used to determine if any significant associations with job satisfaction existed. The data responses were prepared in Microsoft Excel. Data were analyzed using a program called Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS), which is an integrated system of computer programs designed for the analysis of social science data. All data were entered twice into the computer database to ensure accuracy.

Tabulation of frequency distributions, percentages, means, and standard deviations were used to demonstrate results for each item of the JSI as well as each level of the demographic variables. Furthermore, results of all statistical procedures were accepted as statistically significant at the $p = .05$ level. To test for significant differences, the sample population had to be within the alpha level of .05 of the population proportion with a 95% level of confidence. Moreover, the findings were only generalized to the population of the BGCA employees in City X.

Before analyzing the data, the researcher reviewed the surveys for completeness. Participants leaving five statements or more of the JSI blank were omitted. For surveys that consist of less than five statements with blank responses, a value of 3 was coded for each blank statement. Because the statements were left blank, it was assumed that the respondents were undecided. However, all JSI surveys were returned fully completed, so the researcher did not have to complete any of the surveys. The JSI consisted of positive and negative statements, so the researcher assigned the correct values to each statement on the JSI. The 8 negative JSI statements were coded with reversed values. For the positive statements, a value of 5 was coded for strongly agree and a value of 1 was coded for strongly disagree. However, a negative statement received a value of 5 for strongly disagree and strongly agree received a value of 1. The possible range of JSI mean scores was 1 to 5 with a neutral score at 3. A mean score of 4 or 5 represented job satisfaction and a mean score of 1 or 2 represented job dissatisfaction.

Summary

This chapter included an explanation of the research methods as well as the population, and the sampling design. The reasons for selecting the BGCA employees

were examined. Great detail of the JSI was provided to show its development and evidence as a reliable and valid instrument. A short discussion of the Likert scale and demographic section were included. Furthermore, the description of the data collection and data analysis as well as the sampling and methodological limitations were provided.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

Because the purpose was to examine the job satisfaction of the BGCA employees, self-report data were appropriate. The BGCA employees were selected as participants for three main reasons: (a) voluntary turnover was a problem; (b) the importance of assessing the level of job satisfaction of those who worked directly with underprivileged, high-risk youth; and (c) no other study has examined the job satisfaction of the BGCA employees.

Six research questions guided the study:

7. Does a significant relationship exist between company tenure and job satisfaction?
8. Does a significant relationship exist between age and job satisfaction?
9. Does a significant difference exist between gender and job satisfaction?
10. Does a significant difference exist between marital status and job satisfaction?
11. Does a significant difference exist between education and job satisfaction?
12. What is the level of job satisfaction among the BGCA employees in City X?
In other words, are the BGCA employees satisfied with their job?

Data concerning the BGCA participants were organized around the following five demographic variables: (a) company tenure at BGCA, (b) age, (c) gender, (d) marital status, and (e) education. This chapter reported the results of the research as well as the breakdown of the job satisfaction scores and selected demographic variables. Null hypotheses were based on a .05 alpha level of significance, so significant levels equal to or less than .05 were rejected. The research provided information to five null hypotheses:

- H₀₁: There is no significant relationship between overall job satisfaction and company tenure for the BGCA employees as measured by the JSI.

- H₀2: There is no significant relationship between overall job satisfaction and age for the BGCA employees as measured by the JSI.
- H₀3: There is no significant difference between overall job satisfaction and gender for the BGCA employees as measured by the JSI.
- H₀4: There is no significant difference between overall job satisfaction and marital status for the BGCA employees as measured by the JSI.
- H₀5: There is no significant difference between overall job satisfaction and education for the BGCA employees as measured by the JSI.

Overall job satisfaction was measured using the JSI. The JSI and demographic section was administered to all 350 BGCA employees. The BGCA employees received the JSI during a scheduled employee meeting. The JSI was administered during an employee meeting to increase the return rate and to not interfere with the employees' regular job duties. All BGCA employees were included in the population study to further increase the return rate. The time needed to complete the JSI and demographic section was estimated 5 to 10 minutes.

It took two weeks to collect the data. A total of 332 JSI surveys were collected from the BGCA employees. All returned surveys were useable. The usable surveys represented 95% of the population study. Females made up 70% of the population study. With a return rate of 95%, the sample of the BGCA employees was large enough to provide a level of statistical significance. Because the surveys were completed anonymously and voluntarily, it was not possible to do a follow-up with the individual BGCA employees that did not respond.

Characteristics of Participants

The demographic section of the survey served two purposes. First, the purpose was to gain a description of some general characteristics of the BGCA employees in City

X. Secondly, the purpose was to examine the association between demographic variables and job satisfaction of the BGCA employees. Simple descriptive statistics were obtained for the demographic variables. A frequency procedure was used to obtain these results. Appendix B reported a general summary of the demographic characteristics of the BGCA participants. Separate tables of results for each demographic variable are presented in this chapter.

Reliability Analysis of JSI

The Cronbach Alpha was used to estimate the reliability of the JSI. The Cronach alpha determined how all statements on the JSI related to one another in content. The reliability analysis of the research data yielded an alpha reliability coefficient of .98. This was a high degree of internal reliability.

Company Tenure and Job Satisfaction

Company tenure at the BGCA ranged from new hire to 21 years. The first research question asked if a significant relationship existed between job satisfaction and company tenure. The null hypothesis for this research question was as follows

H₀1: There is no significant relationship between overall job satisfaction and company tenure for the BGCA employees.

To evaluate the first hypothesis, company tenure was analyzed using the Spearman rho correlation at the .05 probability level. When considering company tenure as ordinal data and job satisfaction scores as interval data, a Spearman rho was used to determine the strength of the relationship. The Spearman rho was used because company tenure was ranked data. Company tenure at the BGCA was not normally distributed. It

was a positively skewed distribution due to the high number of employees (202 or 60%) who had been employed with the BGCA for 4 years or less.

Out of the 332 participants, 129 (39%) of the participants worked 1 year or less and scored a JSI mean of 4.4, and 46 (12%) participants worked 2 to 3 years at the BGCA and scored a JSI mean of 4.06. Any participant working less than 1 year was grouped with the participants who worked 1 year. The researcher asked participants to mark 1 year for employees who had only been employed for less than a year. A total of 175 participants had 4 to 6 years of company tenure at the BGCA. This group reported a JSI mean of 4.27. The possible total mean scores for the JSI ranged from 1 to 5. A score higher than a 3.0 represented the satisfied end of the scale.

A total of 15 participants (5%) had worked for 7 years and 18 participants (5%) had company tenure of 8 years. Both of these groups scored a mean JSI score of 3.24. Nine participants had 9 years of company tenure at BGCA. This group reported a JSI mean of 4.16. The majority of the company tenure groups were satisfied with their job. The majority of participants (77%) worked between 6 years to less than a year. The mean length of company tenure at the BGCA was 4.25 years with a JSI mean of 3.85. The summary for company tenure at the BGCA is shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Summary of Company Tenure at BGCA

Company tenure	n	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
1 year or less	129	39%	.39	25.0
2 years	13	3%	.03	30.0
3 years	33	10%	.10	33.5
4 years	27	8%	.08	35.6
5 years	19	6%	.06	39.8
6 years	34	10%	.10	45.1
7 years	15	5%	.05	58.3
8 years	18	5%	.05	59.6
9 years	9	3%	.03	75.0
10 years	5	2%	.02	79.9
11 years	2	1%	.01	84.3
12 years	11	3%	.03	90.7
13 years	4	1%	.01	92.3
14 years	3	1%	.01	95.7
15 years	1	0%	.00	96.3
16 years	1	0%	.00	96.9
17 years	2	1%	.01	97.5
18 years	2	1%	.01	98.8
21 years	1	0%	.00	99.1
Total	332	100%	100.0	100.0
No response	3	1%		

The BGCA participants regardless of their age appeared to be satisfied with their job. There was a negative Spearman rho correlation of $-.108$ or 1% common variance to show this relationship was not statistically significant. As a result, the younger participants did not appear to be more satisfied with their job than the older participants. No company tenure category revealed a significant higher or lower level of job satisfaction than from the others. The null hypothesis of no relationship between company tenure and job satisfaction was not rejected.

Only one participant had worked for 20 years or more with the BGCA. This 1 participant had worked for the BGCA for 21 years and had a JSI mean score of 4.44, which indicated that this individual was satisfied with the job. The one BGCA participant who worked for 21 years could have existed as an unusual score or outlier in the data analysis. The majority of the participants reported much lower numbers in company tenure.

Because the participant with 21 years of company tenure could have had a great influence to the results, calculations were performed with and without the individual. Including the participant of 21 years, company tenure at the BGCA was a weak, although negative relationship with job satisfaction. The correlation score was extremely weak at $-.116$ or 1% common variance. However, even with the participant of 21 years, there was no statistical relationship between company tenure at the BGCA and job satisfaction. The results of the Spearman rho correlations are presented in Table 2.

Table 2

Spearman Rho Correlations for Company Tenure at BGCA

Spearman's rho		Work experience	Job satisfaction
Work experience	Correlation coefficient	1.00	-.108*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	-	.053
	N	323	322
Job satisfaction	Correlation coefficient	-.108*	1.00
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.053	-
	N	322	322

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

Only 32 (13%) participants worked more than 10 years at the BGCA. Eleven (3%) participants worked 12 years, but very few (14 participants) after the 12-year mark for company tenure. It was surprising to the researcher that so many participants had just worked one year or less. The 1 year or less company tenure group was the largest group and exceeded the other groups with a large number of participants (129). It would appear that the majority of BGCA employees in City X were new employees to the company. The second largest company tenure group was the 4 years of company tenure, which consisted of 27 participants. The 1 year or less group exceeded this group with 107 participants. A total of 3 employees did not respond to the question. With just 3 employees not responding shows that the BGCA employees in City X are of an overall low company tenure.

Age and Job Satisfaction

The second research question asked if a significant relationship existed between job satisfaction and one's age. The ages of the participants ranged from 18 years to 54 years. The hypothesis guided from this question was as follows

H₀2: There is no significant difference between overall job satisfaction and age for the BGCA employees.

An employee must be at least 18 years of age to work at the BGCA. No participants were under the age of 18 years. Results indicated that the average age of the BGCA employees was 27 years with a JSI mean of 4.3. Age at the BGCA was not normally distributed. It was a positively skewed distribution due to the high number of employees (44%) who were under the age of 26 years old. The most frequently reported age was 29 years as reported from 50 participants (15%). These 50 participants reported a JSI mean of 3.5. The next highest reported age was age 27 as reported from 43 participants (13%). These 43 participants reported a JSI mean of 3.3. A total of 119 participants (36%) were between the ages of 21 to 25. A JSI mean score of 4.5 was reported from these 119 participants.

Ten participants (5%) were 40 years old or older. These 10 participants scored a JSI mean of 3.95. One person reported the oldest age, which was 54 years old. Because the 54-year-old scored a JSI score of 1.33 to show high job dissatisfaction, this participant existed as an unusual score or outlier. The majority of the participants reported younger ages. Eight participants did not respond to this question. The summary of ages for the BGCA participants is presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Summary of Age for BGCA Participants

Age	n	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
18 years	5	2%	1.5	1.5
19 years	2	1%	.6	2.2
20 years	3	1%	.9	3.1
21 years	22	7%	6.8	9.9
22 years	18	5%	5.6	15.4
23 years	18	5%	5.6	21.0
24 years	31	9%	9.6	30.6
25 years	30	9%	9.3	39.8
26 years	17	5%	5.2	45.1
27 years	43	13%	13.3	58.3
28 years	4	1%	1.2	59.6
29 years	50	15%	15.4	75.0
30 years	16	5%	4.9	79.9
31 years	14	4%	4.3	84.3
32 years	21	6%	6.5	90.7
33 years	5	2%	1.5	92.3
34 years	11	3%	3.4	95.7
35 years	1	1%	.6	96.3
37 years	1	1%	.6	96.9
40 years	6	3%	.6	97.5
42 years	1	1%	1.2	98.8
45 years	2	2%	.3	99.1
54 years	1	1%	.6	99.7
Total	332	100%	100.0	100.
No response	8	3%		

The Pearson r correlation was used to determine the strength of the relationship. No significant relationships were found between the means of the age groups with job satisfaction. There was a negative Pearson r correlation of $-.082$ (1% common variance) with a p value of $.142$. Results indicated that the null hypothesis should not be rejected.

The 54-year-old could have had a great influence to the results. Calculations were performed with and without the individual. Including the 54-year-old, age was a weak, although negative relationship with job satisfaction. The correlation score was extremely weak at $-.111$ or 1% common variance. There was also no significant relationship between age and job satisfaction ($-.082$). Results of the Pearson r analyses are presented in Table 4.

Table 4
Pearson r Correlations for Age at BGCA

		Job Satisfaction	Age
Job Satisfaction	Pearson coefficient	1.00	$-.082^*$
	Sig. (2-tailed)	-	.142
	N	323	323
Age	Pearson coefficient	$-.082^*$	1.00
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.142	-
	N	323	323

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

Gender and Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction scores for the third research question asked if a significant difference existed between gender and job satisfaction. The null hypothesis for this research question was as follows

H₀ 3: There is no significant difference between overall job satisfaction and gender for the BGCA employees.

Two attributes for the variable gender were defined on the demographic survey for participants to select: male or female. Gender was considered to be nominal data. The two-tailed *t* test was used to determine whether significant differences existed between the male and female means at the .05 probability level.

Out of the 332 BGCA employees that participated, 234 (70%) were females and 98 (30%) were males. All participants responded to this question. A significant difference between females and males was not found in regards to job satisfaction. The mean for the males was 3.56 with a standard deviation of 1.11 as compared to a mean of 3.45 with a standard deviation of 1.22 for the females. The difference of .11 points was not significant.

The results of the *t* test were reported: $t(330) = .880 < .05$ (Sig. two-tailed = .379). The *t* value was less than the table value at the .05 level. The differences between the mean scores were not significant. Results indicated that the null hypothesis of no significant differences between job satisfaction and gender should not be rejected. Mean Job satisfaction scores for the gender categories are presented in Table 5.

Table 5

Mean Job Satisfaction Scores for Gender

Gender	n	%	Mean	Standard deviation
Male	98	30%	3.56	1.11
Female	234	70%	3.45	1.22
Total	332	100%		

Marital Status and Job Satisfaction

Participants were asked their current marital status. The fourth research question asked if a significant difference existed between job satisfaction and marital status. The null hypotheses for this question was as follows

H₀4: There is no significant difference between overall job satisfaction and marital status for the BGCA employees.

Marital status consisted of several classifications: single, married, separated, divorced, or widowed. Marital status was collapsed to produce two categories on the demographic section: married and not married. The not-married category included those who were single, separated, divorced, or widowed.

A two-tailed *t* test was used to determine whether significant differences existed between marital status at the .05 probability level. Marital status was considered nominal data. A total of 104 (31%) participants reported to be married and 228 (69%) of the participants were not married. All participants responded to this question. The mean score for the not-married group was 3.54 with a standard deviation of 1.15 as compared to a mean of 3.52 with a standard deviation of 1.12 for the married group. The difference between the two groups was not significant. Job satisfaction scores for marital status categories are presented in Table 6.

Table 6

Mean Job Satisfaction Scores for Marital Status

Marital status	n	%	Mean	Standard deviation
Married	104	31%	3.52	1.12
Not- married	228	69%	3.54	1.15
Total	332	100%		

The married participants did not appear to be more satisfied with their job than the not-married participants. The results of the t test were reported: $t(330) = -.150 < .05$ (Sig. two-tailed = .881). The t value was less than the table value at the .05 level. Significant differences between the marital status groups did not exist. Results indicated that the null hypothesis should not be rejected.

Education and Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction scores for the fifth question asked if a significant difference existed between job satisfaction and an employee's level of education. The null hypothesis for this question was as follows

H_{05} : There is no significant difference between overall job satisfaction and education for the BGCA employees.

The ANOVA was used to determine if differences existed for levels of education at the .05 probability level. Education was considered to be ordinal or rank data on the measurement scale. Five options were provided for participants to select: less than high school diploma, high school graduate or GED, 2 years of college or associate's degree, a bachelor's degree, or a graduate degree. The ANOVA was used since more than two group means existed for level of education. Job satisfaction scores for level of education categories are presented in Table 7.

Table 7

Mean Job Satisfaction Scores for Level of Education

Level of education	n	%	Mean	Standard deviation
High school or GED	57	17%	3.69	1.10
2 years college or associate's	140	43%	3.51	1.13
Bachelor's or graduate degree	135	40%	3.49	1.18
Total	332	100%		

No one had less than a high school diploma. The minimum requirements for a career at the BGCA was a GED or high school diploma, which 57 (17%) participants marked high school diploma or GED as their highest level of education. A total of 140 (43%) participants had at least 2 years of college or earned an associate's degree. The majority of the participants (83%) had higher than a high school education.

The mean of the high school group was 3.69 and the mean of the 2 years college or associate's degree was 3.51. The mean of the combined bachelor's and graduate degrees was 3.49. Out of all the participants, 128 (38%) participants received a bachelor's degree, and seven (2%) participants had a graduate degree. It was unknown how many of the BGCA employees were pursuing advanced degrees.

The ANOVA results are shown in Table 8. Results indicated that the null hypothesis should not be rejected ($F = .653$, $df = 2, 329$, $p = .521$). The F ratio consisted of the value between the education groups and the value within the education groups to produce the f value. However, the f value was less than the table value at the .05 level, so no significant differences existed job satisfaction and the different levels of education.

Table 8

Analysis of Variance for Level of Education

	Sum of squares	<i>df</i>	Mean squares	<i>F</i>	Sig.
Between groups	1.706	2	0.853	0.653	0.521
Within groups	430.145	1.31	1.307		
Total	431.852	331			

Job Satisfaction of BGCA Employees

The last research question asked if employees were satisfied with their job at the BGCA. The possible total mean scores for the JSI ranged from 1 to 5. A high mean score (4 or 5) represented the satisfied end of the scale and a low mean score (1 or 2) represented the dissatisfied end of the scale. The eight negative JSI statements were coded with reversed values, so a mean score higher than 3.0 resulted in job satisfaction for each statement.

The mean score was 3.53 (out of 5) with a standard deviation of 1.14. Because the score was 3.53, the overall attitude was at the satisfied end of the scale. Only 10% of participants scored a mean of 1.55 or lower (dissatisfied end of scale), and 25% reported a mean of 4.56 or higher. Overall, 75% of the BGCA participants were very satisfied with their job. Thus, the BGCA employees were overall highly satisfied with their job.

Survey Results

The 332 participants responded to all 18 statements on the JSI. The participants responded to each statement using a 5-point Likert scale. The breakdown of mean responses and standard deviations to each JSI statement are presented in Table 9.

Table 9

Mean Responses and Standard Deviations for Each JSI Item

JSI	n	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation
Item 1	332	1	5	3.64	1.417
Item 2	332	1	5	3.70	1.468
Item 3	332	1	5	3.91	1.458
Item 4	332	1	5	3.17	1.109
Item 5	332	1	5	3.73	1.300
Item 6	332	1	5	2.37	0.788
Item 7	332	1	5	3.85	1.126
Item 8	332	1	5	3.65	1.460
Item 9	332	1	5	3.88	1.199
Item 10	332	1	5	3.53	1.478
Item 11	332	1	5	1.96	0.816
Item 12	332	1	5	3.71	1.446
Item 13	332	1	5	3.59	1.414
Item 14	332	1	5	3.70	1.392
Item 15	332	1	5	3.88	1.212
Item 16	332	1	5	3.74	1.270
Item 17	332	1	5	3.97	1.103
Item 18	332	1	5	3.61	1.426
Total	332	1	5	3.53	1.140

The JSI statement, “My job is pretty uninteresting,” scored a mean of 3.97. Out of the 332 participants, 136 of the participants strongly disagreed to this statement, and 19 participants strongly agreed. The majority of participants agreed to this statement: I find real enjoyment in my work. The participants highly agreed to the statement: My job is pretty uninteresting enough to keep from getting bored. It scored a mean of 3.91. For the statement, “I like my job better than the average worker does,” 128 participants strongly agreed to this statement, and 18 participants strongly disagreed. The JSI statement, “I feel that my job is no more interesting than others I could get” reported the lowest mean, which was 1.96. This mean score was the least definitive answer of all the JSI statements. Only 1 participant strongly agreed to this statement, and 99 participants strongly disagreed. It appears that this statement was confusing to the statements.

Summary of Data Analysis

The results of the data analysis for each of the five null hypotheses were presented in this chapter. The purpose was to survey the BGCA employees in City X to see if an association existed between job satisfaction and demographic variables. Furthermore, this research was conducted in an effort to determine the level of job satisfaction of the BGCA employees. The JSI and demographic section were passed out to the 350 employees at the various BGCA club sites in City X during a scheduled employee meeting. The return rate of completed surveys was 95%. All five null hypotheses were not rejected. Thus, it appeared that the demographic variables were not found to be significantly associated with job satisfaction. The findings were applicable to the 350 BGCA employees of City X.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The purpose was to investigate the association between job satisfaction and demographic variables of the BGCA employees in City X. The results of the research were reported in Chapter 4. The conclusions relative to testing the five hypotheses and recommendations are discussed in this chapter.

The demographic variables examined were company tenure, age, gender, marital status, and education. The rationale for conducting this survey was the inconclusiveness of past research findings. Numerous studies on job satisfaction have been conducted; however, little research on the job satisfaction of youth development organizations has been conducted. No past study has evaluated the job satisfaction of the BGCA employees.

The BGCA is one of the most highly recognized nonprofit youth development organizations that deal primarily with underprivileged, high-risk youth (Shassian & Hampl, 2000). Youth development organizations, like the BGCA, allow low-income parents to work during the after-school hours. Moreover, these after-school care programs are an important influence for underprivileged, high-risk youth (Kroll, 1999). However, employee turnover is extremely high nationally for youth development organizations serving high-risk youth (Franze et al., 2002; Halpern, 1999). Turnover in youth development organizations are 30% or more each year (Halpern).

Company Tenure

As for company tenure of the BGCA employees, this research did not find a significant relationship. The null hypothesis of no relationship between company tenure

and job satisfaction was not rejected. Company tenure averaged 4.25 years at the BGCA. The 3 participants that did not state their years of employment reported a job satisfaction mean score of 3.08. The 4 participants who had the highest company tenure (17 years to 21 years) were all highly satisfied with a mean job satisfaction score of 4.8. Consequently, the lowest company tenure participants (one year or less) reported a mean score of 4.4 to show no statistically significant relationships existed between job satisfaction and company tenure. The mean group for company tenure (4.25 years) also reported a similar mean score of 3.85. Thus, the length of company tenure did not make a statistically significant relationship in the BGCA employees' perceptions of job satisfaction.

Bransford (1991) and Warshauer (1993) found a significant relationship between company tenure and job satisfaction. Crawford (1993) found employees who held the longest company tenure had the lowest levels of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction increased as company tenure increased for hospital nurses (Mcintire, 1985). A study conducted on the members of American Vocational Association reported significant relationships regarding company tenure (Warr, 1991). Other studies also found company tenure to be highly related to job satisfaction (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Buzzi, 1997; Dickinson, 2000; Heslop et al., 2002; Lee & Wilbur, 1985). This research did not find the same results.

For many studies, company tenure revealed significant relationships with job satisfaction. Several factors could have contributed to this. Company tenure has been used as a basis for earning organizational rewards, promotions, and raises (Warr, 1991). Furthermore, research has shown that as one stayed longer with a company, one gained

more confidence in his or her job role and job responsibilities (Herzberg, 1968). Having the confidence and knowledge to perform one's job has increased job satisfaction (Locke, 1976). Warr found as company tenure increased, the level of job satisfaction increased. Company tenure was statistically significant with job satisfaction among 3,120 university employees (Bedeian, Ferris, & Kacmar, 1992).

Moak (1992) and Pugliesi (1995) found no significant relationships between job satisfaction and company tenure. Brookman (1989) found company tenure to not be significant with job satisfaction among 358 nurse educators. Results of Smith's study (1994) revealed no statistically significant relationships for individuals of 10 large public universities. Furthermore, Niblock (1999) and Padilla-Velez (1993) also found company tenure to not be a significant factor. This research did support these findings.

Age

The ages of the BGCA employees were found to not have a significant relationship with job satisfaction. The null hypothesis of no relationship between age and job satisfaction was not rejected. Personal demographics indicated the average age of the participants was 27 years. The youngest age was 18 and the oldest reported age was 54. Out of the 332 participants, 129 participants were under the age of 26, which reflected 44% of the participants. All age groups reported similar JSI scores.

All age groups were satisfied with their job except for the 54-year-old. Although the 54-year-old was thrown out of the data analysis (existed as an outlier), this individual scored a low job satisfaction mean of 1.33. However, the next oldest participants were the ages of 45 and 42 years old. These individuals scored a mean score of 3.6, which represented the satisfied end of the job satisfaction scale. Eight participants did not report

their age. These participants scored a mean of 3.21 to show they were satisfied with their job.

Mack (2000) and Ting (1997) had found a significant relationship between age and job satisfaction. Job satisfaction increased in age for hospital nurses (Hurley, 2002; McIntire, 1985). The youngest age group of the American Vocational Association were the least satisfied (Warr, 1991). The oldest age group was the most satisfied. Lee and Wilbur (1985) found job satisfaction increased as employees aged. Older employees were more satisfied than younger employees (Good, 2002; Lee & Wilbur). This research did not find the same.

As employees aged, employees placed more importance on moral and value of work and less emphasis on money (Lee & Wilbur, 1985). Herzberg (1968) believed that a U-shape function existed between age and job satisfaction. Job satisfaction at a young age was originally high, dipped in middle age, and returned to high status later. Morale was high for young employees who entered the workforce and then slowly dropped due to boredom and a perception of decreased opportunities. But, rose again as the employees continued their jobs. Young employees faced extra stress of having to learn how a company operates, performance expectations, how to relate to boss and co-workers, figuring out their job and career goals, and starting a new family life (Lee and Wilbur).

Numerous studies found age to not be significant in one's level of job satisfaction. This research did support these findings. Niblock (1999) found no significant relationship between job satisfaction and age. Crawford (1993) reported age to not be a significant factor among nurses. A comparison of individuals of 10 large public universities revealed age to not be significantly related (Smith, 1994). Richter (1985) and Niblock (1999)

found age to not be a factor for job satisfaction. Bedeian et al.'s study (1992) revealed age to not effect job satisfaction for 3,120 employees of a university.

Gender

This research did not find significant differences with gender. The null hypothesis of no differences between gender and job satisfaction was not rejected. The majority of the participants were female (70%). Males reported a mean of 3.56 and the females reported a mean of 3.45. Both groups were satisfied with their job. An important consideration was the small number of males. Only 30% of participants were males.

Although this study found no differences, Kellough (1990) and Moore (1999) reported significant differences. Brookman (1989) found male nurse educators had higher levels of job satisfaction than female nurse educators. However, Anderson (1989) reported females to have higher job satisfaction than males in two computer industries. Another study reported females to have higher job satisfaction (Miller, 2000). Gender was found to influence job satisfaction among United States physicians (Bashaw, 1998). Male physicians were significantly less satisfied (Bashaw). Stronger negative correlation was reported for females in a university setting (Bedeian, Ferris, & Kacmar, 1992).

Research has shown how men and women have different motivations for job satisfaction (Firebaugh & Harley, 1995; Hulin & Smith, 1965). Men value pay and promotions more than women, which could have indicated why women report higher job satisfaction (Firebaugh & Harley). Many women become satisfied with their job if they have a good or close relationship with co-workers (Herzberg, 1968). Men rated their career as a sense of well-being, so males may have set more expectations for their job (Herzberg).

Pugliesi (1995) and Hulin and Smith (1965) found no significant differences between job satisfaction and gender. A comparison of vocational teachers in Puerto Rico indicated no significant differences (Padilla-Velez, 1993). No gender differences were revealed in job satisfaction among 12, 979 personnel (Witt & Nye, 1992). For sales managers, no statistically significant difference existed for gender and job satisfaction (Igwebuike, 1998). Guerra (1989) and Mack (2000) also found no difference between gender and job satisfaction. This research did support these findings.

Marital Status

This research did not find significant differences between marital status and job satisfaction. The null hypothesis of no differences between marital status and job satisfaction was not rejected. Regarding the question on marital status, 228 (69%) of the participants who responded marked the not-married category. The other 104 participants (31%) were married. The not-married group reported a mean of 3.52, and the married group reported a mean of 3.54 to indicate that no statistically significant differences existed. Both groups were satisfied with their jobs at the BGCA. However, combining the widowed, divorced, or separated variables into the not-married category did not make allowances for the needs and perceptions that could be unique to those participants that were widowed, divorced, or separated. Results could have been different if the not-married category had been broken down into four separate categories: single, widowed, divorced, and separated.

Buzzi (1997) found marital status to be statistically significant. A comparison of hospital nurses revealed that marital status and job satisfaction were positively correlated (Mcintire, 1985). Marital status was found to influence job satisfaction for physicians

(Bashaw, 1998). Single employees rated their job more highly satisfying than married employees (Munoz Espinoza, 2001). Vest (1996) reported the same results among women accounting educators. However, Beach (1997) found married nursing university faculty to be highly more satisfied than the single faculty members.

Several factors could have contributed to marital status showing significant differences. Research has shown that married life can put more demands than single life (Thomas & Talpade, 1999). Married employees may more likely have children than compared to single employees, which adds greater demands to their life outside of work. Studies have shown that married employees come to work more tired than single employees (Lingren et al., 1987; Thomas & Talpade). Also, married employees could have felt less satisfied with job due to financial circumstances (Thomas & Talpade). However, if married life was fulfilling to the married employees, it could have influenced their level of job satisfaction (Mack, 2000). Single employees may have felt lonelier than married employees, which contributed to their low job satisfaction (Lingren et al.).

Mack (2000), Hulin and Smith (1965), and Lee and Wilbur (1990) all found no significant differences between job satisfaction and marital status. This research did support these findings. Marital status was not statistically significant among members of the Association of Christian Schools International (Miller, 2000). Igwebuike (1998) also reported marital status to show no significance for job satisfaction. Moreover, Hardman (1996) found marital status to not influence job satisfaction among public school administrators.

Education

This research did not find significant differences between the levels of education and job satisfaction. The null hypothesis of no differences between education and job satisfaction was not rejected. The educational level of the participants ranged from high school graduates (17%) to graduate degrees (2%). The majority of the participants (43%) possessed an associate's degree or 2 years of college.

Although the seven participants who earned graduate degrees were combined with the bachelor degrees, the seven participants reported a mean score of 3.97 to show they were satisfied with their job. The group of high school education reported a mean of 3.69, and the group of 2 years of college or associate's degree reported a mean of 3.51. Moreover, the bachelor's degree group reported a similar mean of 3.49. Thus, the different levels of education did not make a statistically significant difference in the BGCA participants' perceptions of job satisfaction. All groups of education levels were satisfied with their job.

Lee and Wilbur (1990) and Niblock (1990) all found significant differences between education and job satisfaction. Mack (2000) found significant differences existed in levels of education for school principals. The more education that employees completed, the more satisfied the employees appeared to have with their job (Hurley, 2002; Mack). Education was a significant factor for Florida park service employees (Niblock, 1999). For women accounting educators, job satisfaction increased with more education (Vest, 1996).

Several factors could have contributed to education showing significant differences. Lee and Wilbur (1985) found that young employees with high levels of

education became dissatisfied with their job due to their high job expectations that were not met. However, the more time and effort that employees spent in education and career planning, the higher the chance that they could receive promotions or company rewards (Mottaz, 1984; Ting, 1997). It has been shown that higher educated employees had more job alternatives, which could create higher job satisfaction (Ting). Past studies reported employees with less education exhibited lower levels of job satisfaction (Dickinson, 2000).

Kuo-Tsai et al. (1990) and Wu (1994) found no significant differences between job satisfaction and levels of education. Education was not a significant factor for sales employees (Moore, 1999). The differences between education and job satisfaction was not significant among managers in Columbus, OH (Igwebuike, 1998). For members of the Association of Christian Schools International, there were no statistically significant differences between levels of education (Miller, 2000). Moreover, no statistically significant differences existed for Padilla-Velez (1993), Richter (1985), and Smith (1994). Hardman (1996) also found no statistically significant differences with education for public school administrators. This research did support these findings.

Conclusions

Job satisfaction was an important area to research because it is linked to withdrawal behaviors, such as job turnover, absenteeism, or tardiness (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Fisher, 2000; Heslop et al., 2002; Locke, 1976; Porter & Steers, 1973; Vroom, 1964). The population was the 350 BGCA employees of City X. A total of 332 participants represented the BGCA in City X. Five null hypotheses were tested at the .05 level of significance. Data were collected using the JSI and a demographic survey. The

mean of the JSI was 3.53 with a standard deviation of 1.14 to show that the BGCA employees were overall satisfied with their job.

The data were classified according to company tenure, age, gender, marital status, and education. Correlation coefficients, ANOVA, and *t* test were used to test the five null hypotheses. The results were noteworthy in that it supported the general hypotheses that there were no significant relationships or differences between job satisfaction and demographic variables. Based on the results from the data gathered, the following conclusions were developed:

1. Results of the statistical analyses lent support to the major contention of this study in that demographic variables were not associated with job satisfaction.
2. No statistically significant relationships were found between company tenure and job satisfaction. The BGCA employees in all company tenure groups were satisfied with their job.
3. The mean company tenure length was 4.25 years.
4. Age was not significantly associated with job satisfaction. The BGCA employees in the majority of the age groups were satisfied with their job.
5. No statistically significant differences were found between gender and job satisfaction. Both groups were satisfied with their job.
6. The majority of the BGCA employees were females with the mean age of 27.
7. Marital status was not found to be significantly associated with job satisfaction. Both groups were satisfied with their job.
8. The three education levels of the BGCA employees were not found to be significantly associated with job satisfaction. The BGCA employees in all education groups were satisfied with their job.
9. The majority of the participants were not married and held either a bachelor's degree, associate's degree, or 2 years of college.
10. Overall, the BGCA employees in City X were satisfied with their job.

This research revealed that the tested demographic variables were all found to have no statistically significant association with job satisfaction. Not one demographic variable tested were a significant determining factor in the BGCA employees' job satisfaction. Data presented was used to strengthen the five null hypotheses that demographic variables do not have an association with job satisfaction. An examination of the findings of this study leads to similar conclusions about demographic variables having no significant association with job satisfaction (Hulin & Smith, 1965; Kuo-Tsai et al., 1990; Lee & Wilbur, 1990; Moak, 1992; Niblock, 1999; Pugliesi, 1995; Wu, 1994).

Several factors could have contributed to these demographic variables not showing significant association with job satisfaction. One possible explanation for no significant association with the study's results was sampling bias. The majority of the population study consisted of females who were of a young age and had worked less than 4 years at the BGCA. Perhaps, if more males, more older employees, and more employees who had worked 10 years or longer were included, the results could be different. Moreover, nonrandom sampling was performed to ensure a high return rate, which could have contributed to sampling bias.

Participants who were the age of 40 or older represented 5% of the population. This indicated that the BGCA staff was not balanced age-wise. The question could be raised—should attempts be made to retain employees and take steps to increase their level of satisfaction, so they would stay with the BGCA throughout their career? The oldest participant scored a low JSI score. This participant could have been frustrated or uncomfortable working in an environment with much younger employees.

The not-married category consisted of those who were single, widowed, divorced, and separated. Combining these different marital statuses into one single category did not make allowances for the needs and perceptions that could be unique to each one of those types. Job satisfaction results could have been different if this category had been separated into four categories: single, widowed, divorced, and separated.

Eighteen BGCA employees choose to not respond to the JSI and demographic section. Those 18 individuals may not have enjoyed their job. If they had responded, results could have been different. Also, one must recognize that the population study consisted of employees only in City X. The fact that no differences were found between the responses of the BGCA employees in this city need not be interpreted as meaning that no differences do exist. Including BGCA employees of other cities and states could show significant differences.

Another possible explanation for no significant differences could have been response bias. How one responded to a statement on the JSI could have reflected the mood he or she was experiencing at the time of the survey. Strenuous efforts were made to assure the anonymity and confidentiality of participant responses. However, response bias could have occurred. Participants could have been fearful that their responses would be made known to their supervisor or others. If that was the case, the association between job satisfaction and demographic variables could have been stronger than what was reflected in the data.

Another possible explanation was that employees who work in youth development organizations receive their greatest source of job satisfaction from doing what they consider meaningful work (McLaughlin et al., 1994). In many cases, the drive

to help underprivileged, high-risk youth comes from knowing they are giving these youth knowledge and skills that the youth can use and apply and will make a difference in the youths' lives (Pagano, 2000). This drive could have caused their level of job satisfaction to increase regardless of other variables that could have caused employees to lower their level of job satisfaction (McLaughlin et al.).

Youth development employees are strongly committed and challenged to think independently in how to apply skills and resources to impact the youth in having a better life (Shassian & Hampl, 2000). These employees go into the job knowing that they will be giving more than receiving and their job satisfaction is derived from seeing and participating in youth success, from knowing that their impact on the youth is life-changing and that they are allowing an environment for these underprivileged, high-risk youth to receive and achieve success and fulfillment (McLaughlin et al., 1994).

Perhaps one should not be surprised that employees who chose to work in this type of negative and stressful environment are truly dedicated to their work and helping youth (Franze et al., 2002; Pagano, 2000). The BGCA employees could have chosen this field of work as a rewarding career for themselves. These employees basically adapt to their jobs of helping youth in what is often perceived as a hostile and negative work environment (Franze et al., Hirsh et al., 2000). The job training and learning experiences could have strongly moderated job expectations for these employees.

One problem with the JSI was the one confusing statement on the survey that read, "I feel that my job is no more interesting than others I could get." The mean score could have been higher if this statement was presented more clearly to the participants. The majority of the participants marked a "2" for that statement. This statement was

considered a positive statement to Brayfield and Rothe (1965). However, only 2 participants ranked this statement a “5.”

A major point was that differences in job satisfaction did not hold up across any of the five demographic variables. This could be attributed to sampling or response bias. On the other hand, it was more likely that job-related variables instead of demographic variables played a major role in the level of job satisfaction. It appears that numerous factors determine one’s level of job satisfaction. For some, it could be the pay, coworkers, level of education, or the age of their coworkers. In conclusion, to develop a true theory of job satisfaction for a specific population, one should include and determine the contribution of all the variables in job satisfaction.

Although all five null hypotheses were not rejected, the goal of this research was achieved. Furthermore, this study provided new insight into the BGCA in City X regarding their level of job satisfaction. Given the findings of this study, demographic variables cannot be judged to be an adequate predictor of job satisfaction. The findings suggested that there is a need to better understand what influences job satisfaction. The findings from this population study cannot be generalized to another population.

Recommendations

More research is recommended to understand the role that demographic variables play, if any, in one’s level of job satisfaction. However, the association between demographic characteristics and job satisfaction are numerous and complex. The following recommendations are suggested as ideas for future research. The main recommendation focuses on additional methods of data collection. For example, personnel records could provide more information about demographic variables.

Supervisors could provide information about employee demographics. Collecting data from additional sources might make response bias less likely to occur. The following recommendations on job satisfaction were based on the findings and conclusions:

1. Replicate this study with two changes to see if the results remained the same or if the two changes made an impact on the results. Revise the JSI statement, "I feel that my job is no more interesting than others I could get" to a more clear, positive statement. For example, "I feel that my job is as interesting as other jobs I could get." The not-married category should be broken down into four separate categories: single, widowed, divorced, and separated.
2. Replicate this study using cluster sampling of different city locations within the United States to compare the job satisfaction of the BGCA employees of City X to other cities. A research question should address whether or not the BGCA employees of different geographic locations differ in their level of job satisfaction.
3. Replicate the study using a stratified random sampling so that each division of the BGCA employees in level of education, gender, or work experience has equal sized samples within each subgroup of the sample population.
4. Replication of this study using another youth development organization could give some indication to the level of job satisfaction of youth development organizations. With additional research, there could emerge a better understanding of the job satisfaction level of employees directly involved with youth development organizations.
5. Because this study was the first to examine the overall job satisfaction of the BGCA employee, additional research and testing of these results are recommended for further study. A follow-up study should be conducted within several years to see if the level of job satisfaction has changed for these BGCA employees.
6. Although job satisfaction in association to demographic variables was indeed important to examine in youth development organizations, research should also focus on job satisfaction in relationship to service effectiveness or youth outcomes in these types of programs.
7. Finally, an in-depth study is needed to investigate those BGCA employees who have left the youth development profession to determine specific factors that contributed to their job dissatisfaction.

Future Research

Perhaps this study will result in additional research concerning the association between demographic variables and job satisfaction. Future research should continue in order to help identify the key variables of job satisfaction. Moreover, the results of future studies should be compared to this study to indicate the strengths and weaknesses of this study. Future research should continue to more fully elaborate the examination of demographic variables with a more diverse sample.

The challenges for future research in job satisfaction result in many and numerous different paths for researchers to follow. Additional research should focus on other demographic variables not examined in this study, such as race, personal income or household income, job position within a field, the number of children to raise or having no children, the age of the youngest child, married or divorced, and part-time or full-time employment. Such research would help to better understand why and when employees are most likely to respond positively and negatively to their job. The study of job satisfaction is intriguing and well worth the importance to explore.

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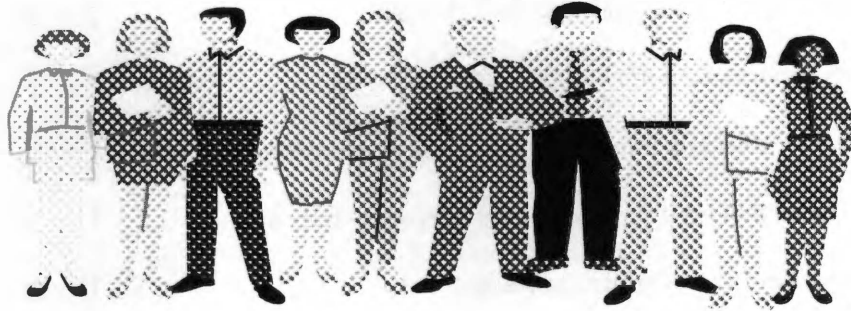
APPENDIXES

Appendix A
Job Satisfaction Index Survey

Job Satisfaction Index

1965 by Rothe and Brayfield

The purpose of this survey is to obtain information about factors that affect job satisfaction. Your participation is vital to the progress of this research project. Your responses to the survey will be kept strictly confidential. Your name is not required on this survey. The return of this completed survey indicates your informed consent to participate in this research. Thank you! Your participation is important to us!



DIRECTIONS:

Please check the appropriate response for each item. Completion of this job satisfaction index acknowledges your understanding that this data will be used for research purposes only and will be kept completely confidential.

Number of years you have worked
at this youth development
organization:

Age:

Gender:

_____ Female

_____ Male

Marital Status:

_____ Married

_____ Not-married

Level of education:

_____ Less than high school diploma

_____ High school degree or GED

_____ 2 years of college or
associate's degree

_____ Bachelor's degree

_____ Graduate degree

(Note: not-married category
includes those who are single,
separated, divorced, or widowed).

DIRECTIONS:

For each statement listed below, CIRCLE THE NUMBER that most accurately describes your response for that item. THERE ARE NO RIGHT OR WRONG ANSWERS. Please respond honestly to all of the questions. There are five possible choices for each statement:

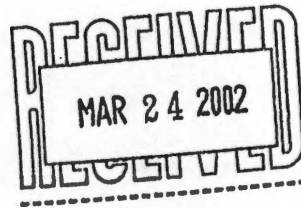
	<u>Strongly Disagree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Undecided</u>	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Strongly Agree</u>
	1	2	3	4	5
1. I am disappointed that I ever took this job.	1	2	3	4	5
2. My job is like a hobby to me.	1	2	3	4	5
3. My job is usually interesting enough to keep from getting bored.	1	2	3	4	5
4. It seems that my friends are more interested in their jobs.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I consider my job rather unpleasant.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I enjoy my work more than my leisure time.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I am often bored with my job.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Most of the time I have to force myself to go to work.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I am satisfied with my job for the time being.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I feel that my job is no more interesting than others I could get.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I definitely dislike my work.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I feel that I am happier in my work than most other people.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Each day of work seems like it will never end.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I like my job better than the average worker does.	1	2	3	4	5
17. My job is pretty uninteresting.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I find real enjoyment in my work.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix B

JSI Permission Letter

January 10, 2002

Journal of Applied Psychology
1200 17th St. N. W.
Washington D.C. 20036



To Whom It May Concern:

This is a letter requesting permission to use the Brayfield-Rothe Scale for measuring job satisfaction. I am in the process of writing my thesis and would like to use the Job Satisfaction Index to measure the job satisfaction of employees of a youth development organization as my research.

I wrote to Dr. Brayfield's address as listed in the Directory of the American Psychological Association and the letter was returned to me by the postal service as attempted not known.

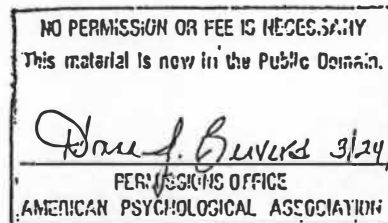
Any assistance you might offer would be greatly appreciated. I would like to receive permission to use this Job Satisfaction Index and if you cannot do so perhaps you might direct me further. I do not know if the Job Satisfaction Index was copyrighted, do you know? It was published in the Journal of Applied Psychology, (1951, v.35, 307-311).

Thank you for your help.

Sincerely,

Beth M. Brown

Beth M. Brown



*APA was the copyright holder but
all APA-copyrighted material published in
APA journals prior to 1961 are now
in the public domain. No permission from
APA or the author is necessary to use
the scale. - Simply provide a reference.*

VITA

Beth Michelle Brown was born in Menomonee Falls, WI. She was raised in Knoxville, TN. Beth graduated from The University of Tennessee, Knoxville with a B.A. in Public Relations. Following the completion of her Master's degree in Human Resource Development, Beth plans to attend law school to focus on employee law. After law school, she hopes to specialize in the defense of employers in all types of employee litigations as well as to provide advice and training seminars to employers on various employee and human resource legal issues.