

**A STUDY OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SUBORDINATE JOB
SATISFACTION AND THE PHYSICAL LOCATION OF SUPERVISORS**

by

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Abstract

There is a scarcity of research on the physical location of employees and supervisors and its relationship to employee job satisfaction. To summarize, this research study was one of the first studies to explore in quantitative terms the correlation between the locations of employees and supervisors and job satisfaction. The main proposition of this study that the physical location between an employee and his or her immediate supervisor correlates to the employee's job satisfaction score reported via the Spector Job Satisfaction Survey was proven to be significant. The fact that where an employee physically resides in the workplace, relative to their supervisor, did prove to have significance in the study is important for future research. The correlation between job satisfaction and the physical location of the employee relative to their supervisor serves as a stepping stone to understanding the use of physical space in the workplace. The understanding of the use of physical space in the workplace is paramount to the development of future physical layouts in the workplace and organizational structures that lead to increase job satisfaction and productivity. Where employees conduct their work, relative to their supervisor's physical location, research proves significance in relation to predicting employee job satisfaction, as measured through the Spector Job Satisfaction Survey. This outcome holds promise for the study of employee job satisfaction within industrial/organizational psychology. More quantitative studies need to be performed in this area, linking employee job satisfaction to the physical workplace. This study represents a beginning to exploring other potential drivers of employee job satisfaction.

This study contributed to the limited literature in how the physical orientation of an organization impacts employee job satisfaction. It is anticipated that this study may drive future research on the subject.

Dedication

Dedicated to my children, Madison and Keaton because anything is possible!
To my wife Rebecca, for her support and belief that I could complete this endeavor and
lastly, for her encouragement to persevere.

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CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

Introduction to the Problem

According to M.E. Porter's 1985 treatise on comparative advantage, the ability of an organization to distinguish itself from its industry competitors in terms of efficiency, quality, innovation, and customer responsiveness, will allow the firm to generate higher profits than its industry competitors (p. 3) Kahn (1998, p. 206) observed that the single most important need for a company to be great is attracting and retaining quality employees. In order to differentiate themselves, organizations throughout the world are searching continuously for ways to attract and keep quality employees (Hilton, 2000, p. 17).

Knowledge and expertise acquired over time within an organization is known as "human capital" (Bontis & Fitz-enz, 2002, p. 223). In their 2002 study, Bontis and Fitz-enz detected a strong positive correlation ($r = .50$) between human capital and organizational performance, suggesting that employees are important to the firm (p.246). Bontis and Fitz-enz (2002, p.234) also observed a positive correlation between job satisfaction and organizational performance ($r = .39$). Maister (2001, p.23) also observed a correlation between satisfaction and company performance. Judge, Thoresen, Bono, and Patton (2001, p. 385) discovered, in their meta-analysis that, through various methods and measures, positive emotions are related to job performance.

Job satisfaction leads to employee retention, which has direct advantages for organizations. The Society for Human Resource Management's (SHRM) 2011 Job Satisfaction Survey uncovered that the relationship with the supervisor was among the top sources of employee job satisfaction, just behind benefits, compensation, and job security (p. 14). Also, studies by the University of Exeter's School of Psychology found the design and layout of an office contributes to employees being happier, healthier, and up to 32% more productive ("Designing," 2010, p. 7). The proposed research study will investigate the relationship between employee-supervision physical location and employee satisfaction.

Background of the Study

Fewer than half of U.S. workers are satisfied with their jobs, the lowest level since record-keeping began in 1987 (Pepitone, 2010, p. 1). The Conference Board's survey polled 5,000 households, and discovered that 45% were satisfied in their jobs, down from 61.1% in 1987, the first year the survey was conducted (Pepitone, 2010, p. 1). Even though nearly one in 11 Americans is out of a job, those who are employed are increasingly dissatisfied. "This situation could spell trouble for the overall engagement of U.S. employees and ultimately employee productivity" (Pepitone, 2010, p. 1). The report noted that job satisfaction has been on a steady decline over the years, "despite big improvements in the work environment, such as a reduction of workplace hazards, and an increase in vacation days" (Pepitone, 2010, p. 1). Contemporary human relations research focuses more on management, rather than the blue-collar worker. In 1968, Strauss stated that, "supervisory training has been transformed into management training and then into

organization development” (p. 263). Furthermore, research focused on the organization as a whole, not just as individual departments.

One area that received much attention was the question of causality between employee satisfaction and performance (Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985; Lawler & Porter, 1967; Organ, 1977; Schwab & Cummings, 1970). Early human relations researchers viewed the morale-productivity relationship as, quite simply, higher morale correlating with improved productivity (Strauss, 1968, p. 273). The most controversial issue developed from decades of research on employee attitudes and employee behavior is the job satisfaction-job performance relationship (Petty, McGee, & Cavender, 1984, p.712). The issue of understanding the satisfaction-performance relationship is unresolved after more than six decades of organizational research dedicated to it (Petty et al., 1984, p. 712). Although this study will not measure the satisfaction-performance relationship directly, it will focus on one possible driver of satisfaction that could lead to worse or improved performance – employee location relative to the location of the direct supervisor.

Statement of the Problem

Allen, Bryant, and Vardaman (2010, p. 48) stressed that “employee retention remains a critical issue for organizations and managers.” According to Cascio (2006, p. 201), “the costs associated with recruiting, selecting, and training new employees often exceed 100% of the annual salary for the position being filled.” Job satisfaction has an obvious relationship with staff retention, and Kumar (2008, p. 17) observed, “It is logical to expect that people who are satisfied in their jobs will stay and people who are not satisfied will leave.” This would not be a problem if satisfied productive employees stay

and dissatisfied unproductive employees leave (functional turnover). It would be a problem if satisfied unproductive employees remained while dissatisfied productive employees left (dysfunctional turnover). The link between employee satisfaction and organizations' performance has been uncovered (Bontis & Fitz-enz, 2002; Maister, 2001; Schleicher, Watt, & Greguras, 2004), but a dearth occurs in scholarly information addressing the relationship between employee job satisfaction and supervisor physical location. The problem is that significant work has been performed within job satisfaction; however, very little, if any work, has been performed in employee job satisfaction and employee/supervisor physical location. This is a gap that needs to be filled.

Purpose of the Study

There is a scarcity of research on the physical location of employees and supervisors and its relationship to employee job satisfaction. Most of the focus was on the link between job satisfaction and other behaviors and cognitive causes of job satisfaction (Judge & Ilies, 2004, p. 661). Specifically, this proposed study determined if employees in six employee-direct supervisor physical location categories (same office, same floor-different office, same building-different floor, same city-different building, same country-different city, and different country) reported different Spector's Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) scores. The six employee-direct supervisor physical location categories serve as the independent variables for this study while the satisfaction scores serve as dependent variable. Figure 1, below, illustrates the question that this study strives to answer: does a change in the employee-direct supervisor physical location impact the reported JSS score?

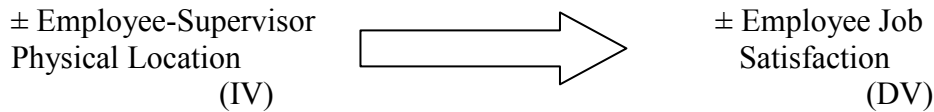


Figure 1. Relationship between employee-supervision physical location and employee satisfaction.

Rationale

The aim of this study is to add to the body of knowledge about job satisfaction and to provide useful planning information for managers and leadership in organizations. This proposed study may be useful in assisting leaders as they plan their physical layouts and help them realize the maximization of their goals. This research built on Quarstein, McAfee, and Glassman's situational occurrences theory (1992, p. 859), which theorized that job satisfaction is the manifestation of factors that occur before and after the acceptance of a job. More specifically, the focus will be placed on the working condition of employee location relative to the location of their direct supervisor.

Research Questions

This study has one research question:

R1: To what extent does the physical location of a subordinate and his or her direct supervisor have any impact on the job satisfaction experienced by the subordinate?

The hypotheses are:

Alternative Hypothesis: The physical location between an employee and his or her supervisor will affect the job satisfaction reported by the employee.

$$H_1: \mu_a \neq \mu_b \neq \mu_c \neq \mu_d \neq \mu_e \neq \mu_f \neq \mu_g$$

Null Hypothesis: The physical location between an employee and his or her supervisor will not affect the job satisfaction reported by the employee.

$$H_0: \mu_a = \mu_b = \mu_c = \mu_d = \mu_e = \mu_f = \mu_g$$

In the alternative and null hypotheses, μ represents the employee job satisfaction mean scores of each of the states of employee-supervisor location (same office, same floor-different office, same building-different floor, same city-different building, same country-different city, and different country).

For the purposes of this proposed study, the dependent variable will be employee job satisfaction, measured by Spector's Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS). The JSS was selected because it uses a multidimensional approach, was validated in numerous studies, and permission for use was granted for research purposes. The independent variables include the various employee-supervisor physical location categories (same office, same floor-different office, same building-different floor, same city-different building, same country-different city, and different country).

Significance of the Study

This study could help reduce employee turnover and increase job satisfaction rates. A determination of the correlation between employee job satisfaction and employee-supervisor physical location, if any, would be instrumental in the calculation of the placement of employees with respect to the location of their supervisors. This study will help new and existing organizations determine where to place employees and their direct supervisors to maximize employee job satisfaction, which might in turn, help maximize organizational performance in an era of continued pressure on organizations to perform well financially. This study will add to the current literature by exploring a potential undiscovered determinant of job satisfaction.

Definition of Terms

The following terms will be used throughout this research. Definitions have been provided based on commonly-accepted academic literature.

Direct Supervisor. An employee in a position of leadership over another subordinate (called the “employee”). This could also refer to someone who is a manager. According to Gomez-Mejia, Balkin, and Cardy (2007), a manager is an individual who is “in charge of others and is responsible for the timely and correct execution of actions that promote his or her unit’s success” (p. 3). The term “Supervisor” will be used interchangeably with the term “Direct Supervisor.”

Employee. Any subordinate who is inferior, in terms of power, to a supervising manager within an organization (Treadway, Ferris, Duke, Adams, & Thatcher, 2007, p. 849).

Employee Job Satisfaction. E. A. Locke’s (1976) definition of “a pleasurable or positive emotional state,” which is “a function of the perceived relationship between what one wants from a job and what one perceives it is offering” (p.6).

Physical Location. The relative physical areas the subordinate and direct supervisor call their “office” or “workspace.”

Assumptions and Limitations

It is assumed that participants of this study will understand the instructions and content of the research instruments, which will lead to participants answering the questions honestly and completely. Because the purpose of this study is to explore the relationship between employee-supervisor location and employee satisfaction, other

variables, outside of demographic data, that might affect this relationship, will not be explored.

While this study can add to the literature and research on job satisfaction and employee-supervisor relative location, it has its limitations. Limitations are factors that may affect outcomes but are out of the researcher's control (Mauch & Birch, 1998). The limitations to this study are:

1. The population is only from Zoomerang panelists. This minimizes generalizability as Zoomerang members do not represent all employees of mid-size companies, just those who belong to Zoomerang. Zoomerang members may report different perceptions than the general employee population; thus, there is no evidence that the sample of Zoomerang members is representative of employees in the United States.
2. The attitudes of the subject's responses may not be truly representative of their true attitudes. It was assumed that the respondents will be open to revealing attitudes and responses which, from their perspectives, represent the best answers to the survey questions.
3. The study will be conducted at one point in time rather than longitudinally. As a result, it will reflect how employees feel at a given moment and not over time. However, by using standard scales to measure the variables, the data from the study can become part of a cumulative record of research in job satisfaction and physical organization layout. Very few studies, if any, have examined job satisfaction as it relates to subordinate-supervisor location, but hopefully additional studies of subordinate-supervisor location and job satisfaction will be conducted to determine generalizability.

Nature of the Study

The situational occurrences theory first appeared in 1992, when Quarstein, McAfee, and Glassman stated that job satisfaction is determined by two factors: situational characteristics and situational occurrences. Quarstein, McAfee, and Glassman (1992) cited pay, supervision, working conditions, promotional opportunities, and company policies that typically are considered by the employee before accepting the job as examples of situational characteristics. The situational occurrences occur after taking a

job and may be tangible or intangible, positive (e.g. extra vacation time) or negative (e.g. faulty equipment). Within this theoretical framework, job satisfaction is a product of situational characteristics, situational occurrences and selected demographic variables.

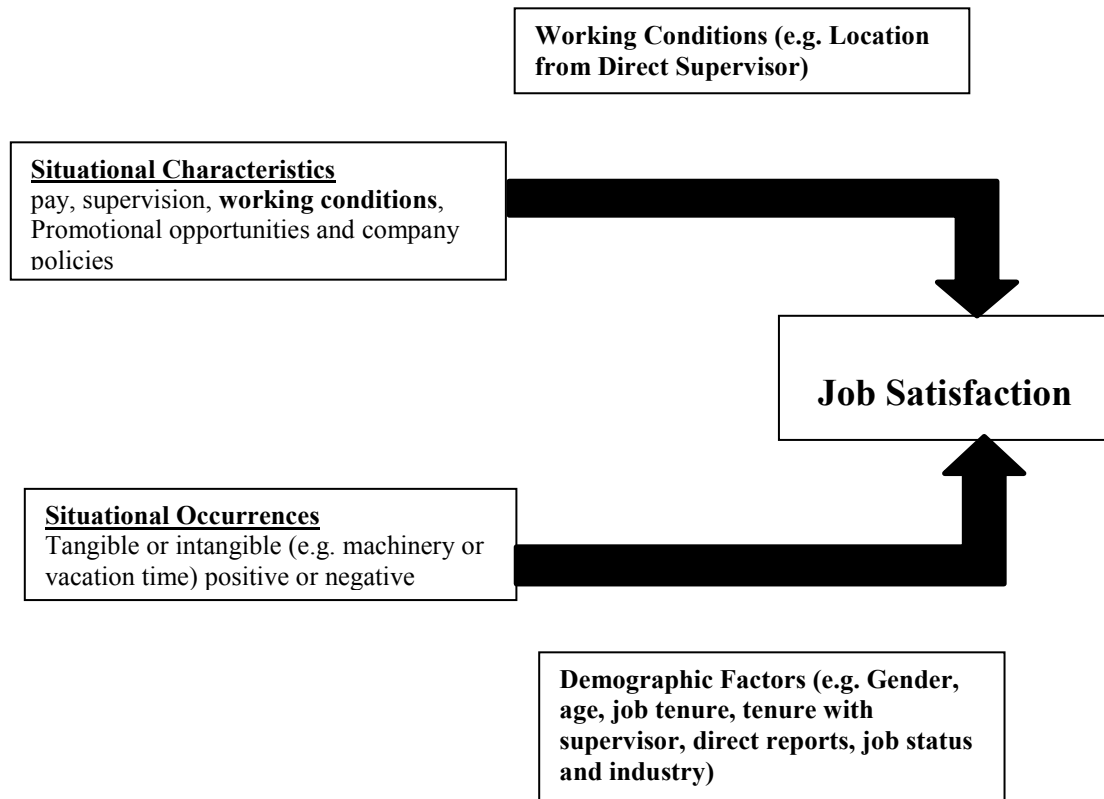


Figure 2. Conceptual Framework for this study.

The proposed study will focus mainly on the situational characteristic of working conditions, more specifically, the physical location of the employee with respect to the direct supervisor's physical location, and employee job satisfaction. Figure 2 above illustrates the conceptual framework for this study.

Organization of the Remainder of the Study

This chapter has provided details of the study. The importance of job satisfaction and its possible impact on organizational performance were discussed and based on this discussion; the proposed study's significance was presented. Chapter 2 will introduce the

empirical literature that serves as the background for this study and Chapter 3 will outline the methods to be used. Chapter 4 will discuss the data; and chapter 5 will discuss the conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The purpose of this study is to investigate the impact of employee-supervisor physical location on employee job satisfaction. This chapter will summarize the theoretical and research literature regarding employee job satisfaction and its relevance to organizational performance. The relevant literature reviewed in this chapter includes research on employee job satisfaction, the effect of employee job satisfaction on employee job performance, and ultimately the impact of employee job satisfaction on organizational performance. The satisfaction-productivity relationship remains arguable and is not the domain of this research, but it is worth pointing out that productivity is a possible end value of increasing employee satisfaction.

Locke's (1969, p. 330) statement that “overall job satisfaction is the sum of the evaluations of the discrete elements of which the job is composed” has been the accepted target sought by job satisfaction instruments. Job satisfaction is defined as “an emotional state resulting from the evaluation or appraisal of one’s job experiences (Locke, 1976, p. 6), or as a psychological state simultaneously represented by cognitive and affective indicators” (Schleicher et al., 2004, p. 170).

According to Jakobson (2005, p.1), “happy employees have a positive impact on a company’s revenues and profits.” In 2005, Oakley sampled 5,568 employees at 90 organizations and 37,036 customers in the U.S. media industry (Oakley, 2005, p. 8).

Jakobson (2005) also reported that a study by the Forum for People Performance Management and Measurement based at Northwestern University “broke ground by focusing on employees who do not have direct contact with customers” (p. 9). Effective communication between employees and management affects employee satisfaction positively and leads to employee engagement are among Jakobson’s key findings. Engaged employees generate more repeat customers with higher levels of satisfaction. Satisfied customers are less expensive to serve, use the product more often and as a result, are more profitable (Jakobson, 2005, p. 9).

Considering the role that each employee may play in a company’s success, business leaders need to consider investing in initiatives that focus on employee motivation (Judge et al., 2001, p. 392). Employees have the potential to determine the future of the organization — including whether it fails or succeeds (Judge et al., 2001, p. 393). Organizations may want to consider responding to and satisfying employee concerns the same way they would pursue satisfying their client base.

Before addressing the issue of employee and direct supervisor location, it is important to explore the link between employee job satisfaction and organizational performance. Although it would appear fruitless to study employee job satisfaction if it were determined that employee job satisfaction had no impact on organizational performance, employee job satisfaction can be an end value in itself.

Seashore and Taber (1975, p. 333) discovered that, in addition to being important to employees and employers, employee job satisfaction benefits society as well. Specifically, Seashore and Taber state that the measurement of job satisfaction as a social indicator may have three roles.

1. Job satisfaction represents a valued product of society – a component of the psychological gross national product (GNP) or overall well-being.
2. Job satisfaction also provides a monitoring and diagnostic aid for early warning of societal dislocations, policy or program failure, and slowly developing society changes.
3. Lastly, job satisfaction provides a significant component in the theories and modes to be used in the formulation of social policy and programs.

Job satisfaction is important for individuals and leaders in helping them make career decisions and discover solutions to workplace problems. The uncertainty and instability in the changing and demanding workplace may contribute to disconnection with the organization and, therefore, to more individuals seeking job satisfaction from their workplace (Gürbüz, 2007, p. 38). Employees who have higher job satisfaction are usually absent less, less likely to leave, more likely to display organizational citizenship behavior (Tsai & Wu, 2008, p. 66). Also, when employees remain long enough to know customers, suppliers, and their fellow employees, operations tend to run much more smoothly (Tsai & Wu, 2008, p. 63).

Job Satisfaction Theories

Job satisfaction research has been around for a relatively long period of time, beginning with Mayo's (1930) study at the Western Electric Hawthorne Plant in the early 1930s. Within each of the aforementioned satisfaction theories are components that are influenced by the employee-direct supervisor relationship.

Locke's (1976) theory views job satisfaction as "a collection of attitudes about aspects of the job and states employees can be satisfied with some aspects of a job while simultaneously being dissatisfied with others" (p. 1300), and regards job values and needs as influences of job satisfaction and job satisfaction resulting from perceptions of

the job (Gunn & Holdaway, 1986, p. 42). Locke, whose model states that job satisfaction is the discrepancy between what one wants in a job and what one has in that job, described job satisfaction as the favorable attitude of a worker toward their job (Robertson & Bean, 1998, p. 167). Environmental conditions such as pay and promotional policies are important determinants of job satisfaction, and if the job permits employees to attain valued outcomes then job satisfaction will occur (Kemery, Mossholder, & Bedeian, 1987, p. 15). Locke's (1976) theory states that how much one values a given work facet (e.g. the degree of autonomy in a position) determines how satisfied or dissatisfied one becomes when expectations are or are not met. For example, if one employee values autonomy in the workplace and while another employee is indifferent about autonomy, the first employee would be more satisfied in a position that offered a higher degree of autonomy and less satisfied in a position with little or no autonomy compared to the other employee (Locke, 1976).

According to Balzer, Kihm, Smith, Irwin, Bachiochi, Robie, Sinar, and Parra (2000), job satisfaction concerns practitioners and researchers for humanitarian, economic, and theoretical reasons. Organizations prefer individuals to be satisfied with their jobs because job satisfaction affects their life satisfaction and mental and physical health. For economic reasons, organizations prefer individuals to be satisfied with their jobs because of the monetary savings as a byproduct of lower absenteeism, lower turnover, and fewer job-related accidents. Job satisfaction is viewed as a driver of job motivation and work behavior such as work attendance, quality standards maintenance, work methods improvements, and worker cooperation (Balzer et al., 2000). In addition, job satisfaction arises from work behaviors that might lead to rewards, such as wages,

desired responsibilities, status, social identity, and self-esteem (Brunetto & Farr-Wharton, 2002), that increase satisfaction (Balzer et al., 2000).

According to Winterton (2004, p. 376), motivation theories offer different frameworks to analyze job satisfaction; content motivation theories help form the historical foundation of motivation and job satisfaction and address the rewards workers expect to receive from their work. The two most-known content theories are Herzberg's Two-Factor theory and Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, while the two most-known process theories are expectancy and reinforcement theory. Herzberg developed the two-factor theory of job satisfaction, also referred to as the motivation-hygiene theory, which explored satisfying and dissatisfying workplace conditions (Timmreck, 2001, p. 49). Herzberg discovered that certain factors led to worker dissatisfaction and others to worker satisfaction and believed that dissatisfaction resulted from perceived deficiency in the work environment, reward system, and supervision. Satisfaction, on the other hand, resulted from perceived satisfaction from the work, advancement, and attainment of personal attributes such as growth, recognition, and responsibility (McCracken, 2001, p. 59). Herzberg's theory is based on two types of needs - hygiene and motivational - in which the former are extrinsic and include salary, status, and security, and the latter are intrinsic and include personal growth, achievement, and recognition. Herzberg's theory states that, if hygiene needs are not met the worker will become dissatisfied and unmotivated. However if hygiene factors are met they prevent, dissatisfaction but are not sufficient to motivate or satisfy and both hygiene and motivation factors must be present to create job satisfaction (Portis, 1969, p. 54).

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs states that each person has an inner hierarchy of needs. A person can focus on higher-level needs only when lower-level needs are satisfied (Maslow, 1999). Maslow's theory is relevant for management because managers must understand that the fulfillment of basic needs is necessary to motivate people (Maslow, 1999). Figure 3 displays the application of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs to relevant business examples.



Figure 3. Griffin and Moorhead (2007) provide general and organizational equivalents to Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs. From *Organizational behavior: Managing people and organizations* (8th ed.), by R. W. Griffin and G. Moorhead, 2007, New York, NY: Houghton Mifflin Company. Copyright 2007 by Houghton Mifflin Company. Reprinted with permission.

Belilos (1997) explains Maslow's hierarchy of needs as applied to workers as follows:

1. Physiological Needs – includes the basic physical needs such as the ability to acquire food, shelter, clothing, and other basics to survive through a base salary.
2. Safety Needs – includes a safe and non-threatening work environment, job security, and safe equipment and installations.

3. Social Needs – includes contact and friendship with fellow workers, social activities, and opportunities.
4. Ego – includes recognition, acknowledgement, and rewards.
5. Self-Actualization – includes realizing one's dreams and potential, and reaching the heights of one's gifts and talents (para. 5).

Herzberg's theory is similar to Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs in that Herzberg's hygiene needs relate to Maslow's lower-order needs and Herzberg's motivational needs relate to Maslow's higher-order needs. Maslow (1954) concluded that lower-level needs had to be fulfilled before the higher-level needs could be activated. He believed that people would move to the next level once the majority of their lower-level needs were met. It is only when these needs are satisfied that workers are morally, emotionally, and physically ready to satisfy the needs of the employer and the customers. For example, if an unemployed person started a job in July and became self-sufficient by December (satisfying base pay, pension, and friends at work), there is a possibility the person would start to focus on career development (job title and challenging work).

Hackman and Oldham (1975, p. 160) developed a job satisfaction model that relates work design and job satisfaction for knowledge workers. Their model draws from that of Herzberg's and proposes causal relationships among intrinsic work features, psychological states of the individual, and work outcomes (Conley & Levinson, 1993). Hackman and Oldham's model identifies task identity, task significance, skill variety, job feedback, and autonomy as five core job characteristics that underlie job satisfaction. Hackman and Oldham's model identifies task identity, task significance, skill variety, job feedback, and autonomy as five core job characteristics that underlie job satisfaction, and

jobs that score high on all five of these characteristics lead to high levels of job satisfaction for knowledge workers (Brody, DeMarco, & Lovrich, 2002). The proposed study will examine the job feedback and autonomy facets of the Hackman and Oldham model through investigating employee/supervisor interaction.

Another theory was developed by Lawler and Porter (1968), who believed that job satisfaction was driven by how much a person obtained verses what they feel they deserved. Satisfaction is determined by the difference between the exact amounts a person received and what they expected and dissatisfaction occurs when a person receives less or more than what was expected. The responses to the questionnaire for this proposed study will reflect what the respondent expected compared to the level of satisfaction they received.

Organizational Success Factors

Along with Porter's pillars of efficiency, quality, innovation, and customer responsiveness, "market orientation, learning orientation, entrepreneurial management style, and organizational flexibility are highly correlated with organizational performance" (Barrett, Balloun, & Weinstein, 2005, p. 16). Angle and Perry (1981, p. 3) identified five components of organizational commitment and effectiveness: lower rates of employee turnover, lower employee tardiness, lower absenteeism, lower operating expense, and greater organizational adaptability. March and Simon (cited in Angle & Perry, 1981, p. 1) posited that employee contribution to organizational success manifests itself in the forms of production and participation. The proposed study aims to discover a component of satisfaction which contributes to lower rates of employee turnover, lower

employee tardiness, and lower absenteeism which are the core tenants of organizational commitment.

Employee Motivations and Attitudes

According to Fishbein and Ajzen (1975, p. 6), “an attitude is a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favorable or unfavorable manner with respect to a given object.” A positive job attitude generally “leads individuals to contribute rather than withhold desirable inputs from their work roles (Harrison et al., 2006, p.320)” and “satisfied workers tend to engage in desirable organizational citizenship behaviors, such as altruistic behaviors that exceed the formal requirements of a job” (Ellickson & Logson, 2002, p. 343). Dissatisfied workers show an increased propensity for counterproductive behaviors, such as withdrawal, burnout, and workplace aggression (Ellickson & Logson, 2002, p. 343). If an employee is dissatisfied with their job, there may be an adverse effect on job performance (McNeese-Smith, 1999). Poor job performance may lead to poor service performance by the company, as many consumers report dissatisfaction with the quality of service they receive. Happy employees are more likely to provide better customer service. Thus, as Weiss (2006) argues: “since the ambitions, hopes, and goals of employees are sensitive to motivation, employees should be encouraged to pursue their desires and to gain satisfaction from their work” (p. 15). Results of the proposed study will help organizations produce satisfied employees and cultivate organizational citizenship behaviors.

When employees are inspired, there is “no limit to the increase in productivity that can be achieved” (Weiss, 2006, p. 15). A similar view can be found in a study by Staw and Barsade (1993), which suggested that positive attitudes generated by sources

such as employee job satisfaction leads to better decision-making. Staw and Barsade studied two groups of MBA students: one with negative attitudes and one with positive attitudes - and concluded that the happier students “made better decisions and displayed more evidence of accurate information processing in the managerial situations” (Staw, Sutton, & Pelled, 1994, p.55).

Hunt (2002, p. 155) observes that satisfied employees demonstrate high levels of work ethic, achievement, attendance and courteousness, and employees with high levels of work ethic usually look for ways to contribute to the job. In addition, employees with high levels of achievement are interested in improving their skills and abilities and take advantage of opportunities to learn new competencies and advance to positions with greater levels of responsibility, while employees with good attendance records adhere to work schedules and are dependable, which adds to workplace consistency and cohesion. Courteous employees are easy to get along with and avoid being rude, insensitive, or mean to customers (Hunt, 2002, p. 155). The proposed study aims to uncover an element that contributes to a satisfied employee, which in turn leads to courteous and ethical employee.

Impact of Employee Dissatisfaction

According to Ostroff (1992, p. 964), “collaborative effort that is directed toward the organization's objectives is necessary for achievement of organizational goals, and unhappy employees cannot effectively participate in such efforts.” “Satisfied employees will be more likely to engage in collaborative effort and accept organizational goals that can increase productivity, whereas dissatisfied employees either may fail to work

collaboratively or may work collaboratively but divert effort away from the achievement of organizational goals” (Ostroff, 1992, p. 964).

The proposed study looks to help organizations avoid low levels of job satisfaction. Low levels of job satisfaction can, according to Camp (1994), create one of four types of undesirable behavior. First, dissatisfied workers may attempt to steal, use work time to pursue personal tasks, and moonlight. Second, employees may withdraw psychologically from the job by skipping meetings, drinking on the job or wandering around attempting to look busy. Third, dissatisfied workers may withdraw from the job by missing work, quitting or retiring early. Finally, dissatisfied workers may conduct behaviors to alter the work situation including engaging in union activity, job transfer, or demotion.

In a bid to increase organizational performance and individual productivity, human resource management in both the private and public sectors have targeted absenteeism and retention (Carsten & Spector 1987; Eby & Freeman 1999; Locke, 1976;). Dissatisfaction is consistently associated with higher levels of labor turnover (Bassett, 1994), the explanation most frequently offered for these correlations being the likelihood that people escape, even if only temporarily, from unpleasant work circumstances (Bassett, 1994). However, Bassett (1994) warns that the correlations “are typically moderate and by no means explain all of the variability in observed absence or turnover rates” (p. 62) as many other factors may influence the relationship. Mossholder, Settoon, and Henagan (2005, p. 610) observed that workers with fewer interpersonal ties were more likely to quit and exhibit withdrawal behaviors like lateness, absenteeism, and turnover. At any one time, 25 percent of an organization’s employees are fully prepared to

leave the organization (Corsini, 2005, p. 12), and so many employers are finding it harder to retain their employees (Allen & Griffeth, 1999, p. 525). The results of the proposed study will help employers retain their employees by identifying a potential source of employee job satisfaction (the location of the employee compared to the employer).

Job Satisfaction and Turnover

Testing theories about how job dissatisfaction progresses into withdrawal has dominated turnover research for over 30 years (Hom & Kinicki, 2001, p. 975). There are two types of turnover: functional and dysfunctional. However, functional turnover, where the poorest performing employees are leaving and the highest performing employees are staying could actually benefit the organization in some circumstances. Conversely, dysfunctional turnover, where the highest performers are leaving and the lowest performing employees are staying, could be quite devastating (Allen & Griffeth, 1999, p. 529). The goal of this proposed study is to help organizations increase functional turnover and curtail dysfunctional turnover as it relates employee job satisfaction.

Rouse (2001, p. 282) described the sequential process an employee progresses through when deciding to leave the organization. This process includes: evaluation of the existing job; experienced job satisfaction and dissatisfaction; thoughts of quitting; intention to search for other options; search for options; evaluation of options; comparison of options versus the current job; and finally the intention to quit, which leads to quitting or staying. Once an employee ponders quitting, they compare the benefits of a new job versus the costs of quitting their current job. The costs of quitting can include loss of seniority and benefits along with time and energy used during a job

search (Rouse, 2001). Satisfied employees, the goal of this proposed research, can save organizations the costs related to employee turnover.

In studies of turnover in the organizational literature, job satisfaction is the key psychological construct leading to turnover (Dickter, Roznowski, & Harrison, 1996, p. 706; Hwang & Kuo, 2006, p. 254) and many meta-analytic findings have shown a demonstrated correlation between job satisfaction and turnover (Trevor, 2001). Dickter et al. (1996), for instance, observe that, “among the determinants of turnover, job satisfaction plays a major role in most theories of turnover and operates as the key psychological predictor in most turnover studies” (p. 711). “It is expected that job satisfaction would be more strongly related to turnover early on in one’s career, because employees become invested in staying as time progresses (Dickter et al., 1996, p. 706; Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974; Rusbult & Farrell, 1983, p. 435).” This result indicates the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover risk is negative. Despite early researchers' contention about the weak relationship between job satisfaction and employee productivity (Brayfield & Crockett 1955; Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985; Petty et al., 1984), more recent studies reveal that satisfied employees are more likely to have low absenteeism and turnover (Carsten & Spector 1987; Tett & Meyer 1993). High job satisfaction has also been associated with good mental health whereas low job satisfaction has been associated with work injuries and absences (Gürbüz, 2007). Organizations that desire higher attendance rates, fewer turnovers, and fewer injuries will benefit from finding ways to satisfy their employees.

Arguments for the Job Satisfaction-Performance Link

During the 1950s, organizational theorists endorsed the prescription that a happy worker is a productive worker (Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985, p. 269). Due to this belief, managerial techniques such as job enrichment, participative decision-making and autonomous work groups became popular. The thinking was that worker satisfaction can be increased and lead to improved performance (Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985, p. 269). Fisher (1980, p. 608) stated that the intrinsic appeal of the satisfaction-performance relationship might be sufficient to warrant further study. Positive emotions on the job can have a favorable impact on how the employee persists on the job, how coworkers view the employee, and how the employee helps his or her coworker (Staw et al., 1994, p. 51).

The frequently cited review of Vroom's 1964 study may be more pessimistically represented than is appropriate because only three of twenty-three correlations that he cited were negative (Organ, 1977, p. 48). According to Organ (1977, p. 48), the probability of obtaining 20 of 23 positive correlations entirely by chance if no functional relationship existed between satisfaction and performance would be only .0002, and Iaffaldano and Muchinsky (1985, p. 251) admit that the assumption of job satisfaction and job performance being related has much intuitive appeal. However, Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, and Capwell (1957) stressed that although the correlations they compiled were generally low, the correlation of satisfaction-to-worker output warranted further attention.

A long-standing debate persists about the nature and the strength of relationships between job attitudes and job performance (Harrison, Newman, & Roth, 2006, p. 305). Harrison et al. (2006), ask, "how important are job attitudes for predicting and

understanding job performance in particular, and work-role-directed behaviors in general?” (p. 305). Organ (1988) suggested that the fascination with the job satisfaction-performance argument comes from the “strong intuitive belief among practitioners... that job satisfaction is indeed an important determinant of productivity” (p. 547).

Past research has indicated a positive but small relationship between job satisfaction and job performance (Allen & Griffeth, 1999; Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985; Katzell, Thompson, & Guzzo, 1992; Podsakoff & Williams, 1986). However, a more recent meta-analysis by Judge, Thoresen, Bono, and Patton (1998), which included a much larger sample size of 295 independent studies (with a total N greater than 50,000), calculated a corrected correlation between performance and job satisfaction of 0.30 and concluded that there is definitely a relationship between job satisfaction and job performance, and Christen, Iyer, and Soberman (2006) also detected a significant, positive effect of job performance on job satisfaction. However, Judge et al. (2001) pointed out a number of flaws in Iaffaldano and Muchinsky’s 1985 meta-analyses. First, they believed that Iaffaldano and Muchinsky’s work was susceptible to publication bias because they did not include doctoral dissertations, working papers, unpublished data, and technical reports. Second, Judge et al. (2001) observed that Iaffaldano and Muchinsky’s (1985) use of multiple correlations from a single study violated the independence assumption of meta-analysis and, consequently, biased their results. Lastly, Judge et al. (2001) noted that “Iaffaldano and Muchinsky’s .17 correlation between satisfaction and performance is actually the average of the correlation between pay satisfaction and job performance, coworker satisfaction and job performance, promotion satisfaction and job performance, and so forth. This approach is not an appropriate

estimate of the relationship between overall job satisfaction and job performance” (p. 382).

Even if there is a definite and significant relationship between job satisfaction and job performance, what is the relationship? Judge et al. (2001) theorized that there are seven different ways in which job satisfaction and job performance relationship has been specified. The seven models are illustrated in Figure 4.

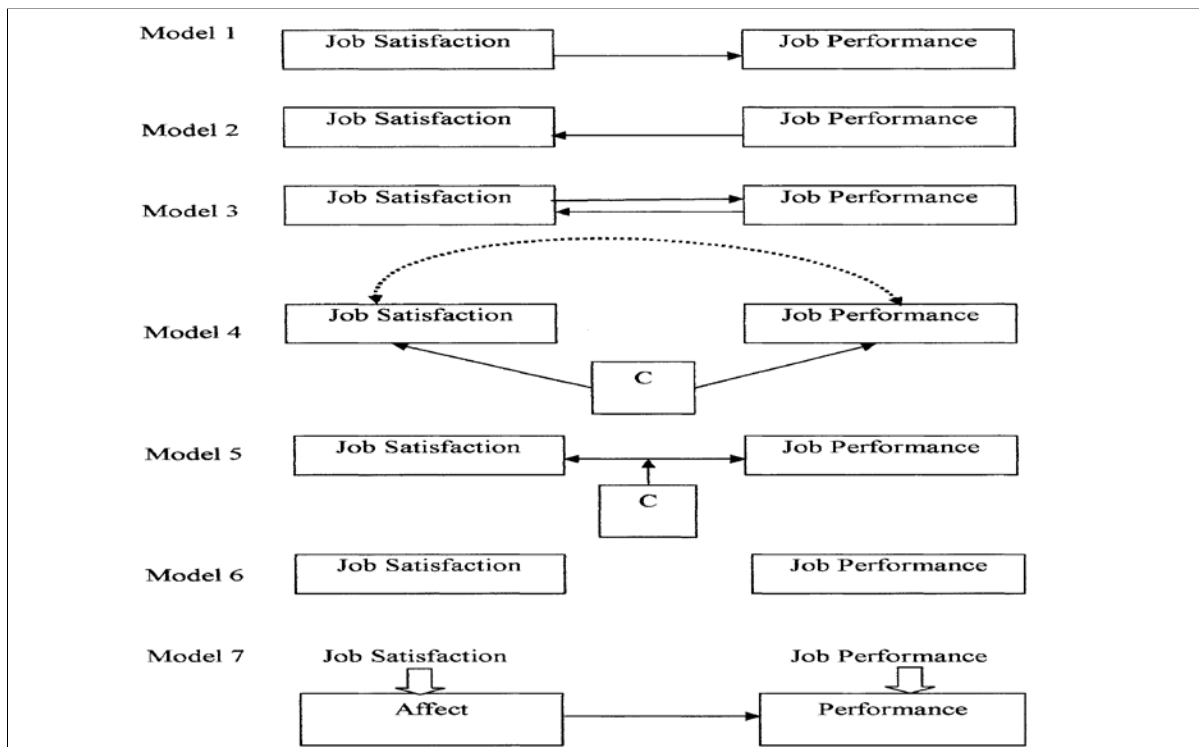


Figure 4. Judge, Thoresen, Bono, and Patton (2001) specify seven different ways in which job satisfaction and job performance are related. From The job satisfaction-job performance relationship: A qualitative and quantitative review, by T. A. Judge, C. J. Thoresen, J. E. Bono, and G. K. Patton, 2001, Washington, DC: Psychological Bulletin. Copyright 2001 by American Psychological Association. Reprinted with permission.

The seven models explaining the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance are:

1. Job satisfaction causes job performance;

2. Job performance causes job satisfaction;
3. Job satisfaction and job performance are reciprocally related;
4. The relationship between job satisfaction and job performance is spurious;
5. The relationship between job satisfaction and job performance is moderated by other variables;
6. There is no relationship between job satisfaction and job performance; and
7. Alternative conceptualizations of job satisfaction and/or job performance.

The predominant model that reflects the causal effect of job satisfaction on job performance, as it reflects in this study, is Judge et al.'s (2001) model 1: Job satisfaction causes job performance. The model espouses the concept of a causal effect between job satisfaction on job performance and is "one of the oldest specifications of the relationship" (Henderson, 2007, p.15). This effect is attributed to the human relations movement and is the cornerstone of the employee satisfaction–supervisor physical location issues discussed within this study. The aim of this proposed study is to determine if an element as simple as the location of the employee with respect to their supervisor can cause a positive change in reported job satisfaction scores.

Arguments against the Job Satisfaction-Performance Link

Early literature on the relationship between job satisfaction and employee performance found the connection to be weak (Brayfield & Crockett, 1955; Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985; Vroom, 1964). Organ and Near (1985) observed that a majority of the industrial psychology and management literature, up to around 1950, speaks very little about the term "job satisfaction" and Côté (1999) contested that, despite the fact that the satisfaction-and-performance relationship is one of the most studied questions in

organizational psychology, the findings are still inconclusive. Côté (1999) further suggested that there was only a modest positive correlation between job satisfaction and job performance and echoed early qualitative reviews that found “only weak support for the relationship between job satisfaction, job performance” (Brayfield & Crockett, 1955, p. 400).

For years, researchers (Brayfield & Crockett, 1955; Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985; Petty et al., 1984) disputed the extent to which increased job satisfaction leads to improved performance. Iaffaldano and Muchinsky (1985) concluded that there was only a weakly manifested relationship between employee job satisfaction and performance while Brayfield and Crockett (1955) found no evidence of a relationship between job satisfaction and performance. With respect to the assumption of satisfaction predicting performance, Steers (1981) stated that “the fact that workers are satisfied does not mean they will necessarily produce more, only that they are satisfied” (p. 309).

Vroom (1964), who reviewed 20 studies relating satisfaction and performance conducted between 1949 and 1963, detected correlations ranging from -.31 to .86, with a median correlation of .14. “Vroom concluded that the relatively low correlations held for both individual and group level analyses and that they were consistent regardless of the performance criterion employed” (Petty et al., 1984, p. 713). Subsequent quantitative reviews also failed to show job attitudes as having strong predictive utility, with one meta-analysis reporting a lackluster value ($p = .17$) as the best estimate of the correlation between satisfaction and performance (Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985). Moreover, the evidence employed to support the premise that satisfaction leads to performance has been non-experimental in design and did not show causality (Schwab & Cummings, 1970).

Schwab and Cummings (1970) stressed that relationships between satisfaction and performance were neither direct nor particularly strong (Schwab & Cummings, 1970).

Bassett echoed Schwab and Cummings:

There is little support to the claim that a satisfied worker is a superior producer. At best, there is only a trivial level of statistical correlation. The job satisfaction research literature has been thoroughly reviewed at intervals of about a decade in the past half century. Brayfield and Crockett (1955), Vroom (1964), and Locke (1976) each summarized the field extensively and observed the limited influence of satisfaction on work output (1994, p.61).

Iaffaldano and Muchinsky (1985) reaffirmed the limited causal relationship between worker satisfaction and work output, noting that the “empirical support for the satisfaction-performance relation does not approximate the degree to which this relation has been espoused in theories of organizational design” (p. 270). Iaffaldano and Muchinsky (1985) observed that “only eight of the 217 satisfaction-performance correlations exceeded .44, and this degree of association leaves 80% of the variance in one variable unexplained by the other” (p.269). Bateman and Organ (1983) argued that any notion that satisfaction causes performance is nothing more than “naive folk wisdom” unsupported by empirical record (p. 587), while Iaffaldano and Muchinsky (1985) concluded that high productivity and worker satisfaction form only “an illusory correlation” (p. 270). Organ (1988) observed that management scholars were not able to “let the job satisfaction-performance hypothesis fade away” (p. 547).

Managers may think that efforts to improve the quality of working life will compete with economic performance, while the rank-and-file employee may see efforts to improve productivity as exploitative and detrimental to their job security (Katzell, Yankelovich, Fein, Ornati, & Nash 1975, p. 71). While conceding that, under certain

conditions, improvements in job satisfaction will contribute to productivity, early researchers believed that the relationship between job satisfaction and productivity was so weak that efforts to improve worker satisfaction were more likely to leave productivity unchanged or at best improve it marginally (Katzell et al., 1975, p. 71).

A meta-analysis by Iaffaldano and Muchinsky (1985, p. 261) obtained a correlation of .17 between job satisfaction and job performance, a finding that has been widely cited as the primary indicator that there is no meaningful relationship between job satisfaction and employee performance. A .20 correlation is required to establish meaningful relationships between constructs such as job satisfaction and job performance (Hurtz & Donovan, 2000, p. 871). However, Schmitt, Gooding, Noe, and Kirsch (1984) assert that a correlation of .21 was too low to consider personality a useful predictor of job performance, while Mount and Barrick (1995) raised the standards even further by suggesting that correlations below .30 are questionable. Iaffaldano and Muchinsky's (1985) findings were very similar to Vroom's (1964) mean correlation of .14. Twenty years and at least 200 satisfaction-performance correlations later, Iaffaldano and Muchinsky (1985) observed nearly identical average correlations of .146. The eight correlations in Iaffaldano and Muchinsky's 1985 meta-analysis that were greater than .44 were determined to be due to chance. Iaffaldano and Muchinsky (1985, p. 254) reviewed 74 empirical studies published in 70 articles, with a subject sample size of 12,192, and providing 217 satisfaction-performance correlations included in the meta-analysis. The inclusion of several correlations from a single study does suggest a lack of independence in the data (Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985), which might have skewed Iaffaldano and Muchinsky's findings.

The relationship between job performance and job satisfaction is of central interest to research in organizational psychology (Christen et al., 2006, p. 137) and to this proposed study. Empirical research suggests that the link between these constructs is weak at best (Christen et al., 2006, p. 137) as “decades of research have failed to find a significant or consistent link between job performance and job satisfaction” (p. 147). Brayfield and Crockett (1955) reported that there was insufficient evidence that employee attitudes “bear any simple ... or for that matter, appreciable ... relationship to performance on the job” (p. 408).

Nathan Bowling specializes in industrial and organizational psychology and observed “that a cause and effect relationship does not exist between job satisfaction and performance” (Bowling, p. 180). According to Bowling, “the two are related because both satisfaction and performance are the result of employee personality characteristics, such as self-esteem, emotional stability, extroversion and conscientiousness” (Bowling, p. 180). Bowling’s findings are based on reviewing data from several thousand employees from several hundred different organizations, mostly in the United States, compiled over several decades involving. According to Bowling:

Just because two things are related doesn't mean that one causes the other. For example, there is a relationship between the amount of ice cream sold on a given day and the crime rate for that day. On days when ice cream sales are high, the number of crimes committed will also tend to be high. But this doesn't mean that ice cream sales cause crime. Rather, ice cream sales and crime are related because each is the result of the outdoor temperature. Similarly, satisfaction and performance are related because each is the result of employee personality. (cited in Nauert, 2007, p. 1)

Impact of Job Satisfaction on the Organization

Some researchers hypothesized that the stronger the relationship between satisfaction and performance (Lawler & Porter, 1967), the more effective the organization, unless satisfaction is low. The viewpoint that satisfaction causes performance has its roots in human relations theory, which emerged from the Hawthorne studies of the late 1920s and early 1930s (Schwab & Cummings, 1970). Vroom (1964) stated that most people associated with the human relations movement assumed that job satisfaction was positively associated with job performance. Furthermore, the human relations movement is an attempt to increase productivity by satisfying the needs of employees.

Côté (1999), despite his inconclusive findings, did concede that “happy employees are productive” (p. 68). Satisfied employees usually work harder and better than frustrated ones (Etzioni, 1964) and employee satisfaction and other sentiments influence the development of routine patterns of interaction (Ostroff, 1992). Positive attitudes result in patterns that achieve the organization's objectives (Roethlisberger, 1959). Organ (1977) posited that the satisfaction–performance link is the product of a social exchange in which employees given some form of social gift experience satisfaction and then feel obligated to reciprocate in the form of increased productivity. Maister (2001), through a study of 5,589 individuals from 29 companies in 15 countries, determined that employee attitudes were “measurably correlated” with the success of an organization, while Petty et al. (1984) discovered a higher and more consistent correlation between overall job satisfaction and performance were indicated than those previously reported. Employees have attitudes or viewpoints about many aspects of their

jobs, their careers, and their organizations and thus, increases in job satisfaction and reduction in turnover have been seen to increase organizational productivity (Trevor, 2001). Conversely, there can be a decrease in productivity if employees feel disengaged from what is going on in the organization on a daily basis (Trevor, 2001).

“Satisfaction and attitudes,” according to Ostroff (1992, p. 964), “related to organizational effectiveness and can explain, in part, the failure to find satisfaction–performance relationships at the individual level.” Ostroff (1992) also suggests that “the definition of performance in individual-level studies may have been restricted too narrowly” (p. 964). Performance measures normally do not include attendance, predictability, compliance, following of rules, cooperation, drug use and sabotage, which may also be important (Fisher, 1980; Organ, 1977). This suggests that a wider range of performance-related variables should be included in the measures of organizational effectiveness.

Ostroff (1992) proposes that even though “it may be difficult to relate satisfaction and performance at the individual level, the organizational-level relationship with satisfaction may be stronger” (p. 965). Many theorists share Ostroff’s (1992) this viewpoint despite the fact that organizational-level analysis for examining relationships between satisfaction, attitudes and performance is unclear. The results of Petty, McGee, and Cavender’s 1984 study indicated that the relationship between individual, overall job satisfaction and individual job performance was stronger and more consistent than that reported by Brayfield and Crockett (1955) and Vroom (1964), and Organ (1988) argued that “satisfaction more generally correlates with organizational pro-social or citizenship-type behaviors than with traditional productivity or in-role performance” (p. 547). Organ

(1981) suggested that the original satisfaction-causes-performance notion is based on a broader conceptualization of performance, including such organizationally valued behaviors as following the rules, not making waves, regular attendance, and generalized compliance. Petty et al. (1984) concluded that results of previous research, though not impressive, are sufficiently positive to warrant an open mind, new perspectives and continuing research on the issue.

The results of Petty, McGee, and Cavender's 1984 study noted a positive correlation between individual job satisfaction and job performance. Through a meta-analysis of 15 studies ($N = 3,140$), they obtained an average correlation of .41 and stated that the size of the mean correlation that was reported in the "study between overall satisfaction and job performance is impressive" (1984, p. 719). Judge et al. (2001) argued, "The time has come for researchers to reconsider the satisfaction-performance relationship" (p. 393). Past researchers have long made a distinction between the affective components of attitudes, cognitive components of attitudes, and job satisfaction (Schleicher et al., 2004). A consistent job satisfaction scale that reconciles both the affective and cognitive aspects of job satisfaction will help moderate the job satisfaction-performance relationship (Schleicher et al., 2004).

A study of the satisfaction-performance link at the organizational level would show that organizations that have more satisfied employees are more productive and profitable than organizations whose employees are less satisfied (Ostroff, 1992). Improve the morale of a company and the corresponding production will improve (Schwab & Cummings, 1970). According to Roethlisberger (1959), effective organizations need to be able to generate a profit as well as keep individuals and groups working effectively

together toward the organization's goals. Dunning and Story (1991) acknowledged that positive people actually do experience more favorable outcomes, which disputes earlier claims that the relationship was illusory. Additional researchers have endorsed the concept that employee satisfaction and attention to workers' physical and emotional needs lead to increased organizational productivity (Likert, 1961; McGregor, 1960).

This proposed study will proceed with the concept that employee satisfaction, in combination with demographic variables, contributes to job and organizational performance. More specifically, it will focus on the impact of the employee-direct supervisor location on employee satisfaction, but will attempt to isolate the impact of the demographic variable employee-direct supervisor location on job satisfaction. Kidd's (2006) model, figure 5, illustrates the overall philosophy of this study, that is, to seek to discover a relationship between employee-supervisor physical location and employee job satisfaction.

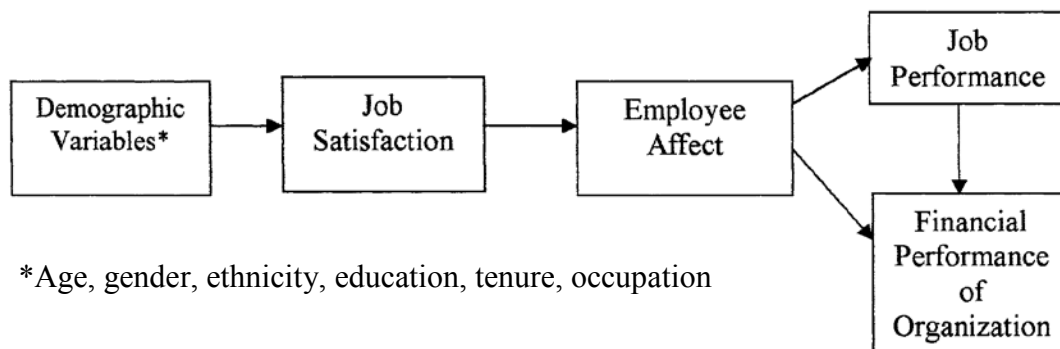


Figure 5. Kidd's Conceptual Model. From An exploration of the impact of employee job satisfaction, affect, and performance on organizational financial performance in the health care industry, by C. A. Kidd, 2006, Louisville, KY: C. A. Kidd. Copyright 2006 by C. A. Kidd. Reprinted with permission.

Kidd's Conceptual Model found demographic variables, job satisfaction, and employee affect are predictors of job performance and financial performance.

Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment

Job satisfaction and organizational commitment have theoretical and empirical commonalities (Harrison et al., 2006, p. 306), as satisfaction and commitment are the primary attitudinal precursors of intentions to quit-and-search behavior (Allen & Griffeth, 1999). Attitude is the common thread between satisfaction and commitment (Harrison et al., 2006). Cetin (2006, p. 86) hypothesized that an individual satisfied with his or her job feels more committed to his or her job. The more he or she feels responsible for the organization the more productive he or she becomes for the organization. Thus, Cetin sees job satisfaction, occupational and organizational commitments as strongly related.

Bateman and Organ's (1983) term "citizenship behavior" denotes helpful, constructive gestures exhibited by organization members and valued or appreciated by officials, but not related directly to individual productivity. Bateman and Organ stress that:

If job satisfaction represents the chronic or modal mood state of an organizational member, and then presumably those most satisfied should have a characteristic predisposition toward pro-social gestures within the organization environment, and among those pro-social acts would number various forms of citizenship behavior (Bateman and Organ, 1983, p. 588).

Supervisors and Employee Satisfaction

Supervisors are an integral component of an organization's desire to maximize profits and growth, and influence directly how employees perform their jobs (Weiss, 2003, p. 3). Employee performance can either improve or deteriorate based on the relationship with the supervisor (Weiss, 2003, p. 4). Hopkins (1983) observed that the nature of supervision is "the relationship between the individual employee and the

immediate supervisor. Employees who enjoyed a supportive relationship with their immediate supervisor experienced higher levels of job satisfaction than those who did not” (Ellickson & Logson, 2002, p. 345).

The superior-subordinate relationship has, for a long time, been a focus of discussion and investigation. In this age of intense inter-company rivalry, the dynamics of this relationship can make or break an organization (Barrett et al., 2005) and, within the body of literature, significant emphasis has been placed on the dynamics associated with the relationship between the supervisor and subordinate (Schraeder & Simpson, 2006, p. 34). Hulme (2006, p. 22) posits that the key to inspiring a great performance from people lies with leaders in how they behave, in how their beliefs shape their own actions, and in how well they instill passion and pride in their subordinates. Leaders of the top employers are able to motivate their employees and are both open and accessible. Supervisors who communicate clearly, offer frequent feedback, and ask opinions are more likely to produce positive employee perceptions (Hulme, 2006, p. 22) and effective communication of employees with their supervisors is significantly associated with job satisfaction (Kim, 2002). Supervisory communication is also considered a primary means to link the participative strategic planning process to employees' job satisfaction (Kim, 2002).

Vroom (1964), citing a 1957 meta-analysis by Herzberg et al. that declared supervision to be a more important component of job satisfaction than security, job content, working conditions, opportunities for advancement, and wages, posited that, in many situations, organizations want to report a high level of job satisfaction. Vroom (1964) theorized that if supervisors are considerate in their relationship with subordinates,

employees will have increased job satisfaction and there would be lower rates of turnover, grievances, and absences – factors that impact performance. Vroom (1964) also stated that job satisfaction varied inversely with how authoritarian the supervisor is towards the supervised employee. Morrill's 1997 study discovered that the more positive the supervisor-subordinate relationship, the greater the job satisfaction of the subordinate.

Office Space

Morgan Lovell, a workplace interior design consulting firm, stresses that a badly designed office layout can lead to under-performing staff. An open-office space can, on the other hand, increase efficiency, improve communication and build a better team culture ("Keep an Open Mind," 2003). Grossman (2002) identifies that "offices are becoming less common as companies squeeze funds from their facilities budgets" (p. 1) and so reducing costs has led organizations to reducing office sizes. As a result, the average size of a professional/technical worker's office has decreased from 9.6 m² to 8.15 m² from 1997 to 2002 (Charles et al., 2004).

In the early 1900s, offices were predominately an open space with desks in close proximity to each other and a few private offices generally around the perimeter for the most senior personnel, such as the company owner (Becker & Sims 2001). The environment changed from an emphasis of "people working together to a focus on individual productivity and performance and an environment designed to support and reinforce the individual" (Becker & Sims, 2001, p. 4).

By the 1970s, the open-plan office had become the most common type of office space. The open-office plan began originally as an approach to increasing flexibility and office communication, evolving quickly into a cost-cutting exercise.

Workspaces became noisy and distracting places with poor air quality, leading to reduced productivity (Gunn & Burroughs, 1996). Using furnishings to create separate areas is the norm in offices referred to as caves and commons (Gunn & Burroughs, 1996). The caves-and-commons approach is similar to a neighborhood with formal and informal meeting spaces as well as private spaces. In the United States, most employees prefer closed offices that are completely enclosed, provide privacy and have a view to the outdoors (Becker & Sims, 2001).

Several studies have concluded that office design has an impact on employee satisfaction and job performance. In one such study, Brennan, Chugh, and Kline (2002) examined workers relocated from mainly private offices to open-plan offices. They based their findings on the initial response to the change and then a follow up to monitor the response and effects of the change six months subsequent to the move. The study reviewed satisfaction with the physical environment, the perceptions of the physical stress of the office environment, the satisfaction with team member relations and perceived job performance. Their results indicated “decreased employee satisfaction with the entire dependent measures following the relocation and, moreover, the employee's dissatisfaction did not abate, even after an adjustment period” (Brennan et al., 2002, p. 280).

Goodrich (1982) identifies further confirmation of the link between the physical office design and the impact on the organization. Not only does an office design need to support the physical activities, with furniture, space, and equipment, but also needs to sustain users' perceptual, cognitive, and social activities to be functional. Goodrich (1982) describes an organization that had a security-card

access system and no common dining area. The employees kept to their own floor within the building and did not intermingle with other work groups. Office layout can affect identification with one's workgroup, group involvement, and morale negatively. Goodrich identifies the effect on a workgroup that used to pass through three other work areas on the way to reception and then relocated to offices along a separate corridor, noting that, "after the relocation, the workers felt more isolated and had a reduction in morale in the new work environment." (Goodrich, 1982, p. 360).

Zweigenhaft (1976), in an examination of the effect of desk location between the student and faculty member, concluded that the faculty office is a "potentially dangerous place" (p. 529) for a student as it is the faculty member's territory and the status of faculty is higher than that of a student. The research determined the placement of desks in 63 faculty offices and the more senior the faculty member the more likely the desk was between the faculty member and the student, while more junior faculty members tended to place the desk against the wall. According to Zweigenhaft (1976), there is some relationship between the interior design in the faculty office and the faculty-student interaction.

Schein (1990) suggests that, by studying buildings and how they are configured, much can be noted about the organization, and also indicates that organizational culture is reinforced by the "design of physical space, facades and buildings" (p. 115). The proposed study deals with the physical locations of employees with respect to their supervisors. As the physical environment contributes to the organizational culture (Alvesson, 2002; O'Toole, 1996; Schein

1990, 1992; Strange & Banning, 2001), it is important to keep in mind that attempting to reengineer an organization without adjusting for the physical work environment can lead to failure (Gunn & Burroughs, 1996). Planning the organizational environment with consideration of how buildings affect behavior will help to create environments that provide satisfaction, and influence a positive change in behavior (Cassidy, 1997; Ittelson, Proshanksy, Rivlin, & Winkel, 1974).

Job Satisfaction and Location Relative to the Direct Supervisor

Hoppock (1935) indicated that employee supervision affects employee job satisfaction, while Kim (2002) noted that physical location may have an impact on effective supervisor-subordinate communications, which can affect employee job satisfaction. Location can also have a marked impact on the observed occurrence of important organizational behaviors, such as making good ethical decisions, striving towards achievement, avoiding absenteeism attendance, and demonstrating courteousness (Johns, 2006).

Lingard and Francis (2004) investigated work-life experiences of employees in one large Australian construction organization. They conducted a survey to investigate employees' experiences in several key work-life areas, including work-family conflict, job burnout and job satisfaction and asked respondents to choose between the following employee work locations:

1. on site (in direct construction activity);
2. on-site (but mostly in a site office); and
3. in the head or a regional office (Lingard & Francis, 2004).

Lingard & Francis (2004) measured job satisfaction by using a general satisfaction scale incorporated into the Survey of Organizations developed at the University of Michigan and asked respondents “to rate their satisfaction with various aspects of their job, including people in their work group, supervisor, job security, the organization as a whole, pay in relation to skill and effort, progress to date and chances for career progression in the future (p. 994).” Responses ranged from *very dissatisfied* (1) to *very satisfied* (5).

Lingard and Francis (2004) noted that site-based employees experienced significantly higher rates of dissatisfaction than employees who work in the head or regional office. Site-based employees were “more likely to experience emotional exhaustion and, men who work in site offices, are more likely to experience cynicism than their counterparts in the head or regional office” (p. 1,000). In terms of pay, site-based employees were less satisfied than their head or regional office-based counterparts. Site-based construction employees experienced less satisfaction than the site-based office workers and site-based office workers experienced lower rates of satisfaction compared to employees at the head or regional office. Lingard and Francis (2004)’s study suggests that where an employee works has an impact on employee experiences. However, it is uncertain if these results were due to the type of job (construction workers versus local site supervisors versus professionals at the regional or home office), which may have more of an effect on job satisfaction than mere location.

De Croon, Sluiter, Kuijer, and Frings-Dresen (2005) noted strong evidence that working in open workplaces reduced the office worker’s psychological privacy and, consequently, their job satisfaction. De Croon et al. (2005) also observed that close

locations between workstations intensifies cognitive workload and reduces the office worker's psychological privacy, which also leads to reduced job satisfaction. These findings indicate that some innovative office layouts may affect the organization's cost-efficiency, but these results may come at the expense of affecting office workers' working conditions and well-being negatively. De Croon et al. (2005) suggest that organizations should consider the impact on the office worker's work conditions and well-being prior to developing and introducing innovative offices. Pending the results of the proposed study, organizations may also want to consider the relative locations of employees and supervisors when contemplating office innovations.

Summary

Nearly a century of job satisfaction research has failed to yield a consensus on the derivation or importance of job satisfaction; let alone if the locations of the employee and supervisor is correlated to a change in employee job satisfaction. However, it appears that satisfied employees tend to engage in pro-organizational activities such as being polite, being prompt, and working hard. Conversely, it appears that dissatisfied employees tend to engage in anti-organizational activities such as being rude, being tardy or absent, and withholding effort or quitting. There is a correlation between job satisfaction and turnover.

Chapter 2 also discussed the significance of the supervisor-subordinate relationship. Because this study is exploring the supervisor-subordinate physical location and employee satisfaction connection, Chapter 2 discussed the influence of the physical workspace. This chapter has reviewed the literature focused on employee job satisfaction, the effect of employee job satisfaction on employee job performance, and finally the

impact of employee job satisfaction on organizational performance. There is, therefore, sufficient literature that supports the value of this study.

The remainder of this dissertation will explore and discuss the relationship between employee-supervisor location and employee job satisfaction. Specifically, Chapter 3 will discuss the methodology that will be employed to examine if the location the employee, with respect to his or her supervisor, correlates with employee job satisfaction.

CHAPTER 3. METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter outlines the processes of data collection and analysis for this study. It will describe and discuss the sample, the survey instruments that were used, the procedures that were employed, and the data analysis techniques that were used to answer the following research question:

To what extent did the physical location between a subordinate and his or her direct supervisor correlate positively or negatively with the employee job satisfaction experienced by the subordinate?

The null hypothesis and alternative hypothesis respectively were:

Null Hypothesis 1: The physical location between an employee and his or her supervisor would not correlate positively or negatively to the job satisfaction reported by the employee.

Alternative Hypothesis 1: The physical location between an employee and his or her supervisor would correlate positively or negatively to the job satisfaction reported by the employee.

Research Design

This study employed a descriptive correlational quantitative non-experimental design because a survey provides a means to capture large amounts of data over a wide range of possibilities. The dependent variable was employee job satisfaction, measured

by Spector's Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS). The independent variables included the various employee-supervisor physical location categories (same office, same floor-different office, same building-different floor, same city-different building, same country-different city, and different country).

Positive correlation indicates a direct relationship suggesting the variables either increase or decrease together, while a negative correlation or inverse relationship indicates that as one variable increases the other decreases. The proposed quantitative, non-experimental survey research design collected data using an online survey and questionnaire. The questionnaire used "Likert-scaled" type questions to accumulate data for descriptive and correlational statistics. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) and descriptive statistics were employed to determine if there are significant relationships.

Sample

This study investigated the job satisfaction of employees with direct supervisors. It was important to obtain a representative sample of employees that fell into each of the six employee-direct supervisor location categories.

Participants were drawn from a database of the Zoomerang Corporation, which is a subsidiary of Market Tools Inc.; one of the world's leading application service providers for research and feedback solutions (Smock, 2000) and is now also a subsidiary of Survey Monkey, a leading online survey company (Constine, 2011). Zoomerang's focus is internet-based, technology-enabled full-service marketing research. Market Tools has conducted hundreds of surveys and market studies and worked with many large organizations from financial services to electronics such as General Mills, Proctor & Gamble, Capstone Ventures and Dominion Ventures (Miller & Dickson, 2001), and

created Zoomerang to develop online marketing and research. A cursory search of Capella University's dissertation database on February 7, 2012 yielded 117 dissertations between 2005 and 2011 that used Zoomerang to administer questionnaires and more specifically 7 dissertations between 2006 and 2011 that utilized Zoomerang's Zoompanel.

The participants were taken from Zoomerang's Zoompanel, which is a database created by Zoompanel and Market Tools Inc. and contains over 2.5 million participants who agree to take market research surveys (Lindenmann, 2003). Zoompanel is utilized by many organizations and high-profile companies for research on sample populations (Awad, Dellarocas, & Zhang, 2004; Marino, 2002). Zoomerang survey participants are invited to join the Zoompanel, and once they join the panel, Zoomerang communicates with participants regularly to update their profile information. Zoomerang gives their participants minimal incentives for participating in surveys. For example, participants earn points (called Zoompoints) for each research study they participate in and can redeem these points for merchandise, and may also receive certificates and sweepstakes prizes for participating. Zoomerang will screen participants with questionnaires to ensure they are employees from companies with 250-500 employees. The number range of 250-500 employees for company size was chosen to increase the likelihood of finding employees that fell into the aforementioned six employee-supervisor physical location categories. Demographic questions will be asked to avoid skewed data (see Appendix B).

Power analysis determines the appropriate sample size, and involves several calculations (Creswell, 2003). The first component of power analysis is the alpha level of significance, which controls the probability of making a Type I error, incorrectly rejecting a null hypothesis. The next component of a power analysis is the effect size (*ES*), which is the extent to which a phenomenon

is present or the extent to which the null hypothesis is false. The last component of power analysis is power, which is the probability of finding a significant relationship. This is the probability of correctly rejecting the null hypothesis. Sample size justification and power analysis for ANOVA were calculated using G*Power, a general power analysis software program. A sample size of 231 achieves 80% power using an F-test to detect a slope of .25 (medium ES) at a significance level (alpha) of .05. Claims of three or more means require the use of an F-statistic, an extension of the t-statistic, which tests two means (Simon & Francis, 1991). The F-statistic compares the variances between the samples to the variances within the samples. An F value of close to one indicates that there are no significant difference between the samples means (Simon & Francis, 1991). Conversely, a relatively large F-value will indicate that the rejection of the null hypothesis and that the means of the samples are not equal (Simon & Francis, 1991). G*Power recommended an F-value greater than 2.1392 in order to determine a significant difference between the sample means to be explored in this study while ANOVA requires that the samples are random and independent of each other (Simon & Francis, 1991). Furthermore, Zoomerang was instructed to have at least 30 participants in each of the six location categories to satisfy the central limit theorem minimum requirements.

Instrumentation

Employee job satisfaction appears to have many facets. Henne and Locke (1985) posited that, along with challenging work, interest in the work, work not being physically exhausting, rewards for performance in line with the employee's personal values, working conditions, self-esteem, and coworker support, employee job satisfaction is influenced by the relationship between the employee and his or her supervisor. Siefert, Jayaratne, and Chess (1991) suggested that personal characteristics such as gender, age, race, ethnicity, education and marital status are predictors of job satisfaction. Because of

Siefert et al.'s (1991) findings, the first portion of the survey instrument used in this study captured the aforementioned six characteristics, along with additional selected demographic information (see Appendix B).

The Spector Job Satisfaction Survey is a 36-item, nine-facet scale used to assess employee attitudes about the job and aspects of the job. The nine facets are:

4. Pay (satisfaction with pay and pay raises);
5. Promotion (satisfaction with promotional opportunities);
6. Supervision (satisfaction with a person's immediate supervisor);
7. Fringe benefits (satisfaction with fringe benefits);
8. Contingent rewards (satisfaction with rewards that are not necessarily monetary given for good performance);
9. Operating conditions (satisfaction with rules and procedures);
10. Coworkers (satisfaction with coworkers);
11. Nature of work (satisfaction with the type of work done); and
12. Communication (satisfaction with the communication within the agency) (Spector, 1997).

Each facet was assessed with four items, and a total score was computed from all items. A cumulative rating scale format was used; with six choices per item ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. Items were written in both directions, and thus about half of the questions were reverse scored.

The Spector Job Satisfaction Survey reports 10 results: nine results from the individual facets of job satisfaction and one gross score. Only the scores of the job satisfaction and nature of work facets were used in this study because the questions were most aligned with measuring an employee's satisfaction with their job as it relates to the

physical location from their primary supervisor. Future research may be done to include all facets of job satisfaction in relation to differentiation. Although the Spector Job Satisfaction Survey was developed originally for use in human service organizations, it is applicable to all organizations. The norms provided on the Spector Job Satisfaction Survey website (Spector, 2011) include a wide range of organization types in both private and public sector. The Spector Job Satisfaction Survey is one of the most popular surveys in organizational work and can be modified and is available for non-commercial uses and research purposes if the research reports results to the author. Of interest to this research was the finding of potential effects of job satisfaction – more specifically, in this study, how supervisor location, relative to the employee’s location may correlate to job satisfaction. Below are internal consistency reliabilities (coefficient alpha), based on a sample of 2,870 (Spector, 1997).

Table 1 Spector’s Job Satisfaction Survey Internal Consistency Reliabilities

Scale	Alpha	Description
Pay	.75	Pay and remuneration
Promotion	.73	Promotion opportunities
Supervision	.82	Immediate supervisor
Fringe Benefits	.73	Monetary and nonmonetary fringe benefits
Contingent Rewards	.76	Appreciation, recognition, and rewards for good work
Operating Procedures	.62	Operating policies and procedures
Coworkers	.60	People you work with
Nature of Work	.78	Job tasks themselves
Communication	.71	Communication within the organization
Total	.91	Total of all facets

Data was collected via a 16-item questionnaire (see Appendix B). Questions 1 and 2 collected the respondent's gender and age. Questions 3 through 7 collected general information about the respondent's employment : job tenure, tenure with supervisor, direct reports, job status (full or part-time), and industry. Question 8 collected information regarding employee-supervisor location and interaction. This was done by collecting various employee-supervisor physical location categories (same office, same floor-different office, same building-different floor, same city-different building, same country-different city, and different country). Questions 9 through 16 were the nature of work and the supervisor facets of the JSS.

Data Collection

Zoomerang was used to administer the Spector Job Satisfaction Survey instrument and store the results anonymously. To reach a large number of people in a more timely and cost-effective manner, data was collected via an internet-based survey. The growth of the internet has affected every aspect of our society today, including research (Solomon, 2001) – for example, an informal search of Google on August 1, 2009 rendered over 14,000 results for the term “web-based survey providers.”

As data was collected using an online survey (see Appendix B), participants were asked to complete an online consent form prior to beginning the survey. The consent form provided a description of the study and reassurance of confidentiality. In addition to the research cited in the sample population section, Sylvia Zermeno, Market Research Associate of Zoomerang, clarified the data collection procedures. A sample size of 231 participants was specified to Zoomerang, which charged \$1,600 to obtain 231 participants required for the survey. Once Zoomerang was paid to survey the sample, the Zoompanel

administrator sent an email invitation with a link to the online survey asking for participation in the study. Once the participants agreed to take part in the survey, they began by clicking on the survey link.

Confidentiality of data, benefits and risks of participation, and repercussions of not participating or withdrawing from the study before completion were described to the participants on the consent form, prior to taking the survey. The contact information of the researcher, if participants have questions and/or wish to request a summary of the research findings, was included on the consent form and Capella's *IRB* contact information of the Chair of the Institutional Review Board through the Research & Scholarship Office, as well as the address of Capella's School of Human Services, were on the consent form.

According to Dillman (2002), respondents have a tendency to be more forthcoming with their responses when completing a distributed survey as opposed to an in-person or telephone interview. Since there was no interaction between the researcher and the respondents, it was assumed that answers provided will best reflect the level of satisfaction experienced by the respondents.

Data Analysis

This study employed a one-way ANOVA to determine if there were differences in the mean employee job satisfaction scores of employees with direct supervisors in six different physical location categories (same office, different office - same floor, same building - different floor, different building - same city, different city same country, and different country).

Statistical analyses were performed using SPSS 19.0 for Windows, which is popular in the social and behavioral sciences (Koh & Murlita, 2003). SPSS has been used for over 35 years, the range of statistics is comprehensive, data may be imported from popular formats, and graphics are excellent. The study sample was described using descriptive statistics such as mean, median, standard deviation, range, frequency and percent and measures of central tendency (mean and median) and dispersion (standard deviation and range) were used for continuous and ordinal-scaled variables and frequency and percent for categorical scaled variables. All of the analyses were two-sided with a .05 alpha level, also referred to as the level of significance. An alpha level of $>.05$ is generally accepted as statistically significant, which means it is not likely to occur by chance more than five times in a 100 tries (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). A 5% alpha level means that if a mean or proportion from a sample is likely to occur more than 5% of the time then we cannot reject the null hypothesis. Moreover, if a mean or proportion from a sample is likely to occur less than 5% of the time we reject the null hypothesis.

Validity and Reliability

To predict a specific behavior, such as performing an act, a researcher needs a specific measure of attitude towards performing a particular act (Fisher, 1980). Staw and Ross' (1985) study measured job satisfaction using a single-item "global satisfaction measure with four possible levels of response (ranging from *highly satisfied* to *highly dissatisfied*" (p. 473).

Cetin (2006) used a T -test to determine if there was a meaningful difference between job satisfaction and employee-supervisor interaction related to the variables of gender and marital status, and used one-way ANOVA to test whether there was a

meaningful difference between the job satisfaction, occupational commitment and organizational levels about the variables of age, job experience, and title. Scheffe and least significant difference (LSD) tests were done in order to find the source of the meaningful differences unearthed through variance analysis and Pearson Moment correlation was calculated to determine the relationship between job satisfaction, occupational commitment and organizational commitment (Cetin, 2006). The significance level in all analyses in the research was .05. The current study, examining employee job satisfaction relative to employee-direct supervisor location, used procedures similar to those used in Cetin's study.

Ethical Considerations

Participants were given an informed consent form at the beginning of the study, informing them of the privacy practices of the researcher. The only data that was stored was survey responses collected by the third-party online survey provider, Zoomerang, and the researcher requested that Zoomerang not record IP addresses, in order to preserve respondent anonymity, while ensuring participants were able to respond once only to the survey, in order to preserve data integrity. Only survey results were recorded and only the researcher has access to the raw data. Survey responses were stored on a compact disk medium and placed in a safe, only accessible to the researcher, for seven years after the publication of the results of this dissertation. Data will be destroyed at a secure document destruction facility (e.g. "Shred-it"). Only responses to the survey were preserved and no biographical information was gathered. The choices of responses were general enough so that it was be impossible to discern which employees filled out which questionnaire.

Summary

Chapter 3 outlined the methods of data collection and analysis to be followed for this study. The instrumentation and the corresponding rationale for the measures have been discussed and the sample and procedures to be used to answer the research question have been presented. Chapter 4 will present the results and the conclusions and suggestions for further research will be discussed in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 4. RESULTS

Introduction

Chapter 4 presents the research data findings obtained during this study. The analysis and implications of the research study's findings and the discussions regarding potential future research are reserved for chapter 5. Chapter 4 is composed of the following sections: description of the population and sample, summary of results, details of analysis, discussion of results, and a conclusion.

A quantitative research design was utilized as the methodological approach for this research project. The purpose of this research was to provide an analysis of the extent to which job satisfaction is related to the physical location of an employee relative to the physical location of the supervisor. The research question was to what extent was job satisfaction related to the physical location of the supervisor. Furthermore, the research design was a non-experiment single observation one-group randomized survey design. Using collected empirical data from a survey, the quantitative research provided an analysis of the extent to which job satisfaction is related to the physical location of the supervisor.

The purpose of this study was to determine the extent of the relationship between the physical location of employees and supervisors and employee job satisfaction. The Spector Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) was administered to a random sample of 231 adults ($n=231$) employed in various occupations. Pearson's correlation analysis was performed on these variables along with the aggregate score of the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS).

Description of the Population and Sample

The population under consideration for this research project was currently employed adults. The research design for this research project was a non-experiment single observation one-group randomly sampled survey design. In agreement with the described research design, SurveyMonkey's database of employed adult survey participants was chosen as the target population and sampling frame. Furthermore, the large population of employed adults necessitated a large random sample be utilized to permit the research findings to be generalizable. SurveyMonkey was contracted by the researcher to provide a random sample of 231 completed surveys that would be completed by currently employed adults.

A random sample of 231 completed surveys from adult U.S. employees provided a 95% confidence level and a $\pm 5\%$ confidence interval or margin of error. SurveyMonkey, within a one-week time period, ultimately collected data from 231 participants via a single web-based survey instrument provided by the researcher. All 231 completed surveys were accepted and utilized. Therefore, this research project achieved, through its data collection process, the ability to present analysis results, which reflect the population of employed adults within the U.S with a 95% confidence level and a $\pm 5\%$ confidence interval or margin of error.

Survey questions were used to collect seven demographic variables: age, job tenure, amount of time with current supervisor, direct reports, full-time or part-time work status, type of industry, and employee-supervisor location. Descriptive statistics are presented in Tables 2 through 9.

Survey Administration

Participants were already members of SurveyMonkey's Audience group. Audience members logged onto SurveyMonkey's website and participated in surveys for which they qualified. There were 285 individuals, who were employed in various positions within a variety of industries, who accessed the survey for this study. Out of the 285 participants, 231 ($n=231$) completed the survey completely and accurately. The first page of the online survey explained the nature of the study and informed the participant that pressing the button to continue at the bottom of the page is indication of the participant's intent to continue partaking in the survey and an understanding of the informed consent. The survey instrument contained 17 questions that took 5 to 10 minutes to complete. Upon completion of the survey, participants submitted the completed survey to SurveyMonkey where they were collected and saved for access by the researcher.

Population and Demographics

Of the 231 individuals surveyed for this study, 66.23% were male and 33.77% were female (see Table 2). A majority (41.54%) of the respondents were between the ages of 30 and 39 (see Table 3).

Table 2. *Gender (n=231)*

	Frequency	Percent
Male	153	66.23
Female	78	33.77
Total	231	100.00

Table 3. *Age of Population (n=231)*

	Frequency	Percent
18-29	68	29.44
30-39	96	41.56
40-49	30	12.99
50-59	26	11.26
60-65	11	4.76
Total	231	100.00

Table 4 shows that 29.87% of the respondents held their current jobs for two to five years and Table 5 shows that 53.25% of the respondents were with their current supervisor for more than one year.

Table 4. *Job Tenure (n=231)*

	Frequency	Percent
0 to 1 Year	59	25.54
2 to 5 Years	69	29.87
6 to 10 Years	36	15.58
11 to 15 Years	13	5.63
15 to 20 Years	11	4.76
Over 20 Years	43	18.61
Total	231	100.00

Table 5. *Tenure with Current Supervisor (n=231)*

	Frequency	Percent
0 to 6 months	42	18.18
6 months to one year	66	28.57
Over one year	123	53.25
Total	231	100.00

Table 6 shows that 78.35% of respondents to the study indicated that they were employed full time and mostly employed in “finance” (13.85%), “manufacturing” (13.85%), and “other” (22.08%) industry categories (Table 7). Table 8 shows that 54.11% of respondents to the study did not have any employees that worked under them.

Table 6. *Job Status (n=231)*

	Frequency	Percent
Full-time	181	78.35
Part-time	50	21.65
Total	231	100.00

Table 7: *Industry (n=231)*

	Frequency	Percent
Agriculture, Mining	7	3.03
Construction	7	3.03
Finance, Insurance, Real Estate	32	13.85
Government	16	6.93
Health Care	22	9.52

<i>Table 7. Continued.</i>	Frequency	Percent
Internet	5	2.16
Manufacturing	32	13.85
Retail, Wholesale	22	9.52
Services	20	8.66
Transportation	3	1.30
Communications, Utilities	3	1.30
Nonprofit	11	4.76
Other	51	22.08
Total	231	100.00

Table 8. Do You Have Any Direct Reports (n=231)

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	106	45.89
No	125	54.11
Total	231	100.00

The main demographic upon which this study focuses is the employee-supervisor location in Table 9. A majority of the survey participants shared an office with their direct supervisor with 123 individuals for 53.25%. Fifty-eight participants, 25.11%, identified themselves as being in a different office, but same floor as their direct supervisor. The remaining frequencies and percentages were in the same building-different floor (27, 11.69%), same city-different building floor (13, 5.63%), same country-different city (9, 3.90%), and different country (1, 0.43%).

Table 9. *Employee-Supervisor Location (n=231)*

	Frequency	Percent
Same Office	123	53.25
Same Floor-Different Office	58	25.11
Same Building-Different Floor	27	11.69
Same City-Different Building	13	5.63
Same Country-Different City	9	3.90
Different Country	1	0.43
Total	231	100.00

Research Question and Hypothesis

Does the physical location of a subordinate, relative to his or her direct supervisor, have any impact on a subordinate's reported job satisfaction as defined by the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)? This question is the research inquiry explored in this study. In order to explore this relationship, one proposition using the null hypothesis was explored: there was no relationship between the physical location of a subordinate, relative to his or her direct supervisor, and a subordinate's reported job satisfaction.

The hypothesis explored in this analysis was that physical location of a subordinate, relative to his or her direct supervisor impacts job satisfaction. The survey instrument used in this study consists of 16 questions, eight questions to gather demographic data and eight questions from Spector's Job Satisfaction Survey to ascertain employee job satisfaction. The eight questions from Spector's Job Satisfaction Survey are divided into two facet areas: Supervision and Nature of Work. Both facets contain four

questions and each question has six responses ranging from *Disagree very much* to *Agree very much*. The Supervision facet questions are:

1. My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.
2. My supervisor is unfair to me.
3. My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.
4. I like my supervisor.

Questions two and three of the Supervision facet are reversed scored. The Nature of Work facet questions are:

1. I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.
2. I like doing the things I do at work.
3. I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.
4. My job is enjoyable.

Question one of the Nature of Work facet is reversed scored.

According to the creator of the JSS, Paul E. Spector, the instrument uses 6-point agree-disagree response choices, it is assumed that agreement with positively-worded items and disagreement with negatively-worded items would represent satisfaction, whereas disagreement with positive-worded items, and agreement with negative-worded items represents dissatisfaction (1997). For the 4-item subscales, as well as the 36-item total score, individual question scores with a mean item response (after reverse scoring the negatively-worded items) of 4 or more represents satisfaction, whereas mean responses of 3 or less represents dissatisfaction (Spector, 1997). Mean scores between 3 and 4 are ambivalence. Translated into the summed scores, for the 4-item subscales with a range from 4 to 24, scores of 4 to 12 are dissatisfied, 16 to 24 are satisfied, and between

12 and 16 are ambivalent. For this study, the 8-item combined subscales of Supervision and Nature of Work range from 8 to 48, scores of 8 to 24 are dissatisfied, 32 to 48 are satisfied, and between 24 and 32 are ambivalent (Spector, 1997).

Table 10 shows the mean JSS scores by gender. All age groups reported satisfied scores for both the Supervisor and Nature of Work facets.

Table 10. *Mean JSS Scores by Gender (N=231)*

	Gender	Mean	N
Supervisor Score	Male	18.03	153.00
	Female	17.94	78.00
Nature of Work Score	Male	18.03	153.00
	Female	18.47	78.00
Total Score	Male	36.05	153.00
	Female	36.41	78.00

Table 11 shows the mean JSS scores by age group. All age groups reported satisfied scores for both the Supervisor and Nature of Work facets.

Table 11. *Mean JSS Scores by Age Group (N=231)*

	Age	Mean	N
Supervisor Score	18-29	18.79	68.00
	30-39	16.80	96.00
	40-49	18.27	30.00
	50-59	19.85	26.00
	60-65	18.45	11.00
Nature of Work Score	18-29	18.29	68.00
	30-39	17.69	96.00
	40-49	18.10	30.00
	50-59	20.12	26.00
	60-65	17.45	11.00

Table 11 Continued. *Mean JSS Scores by Age Group (N=231)*

	Age	Mean	N
Total Score	18-29	37.00	68.00
	30-39	34.46	96.00
	40-49	36.37	30.00
	50-59	39.96	26.00
	60-65	35.91	11.00

Table 12 shows the mean JSS scores by job tenure. All job tenure groups reported satisfied scores for both the Supervisor and Nature of Work facets.

Table 12. *Mean JSS Scores by Job Tenure (N=231)*

	Job Tenure?	Mean	N
Supervisor Score	0 to 1 Year	17.75	59.00
	1 to 5 Years	17.90	69.00
	5 to 10 Years	17.86	36.00
	10 to 15 Years	17.31	13.00
	15 to 20 Years	19.18	11.00
	Over 20 Years	18.53	43.00
Nature of Work Score	0 to 1 Year	17.92	59.00
	1 to 5 Years	17.88	69.00
	5 to 10 Years	17.89	36.00
	10 to 15 Years	17.31	13.00
	15 to 20 Years	20.82	11.00
	Over 20 Years	18.86	43.00
Total Score	0 to 1 Year	35.66	59.00
	1 to 5 Years	35.74	69.00
	5 to 10 Years	35.75	36.00
	10 to 15 Years	34.62	13.00
	15 to 20 Years	40.00	11.00
	Over 20 Years	37.40	43.00

Table 13 shows the mean JSS scores by length-of-time with current supervisor. All length-of-time with current supervisor groups reported satisfied scores for both the

Supervisor and Nature of Work facets.

Table 13. *Mean JSS Scores by Length of Time with Current Supervisor (N=231)*

	How long have you had your current supervisor?	Mean	N
Supervisor Score	0 to 6 months	18.07	42.00
	6 months to 1 year	15.67	66.00
	Over 1 year	19.23	123.00
Nature of Work Score	0 to 6 months	17.29	42.00
	6 months to 1 year	16.64	66.00
	Over 1 year	19.32	123.00
Total Score	0 to 6 months	35.36	42.00
	6 months to 1 year	32.30	66.00
	Over 1 year	38.52	123.00

Table 14 shows the mean JSS scores by direct reports. Each direct reports group reported satisfied scores for both the Supervisor and Nature of Work facets.

Table 14. *Mean JSS Scores by Direct Reports (N=231)*

	Do you have any direct reports?	Mean	N
Supervisor Score	Yes	17.11	106.00
	No	18.75	125.00
Nature of Work Score	Yes	18.25	106.00
	No	18.12	125.00
Total Score	Yes	35.37	106.00
	No	36.85	125.00

Table 15 shows the mean JSS scores by job status. Each job status group reported satisfied scores for both the Supervisor and Nature of Work facets.

Table 15. *Mean JSS Scores by Job Status (N=231)*

	Job Status	Mean	N
Supervisor Score	Full-time	18.31	181.00
	Part-time	16.88	50.00
Nature of Work Score	Full-time	18.56	181.00
	Part-time	16.80	50.00
Total Score	Full-time	36.87	181.00
	Part-time	33.62	50.00

Table 16 shows the mean JSS scores by industry. Most industry groups reported satisfied scores for both the Supervisor and Nature of Work facets. Individuals who identified themselves as working within the finance, insurance, real estate; or transportation industries appeared to be ambivalent (JSS score between 24 and 32) while the communications, utilities industries reported a dissatisfied score between 8 and 24.

Table 16. *Mean JSS Scores by Industry (N=231)*

What is the principal industry of your organization?		Mean	N
Supervisor Score	Other	20.57	51.00
	Agriculture, Mining	16.14	7.00
	Construction	16.86	7.00
	Finance, Insurance, Real Estate	15.44	32.00
	Government	17.94	16.00
	Health Care	16.91	22.00
	Internet	18.40	5.00
	Manufacturing	17.16	32.00
	Retail, Wholesale	17.82	22.00
	Services	20.85	20.00
	Transportation	14.00	3.00
	Communications, Utilities	10.33	3.00
	Nonprofit	18.36	11.00

Table 16 Continued. *Mean JSS Scores by Industry (N=231)*

What is the principal industry of your organization?		Mean	N
Nature of Work Score	Other	19.59	51.00
	Agriculture, Mining	18.14	7.00
	Construction	17.57	7.00
	Finance, Insurance, Real Estate	16.37	32.00
	Government	17.94	16.00
	Health Care	19.41	22.00
	Internet	21.40	5.00
	Manufacturing	18.16	32.00
	Retail, Wholesale	17.32	22.00
	Services	19.65	20.00
	Transportation	11.33	3.00
	Communications, Utilities	10.00	3.00
	Nonprofit	17.00	11.00
Total Score	Other	40.16	51.00
	Agriculture, Mining	34.29	7.00
	Construction	34.43	7.00
	Finance, Insurance, Real Estate	31.81	32.00
	Government	35.88	16.00
	Health Care	36.32	22.00
	Internet	39.80	5.00
	Manufacturing	35.31	32.00
	Retail, Wholesale	35.14	22.00
	Services	40.50	20.00
	Transportation	25.33	3.00
	Communications, Utilities	20.33	3.00
	Nonprofit	35.09	11.00

Table 17 shows the mean JSS scores by employee/supervisor physical location. All employee/supervisor groups reported satisfied scores for both the Supervisor and Nature of Work facets.

Table 17. *Mean JSS Scores by Employee/Supervisor Physical Location (N=231)*

	Where is your direct supervisor in relation to where you normally work, e.g., your office?	Mean	N
Supervisor Score	Same office	18.44	123.00
	Same floor, different office	18.03	58.00
	Same building, different floor	15.19	27.00
	Same city, different building	18.23	13.00
	Same country, different city	19.22	9.00
	Different country	24.00	1.00
Nature of Work Score	Same office	18.50	123.00
	Same floor, different office	18.59	58.00
	Same building, different floor	17.00	27.00
	Same city, different building	14.31	13.00
	Same country, different city	19.67	9.00
	Different country	24.00	1.00
Total Score	Same office	36.92	123.00
	Same floor, different office	36.62	58.00
	Same building, different floor	32.19	27.00
	Same city, different building	32.54	13.00
	Same country, different city	38.89	9.00
	Different country	48.00	1.00

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) Results

In an attempt to explore the null hypothesis that there was no significance in variances on job satisfaction scores between physical location categories (same office, same floor-different office, same building-different floor, same city-different building, same country-different city, and different country), an ANOVA was performed. Claims of three or more means require the use of an F-statistic, an extension of the t-statistic, which tests two means (Simon & Francis, 1991). The F-statistic compares the variances between the samples to the variances within the samples. G*Power recommends an F-value greater than 2.1392 in order to determine a significant difference between the

sample means and allow the researcher to reject the null hypothesis.

Results of the ANOVA, based on gender, with a 95% confidence interval were as follows: the JSS Satisfaction with Supervision Subscale yielded a total mean score of 18.00, a standard deviation of 4.59, an F-statistic of .02 and a p value of .88, not indicating significance (F-statistic>2.1392 and P<.05); the JSS Satisfaction with Nature of Work Subscale yielded a total mean score of 18.18, a standard deviation of 4.51, an F-statistic of .50, and a p value of .48, not indicating significance (F-statistic>2.1392 and P<.05); and the totals of the JSS Supervision and Nature of Work Subscales yielded a total mean score of 36.18, a standard deviation of 7.96, an F-statistic of .11, and a p value of .74, not indicating significance (F-statistic>2.1392 and P<.05). Overall, the results of the analysis of variance indicated no significant relationship between gender and the JSS scores reported by participants (See Table 18).

Table 18. *Descriptive Statistics and ANOVA of Scales and Subscales Based on Gender*

	Mean	SD	F	P
JSS Supervision Subscale	18.00	4.59	.02	.88
JSS Nature of Work Subscale	18.18	4.51	.50	.48
Total of Supervision and Nature of Work Subscales	36.18	7.96	.11	.74

Results of the ANOVA, based on age, with a 95% confidence interval were as follows: the JSS Satisfaction with Supervision Subscale yielded a total mean score of 18.00, a standard deviation of 4.59, an F-statistic of 3.38 and a p value of .01, indicating significance (F-statistic>2.1392 and P<.05); the JSS Satisfaction with Nature of Work

Subscale yielded a total mean score of 18.18, a standard deviation of 4.51, an F-statistic of 1.59, and a p value of .18, not indicating significance (F-statistic>2.1392 and P<.05); and the totals of the JSS Supervision and Nature of Work Subscales yielded a total mean score of 36.18, a standard deviation of 7.96, an F-statistic of 2.90, and a p value of .02, indicating significance (F-statistic>2.1392 and P<.05). Overall, the results of the analysis of variance indicated a relationship between age and the JSS scores reported by participants (See Table 19).

Table 19. *Descriptive Statistics and ANOVA of Scales and Subscales Based on Age*

	Mean	SD	F	P
JSS Supervision Subscale	18.00	4.59	3.38	.01
JSS Nature of Work Subscale	18.18	4.51	1.59	.18
Total of Supervision and Nature of Work Subscales	36.18	7.96	2.90	.02

Results of the ANOVA, based on job tenure, with a 95% confidence interval were as follows: the JSS Satisfaction with Supervision Subscale yielded a total mean score of 18.00, a standard deviation of 4.59, an F-statistic of.37 and a p value of .87, not indicating significance (F-statistic>2.1392 and P<.05); the JSS Satisfaction with Nature of Work Subscale yielded a total mean score of 18.18, a standard deviation of 4.51, an F-statistic of 1.18, and a p value of .32, not indicating significance (F-statistic>2.1392 and P<.05); and the totals of the JSS Supervision and Nature of Work Subscales yielded a total mean score of 36.18, a standard deviation of 7.96, an F-statistic of.92, and a p value of .47, not indicating significance (F-statistic>2.1392 and P<.05). Overall, the results

of the analysis of variance indicated no significant relationship between job tenure and the JSS scores reported by participants (See Table 20).

Table 20. *Descriptive Statistics and ANOVA of Scales and Subscales Based on Job Tenure*

	Mean	SD	F	P
JSS Supervision Subscale	18.00	4.59	.37	.87
JSS Nature of Work Subscale	18.18	4.51	1.18	.32
Total of Supervision and Nature of Work Subscales	36.18	7.96	.92	.47

Results of the ANOVA, based on tenure with supervisor, with a 95% confidence interval were as follows: the JSS Satisfaction with Supervision Subscale yielded a total mean score of 18.00, a standard deviation of 4.59, an F-statistic of 14.42 and a p value of .00, indicating significance (F-statistic>2.1392 and P<.05); the JSS Satisfaction with Nature of Work Subscale yielded a total mean score of 18.18, a standard deviation of 4.51, an F-statistic of 9.24, and a p value of .00, indicating significance (F-statistic>2.1392 and P<.05); and the totals of the JSS Supervision and Nature of Work Subscales yielded a total mean score of 36.18, a standard deviation of 7.96, an F-statistic of 14.93, and a p value of .00, indicating significance (F-statistic>2.1392 and P<.05). Overall, the results of the analysis of variance indicated a relationship between tenure with supervisor and the JSS scores reported by participants (See Table 21).

Table 21. *Descriptive Statistics and ANOVA of Scales and Subscales Based on Tenure with Supervisor*

	Mean	SD	F	P
JSS Supervision Subscale	18.00	4.59	14.42	.00
JSS Nature of Work Subscale	18.18	4.51	9.24	.00
Total of Supervision and Nature of Work Subscales	36.18	7.96	14.93	.00

Results of the ANOVA, based on job status, with a 95% confidence interval were as follows: the JSS Satisfaction with Supervision Subscale yielded a total mean score of 18.00, a standard deviation of 4.59, an F-statistic of 3.84 and a p value of .05, indicating significance (F-statistic>2.1392 and P<.05); the JSS Satisfaction with Nature of Work Subscale yielded a total mean score of 18.18, a standard deviation of 4.51, an F-statistic of 6.14, and a p value of .01, indicating significance (F-statistic>2.1392 and P<.05); and the totals of the JSS Supervision and Nature of Work Subscales yielded a total mean score of 36.18, a standard deviation of 7.96, an F-statistic of 6.68, and a p value of .01, indicating significance (F-statistic>2.1392 and P<.05). Overall, the results of the analysis of variance indicated a relationship between tenure with supervisor and the JSS scores reported by participants (See Table 22).

Table 22. *Descriptive Statistics and ANOVA of Scales and Subscales Based on Job Status*

	Mean	SD	F	P
JSS Supervision Subscale	18.00	4.59	3.84	.05
JSS Nature of Work Subscale	18.18	4.51	6.14	.01
Total of Supervision and Nature of Work Subscales	36.18	7.96	6.68	.01

Results of the ANOVA, based on industry, with a 95% confidence interval were as follows: the JSS Satisfaction with Supervision Subscale yielded a total mean score of 18.00, a standard deviation of 4.59, an F-statistic of 4.83 and a p value of .00, indicating significance (F-statistic>2.1392 and P<.05); the JSS Satisfaction with Nature of Work Subscale yielded a total mean score of 18.18, a standard deviation of 4.51, an F-statistic of 3.26, and a p value of .00, indicating significance (F-statistic>2.1392 and P<.05); and the totals of the JSS Supervision and Nature of Work Subscales yielded a total mean score of 36.18, a standard deviation of 7.96, an F-statistic of 4.83, and a p value of .00, indicating significance (F-statistic>2.1392 and P<.05). Overall, the results of the analysis of variance indicated a relationship between industry and the JSS scores reported by participants (See Table 23).

Table 23. *Descriptive Statistics and ANOVA of Scales and Subscales Based on Industry*

	Mean	SD	F	P
JSS Supervision Subscale	18.00	4.59	4.83	.00
JSS Nature of Work Subscale	18.18	4.51	3.26	.00
Total of Supervision and Nature of Work Subscales	36.18	7.96	4.83	.00

Results of the ANOVA, based on direct reports, with a 95% confidence interval were as follows: the JSS Satisfaction with Supervision Subscale yielded a total mean score of 18.00, a standard deviation of 4.59, an F-statistic of 7.51 and a p value of .01, indicating significance (F-statistic>2.1392 and P<.05); the JSS Satisfaction with Nature of Work Subscale yielded a total mean score of 18.18, a standard deviation of 4.51, an F-statistic of .05, and a p value of .82, not indicating significance (F-statistic>2.1392 and

$P < .05$); and the totals of the JSS Supervision and Nature of Work Subscales yielded a total mean score of 36.18, a standard deviation of 7.96, an F-statistic of 1.98, and a p value of .16, not indicating significance ($F\text{-statistic} > 2.1392$ and $P < .05$). Overall, the results of the analysis of variance indicated no significant relationship between direct reports and the JSS scores reported by participants (See Table 24).

Table 24. *Descriptive Statistics and ANOVA of Scales and Subscales Based on Direct Reports*

	Mean	SD	F	P
JSS Supervision Subscale	18.00	4.59	7.51	.01
JSS Nature of Work Subscale	18.18	4.51	.05	.82
Total of Supervision and Nature of Work Subscales	36.18	7.96	1.98	.16

Results of the ANOVA, based on physical location, with a 95% confidence interval were as follows: the JSS Satisfaction with Supervision Subscale yielded a total mean score of 18.00, a standard deviation of 4.59, an F-statistic of 2.84 and a p value of .02, indicating significance ($F\text{-statistic} > 2.1392$ and $P < .05$); the JSS Satisfaction with Nature of Work Subscale yielded a total mean score of 18.18, a standard deviation of 4.51, an F-statistic of 3.12, and a p value of .01, indicating significance ($F\text{-statistic} > 2.1392$ and $P < .05$); and the totals of the JSS Supervision and Nature of Work Subscales yielded a total mean score of 36.18, a standard deviation of 7.96, an F-statistic of 2.91, and a p value of .01, indicating significance ($F\text{-statistic} > 2.1392$ and $P < .05$). Overall, the results of the analysis of variance allowed the researcher to reject the null hypothesis that job satisfaction scores between physical location categories (same office, same floor-different office, same building-different floor, same city-

different building, same country-different city, and different country) (See Table 25).

Table 25. *Descriptive Statistics and ANOVA of Scales and Subscales Based on Physical Location*

	Mean	SD	F	P
JSS Supervision Subscale	18.00	4.59	2.84	.02
JSS Nature of Work Subscale	18.18	4.51	3.12	.01
Total of Supervision and Nature of Work Subscales	36.18	7.96	2.91	.01

Pearson Correlation for Physical Location Categories and Job Satisfaction

A bivariate correlation was conducted to examine the relationship between the physical location of a subordinate, relative to his or her direct supervisor, and job satisfaction. The purpose of this correlation was to explore the null hypothesis that there was no significant correlation between the physical location of a subordinate, relative to his or her direct supervisor, and overall job satisfaction. For the purposes of this study, job satisfaction was measured by the JSS supervisor and nature of work facet scores. Results of the Pearson's Product Moment correlation between physical location and total JSS score (Table 26) resulted in a correlation of -0.08 ($r = -0.08$) with a p value of .10 ($p = .10$) indicating that there was very little significance in the correlation between the physical location of a subordinate, relative to his or her direct supervisor, and JSS supervisor and nature of work facet scores. These results led to the inability to reject the null hypothesis. One possible reason for this seemingly contradicting result (the results of the ANOVA led to the rejection of the null hypothesis) could be due to the uneven distribution of respondents into physical

location categories (123 respondents shared an office with their supervisor, 58 were on the same floor but in different offices, 27 respondents were in the same building but on a different floor, 13 were in same city but a different building, nine respondents reside in the same country as their direct supervisor but were located in a city other than their direct supervisor, and one respondent different country).

Table 26. *Pearson Correlation between Physical Location and Total JSS Score*

		Employee-supervisor location: If you have a direct supervisor, where is your direct supervisor in relation to where you normally work, e.g., your office?	Total Score
Employee-supervisor location: If you have a direct supervisor, where is your direct supervisor in relation to where you normally work, e.g., your office?	Pearson Correlation	1 .00	-.08
	Sig. (2- tailed)		.20
	<i>N</i>	231	231
	Pearson Correlation	-.08	1 .00
Total Score	Sig. (2- tailed)	.20	
	<i>N</i>	231	231

The findings largely demonstrated that the correlations proved to be significant. The Pearson Correlation between physical location and JSS scores appears to border between “no significance” and “small significance.” This result will be discussed further in Chapter 5.

Pearson Correlations for Selected Demographics and Job Satisfaction

Results of the Pearson's Product Moment correlation between gender and total JSS score (Table 27) were a correlation of 0.02 ($r = 0.02$) with a significance of .74 ($p = .74$). This result indicated that there was a negligible correlation between gender and JSS supervisor and nature of work facet scores.

Table 27. *Pearson Correlation between Gender and Total JSS Score*

		Gender	Total Score
Gender	Pearson Correlation	1.00	.02
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.74
	<i>N</i>	231	231
Total Score	Pearson Correlation	.02	1.00
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.74	
	<i>N</i>	231	231

Results of the Pearson's Product Moment correlation between age and total JSS score (Table 28) were a correlation of 0.06 ($r = 0.06$) with a significance of .33 ($p = .33$). This result indicated that there was a negligible correlation between age and JSS supervisor and nature of work facet scores.

Table 28. *Pearson Correlation between Age and Total JSS Score*

		Age	Total Score
Age	Pearson Correlation	1.00	.06
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.33
	<i>N</i>	231	231
Total Score	Pearson Correlation	.06	1.00
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.33	
	<i>N</i>	231	231

Results of the Pearson's Product Moment correlation between job tenure and total JSS score (Table 29) were a correlation of 0.09 ($r = 0.09$) with a significance of .15

($p=.15$). This result indicated that there was a negligible correlation between job tenure and JSS supervisor and nature of work facet scores.

Table 29. *Pearson Correlation between Job Tenure and Total JSS Score*

		Job Tenure	Total Score
Job Tenure	Pearson Correlation	1.00	.09
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.15
	<i>N</i>	231	231
Total Score	Pearson Correlation	.09	1.00
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.15	
	<i>N</i>	231	231

Results of the Pearson's Product Moment correlation between tenure with supervisor and total JSS score (Table 30) were a correlation of 0.23 ($r = 0.23$) with a significance of .00 ($p = .00$). This result indicated that there was a weak positive relationship between tenure with supervisor and JSS supervisor and nature of work facet scores.

Table 30. *Pearson Correlation between Tenure with Supervisor and Total JSS Score*

		Tenure with Supervisor	Total Score
Tenure with Supervisor	Pearson Correlation	1.00	.23
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.00
	<i>N</i>	231	231
Total Score	Pearson Correlation	.23	1.00
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.00	
	<i>N</i>	231	231

Results of the Pearson's Product Moment correlation between direct reports and total JSS score (Table 31) were a correlation of 0.09 ($r = 0.09$) with a significance of .16 ($p = .16$). This result indicated that there was a negligible correlation between direct reports and JSS supervisor and nature of work facet scores.

Table 31. *Pearson Correlation between Direct Reports and Total JSS Score*

		Direct Reports	Total Score
Direct Reports	Pearson Correlation	1.00	.09
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.16
	<i>N</i>	231	231
Total Score	Pearson Correlation	.09	1.00
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.16	
	<i>N</i>	231	231

Results of the Pearson's Product Moment correlation between job status and total JSS score (Table 32) were a correlation of -0.17 ($r = -0.17$) with a significance of .01 ($p = .01$). This result indicated that there was a weak negative correlation between job status and JSS supervisor and nature of work facet scores.

Table 32. *Pearson Correlation between Job Status and Total JSS Score*

		Job Status	Total Score
Job Status	Pearson Correlation	1.00	-.17
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.01
	<i>N</i>	231	231
Total Score	Pearson Correlation	-.17	1.00
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.01	
	<i>N</i>	231	231

Results of the Pearson's Product Moment correlation between industry and total JSS score (Table 33) were a correlation of -0.14 ($r = -0.14$) with a significance of .03 ($p = .03$). This result indicated that there was a weak negative correlation between gender, and JSS supervisor and nature of work facet scores.

Table 33. *Pearson Correlation between Industry and Total JSS Score*

		Industry	Total Score
Industry	Pearson Correlation	1.00	-.14
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.03
	<i>N</i>	231	231
Total Score	Pearson Correlation	-.14	1.00
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.03	
	<i>N</i>	231	231

CHAPTER 5. DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS

Restatement of the Problem

The costs associated with recruiting, selecting, and training new employees often exceed “100% of the annual salary for the position being filled” (Cascio, 2006, p. 201), and as a consequence, employee retention remains a precarious issue for organizations and managers (Allen, Bryant, & Vardaman, 2010, p. 48). Researchers revealed the relationship between employee satisfaction and organizations’ performance (Bontis & Fitz-enz, 2002; Maister, 2001; Schleicher et al., 2004). Unfortunately, very little scholarly information addresses the relationship between employee job satisfaction and supervisor physical location. The problem is that although significant work was previously performed on studying job satisfaction, very little attention was paid to employee job satisfaction and its possible relationship to employee/supervisor physical location. The goal of this study was to address this gap in job satisfaction research. This study focused primarily on how employee/supervisor physical location impacts job satisfaction in the workplace and the implications that it may have for the study of industrial/organizational psychology.

Explanation of the Literature Review

The literature review revealed a lack of empirical evidence for the locations of the employee and supervisor and its possible correlation to a change in employee job satisfaction. The literature review was conducted to explore the underlying explanations for employee job satisfaction. Specifically, the literature review sought to explore the significance of the supervisor-subordinate relationship; and because this study explored the supervisor-subordinate physical location and employee satisfaction connection,

Chapter 2 discussed the influence of the physical workspace. Chapter 2 also reviewed the literature focused on employee job satisfaction, the effect of employee job satisfaction on employee job performance, and finally the impact of employee job satisfaction on organizational performance. Based on the review, it was determined that there was sufficient literature that supported the value of this study. The review further established the justification for choosing job satisfaction as a relevant variable to study differentiation, as it is the most widely studied variable in industrial/organizational psychology.

Study Overview

This research explored one hypothesis to demonstrate a relationship between the physical location of employees and supervisors and job satisfaction through a correlational analysis between scores on the Spector Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and the physical location of employees and supervisors, relative to one another. The hypothesis was simply that there was a significant relationship between the physical location of employees and supervisors and job satisfaction.

Findings

The purpose of this study was to contribute to the existing employee job satisfaction research by exploring the dependent variable of employee job satisfaction, as measured by the JSS, and its possible relationship to the independent variable employee/supervisor physical location. This study explored the relationship between employee/supervisor physical location and job satisfaction through an analysis of the scores of 231 (n=231) individuals on the Spector Job Satisfaction Survey. An ANOVA was performed on some of the findings to determine whether physical

location had any impact on the results. In order to demonstrate significance, the ANOVA needed to generate an F-statistic, the ratio of the between groups variance and the within groups variance, greater than 2.1392 (as calculated with G*Power) and a p-value, the chance of a highly improbable event occurring, less than .05. The results of an F-statistic of 2.91 and a p-value of .01 for the Supervision and Nature of Work Subscales, combined, yielded some significance that is worthy of further discussion.

The results of an F-statistic of 2.91 and a p-value of .01 for the Supervision and Nature of Work Subscales were not unexpected. It would seem more than plausible that an employee may feel more comfortable and experience higher job satisfaction without the specter of their supervisor peering from above them. Tsai and Wu (2008) found that employees are more likely to display organizational citizenship behaviors and are usually absent less, less likely to leave, when they experience higher job satisfaction. As a result, operations tend to run much more smoothly when employees remain long enough to know customers, suppliers, and their fellow employees (Tsai & Wu, 2008).

The results of the Pearson's Product Moment correlation were a bit surprising. The Pearson Correlation coefficient of $-.08$ indicated a "none to small" inverse correlation between JSS total scores and employee-supervisor physical location categories. The ANOVA results indicated a rejection of the null hypothesis and the bar graph of the JSS total score means by employee-supervisor physical location categories (Figure 1) appeared to have shown a trend towards higher JSS total score means as employee-supervisor physical location varies from sharing the same office

as your supervisor to being in a different country.

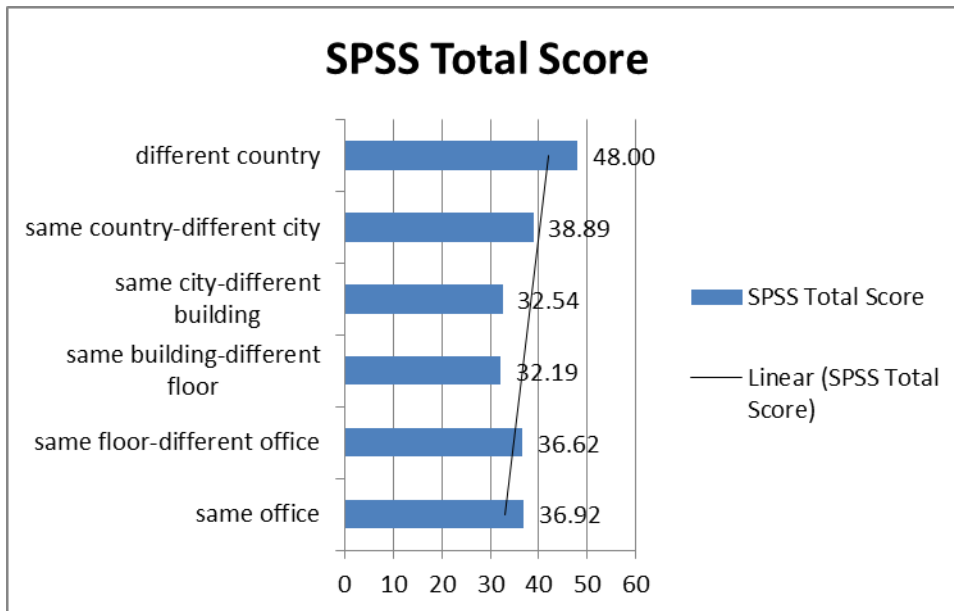


Figure 6. SPSS Total Score Means by Employee-Supervisor Location Category

The findings of this study were also in alignment with Lingard and Francis' (2004) study, which suggested that where an employee works has an impact on employee experiences. Hoppock (1935) indicated that employee supervision affects employee job satisfaction, while Kim (2002) noted that physical location may have an impact on effective supervisor-subordinate communications, which can affect employee job satisfaction. Location can also have a marked impact on the observed occurrence of important organizational behaviors, such as making good ethical decisions, striving towards achievement, avoiding absenteeism attendance, and demonstrating courteousness (Johns, 2006).

Applications

There are potential implications as a result of determining a link between employee-supervisor physical location and job satisfaction within the

industrial/organizational consulting relationship. A consultant may address the issue of low job satisfaction by recommending an office layout that may generate higher morale. The consultant could also suggest telecommuting as a viable option to increase job satisfaction. The results can also lead to focused remedies for interactions between employees and supervisors working in proximity to one another.

Individuals 6 to 15 years away from the traditional retirement age (ages 50 to 59) were more satisfied than the other four age groups (Table 9). This result may be due to these individuals seeing retirement on the horizon. The 18 to 29 age group reported the second highest level of satisfaction. This outcome is possibly due to the fact that these employees are just beginning their careers and have not yet developed any animosity towards their work or towards their direct supervisor. There is a definite ascension in reported satisfaction scores for age groups between 30 and to 60 years of age. The trend drops after the age of 60, possibly because individuals have become eager to move on to retirement.

According to the results of this study, the “honeymoon” phase between an employee and their current supervisor ends somewhere between the first six months to one year of their union. During this six-month period, the mean JSS score for the total supervisor and the work facets dropped from 35.36 to 32.30 with an actual mean score of 15.67 for the “Satisfaction with Supervisor” facet. After one year, however, satisfaction with the total supervisor and the work facets increased to 38.52 (Table 11). One year may be how long it takes to adjust to a new supervisor.

JSS scores were slightly higher for individuals without direct reports (36.85 to 35.37, Table 12). This finding is a little puzzling because it would seem that individuals

with direct reports would be able to better identify with the plight of their direct supervisor. Another surprising outcome was that the mean JSS scores were higher for individuals who were employed full-time. It was somewhat surprising because it would appear that full-time employees potentially have more interactions with their supervisor and thus a higher chance to become dissatisfied (Table 13).

Limitations

Carlson, Ferguson, Perrewé, and Whitten (2011) argued that utilizing Zoomerang's® services is an accepted data collection process, and observed that other studies in management literature (e.g., Judge, Ilies, & Scott, 2006; Neubert, Kacmar, Carlson, Chonko, & Roberts, 2008; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006) used similar data collection processes. Zoomerang has since been acquired by SurveyMonkey®. Nevertheless, a possible limitation of this study is that all 231 data samples analyzed were drawn from SurveyMonkey's® survey participant database. The fact that all participants were drawn from the same data pool impacts the sampling frame used for this study. Despite SurveyMonkey's® best efforts to create a demographically diverse participant pool, SurveyMonkey® participants signed up to take surveys online and therefore have some kind of Internet access, and as a result, these participants typically share characteristics like a lean towards higher income and higher education levels. Another concern for online surveying is incentive bias. Survey participants may have answered the questions without much thought just to complete the survey in order to collect incentives. SurveyMonkey® has attempted to mitigate incentive bias by offering contribution to selected charities and chances to participate in weekly drawings. The researcher did not offer any incentive for participation to further avoid incentive bias.

Another limitation of this study was that 230 of the 231 adults surveyed were U.S. employees. It may be beneficial to survey adult employees within other nations to determine if the relationships observed in this study are consistent with those in other nations. This study is currently generalizable to the adult U.S. employee population only. It would be beneficial to know if the relationships observed in this study can be generalized to international organizations utilizing a workforce composed of non-U.S. adult employees.

This study used the supervisor and nature of work facets of the JSS. Only the scores of the job satisfaction and nature of work facets were used in this study because these questions were most aligned with measuring an employee's satisfaction with their job as it relates to the physical location from their primary supervisor.

Recommendations for Future Research Directions

There is much work to further explore how locations of the employee and supervisor and its possible correlation to employee job satisfaction may be a factor in industrial/organizational psychology and how the study of this concept may further impact the workplace. In this study, SurveyMonkey® yielded an uneven distribution of participants into each physical location category. Future studies would be better served to have a more even distribution of participants belonging to the six mutually exclusive physical location categories. In fact in order to explore further the relationship between employee-supervisor location and employee satisfaction, future studies should aim to maximize the number of participants in each of the physical location categories. Additionally, it is suggested that the body of knowledge may benefit from a study that examines and tracks results for employee-supervisor location and employee satisfaction

over time.

Unfortunately, the study generated some results that could not be explained. Specifically, Table 9, which lists the JSS scores by age, individuals between the ages of 50 and 59 were the most satisfied of the five age groups, followed by the 18 to 29 age group, the 40 to 49 age group, the 60 to 65 age group, and then the 30 to 39 age group. It is uncertain if individuals between the ages of 50 and 59 were the most satisfied of the five age groups because these individuals were seeing retirement on the horizon. It is not known if the 18 to 29 age group reported the second highest level of satisfaction because these employees are just beginning their careers and have not yet developed any animosity towards their work or towards their direct supervisor. Lastly, it is unclear if the overall ascension in reported satisfaction scores for age groups between 30 and to 60 years of age that drops after the age of 60 was possibly because individuals have become eager to move on to retirement. The ambiguity of the correctness of the explanation of the results for job satisfaction scores reported by the various age groups is due to the lack of industrial/organizational psychology research of views toward beginning a career or retirement by age cohorts. Future studies in industrial/organizational psychology would benefit from research into the relationship between age and attitudes towards beginning a career or retirement.

Summary

To summarize, this research study was one of the first studies to explore in quantitative terms the correlation between the locations of employees and supervisors and job satisfaction. The main proposition of this study that the physical location between an employee and his or her immediate supervisor correlates to the employee's job

satisfaction score reported via the Spector Job Satisfaction Survey was proven to be significant. The fact that where an employee physically resides in the workplace, relative to their supervisor, did prove to have significance in the study is important for future research. The correlation between job satisfaction and the physical location of the employee relative to their supervisor serves as a stepping stone to understanding the use of physical space in the workplace. The understanding of the use of physical space in the workplace is paramount to the development of future physical layouts in the workplace and organizational structures that lead to increase job satisfaction and productivity.

Conclusion

Where employees conduct their work, relative to their supervisor's physical location, research proves significance in relation to predicting employee job satisfaction, as measured through the Spector Job Satisfaction Survey. This outcome holds promise for the study of employee job satisfaction within industrial/organizational psychology. More quantitative studies need to be performed in this area, linking employee job satisfaction to the physical workplace. Additionally, more studies of this type could further the applicability of redesigning workspaces or organizational structure in an effort to increase employee job satisfaction. This study represents a beginning to exploring other potential drivers of employee job satisfaction.

This study contributed to the limited literature in how the physical orientation of an organization impacts employee job satisfaction. It is anticipated that this study may drive future research on the subject. The only way to better understand job satisfaction is to investigate the issue in different ways. The goal is to provide information so that

individuals may make wise decisions in the efforts to boost employee job satisfaction and morale.

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APPENDIX A. STATEMENT OF ORIGINAL WORK

Academic Honesty Policy

Capella University's Academic Honesty Policy ([3.01.01](#)) holds learners accountable for the integrity of work they submit, which includes but is not limited to discussion postings, assignments, comprehensive exams, and the dissertation or capstone project.

Established in the Policy are the expectations for original work, rationale for the policy, definition of terms that pertain to academic honesty and original work, and disciplinary consequences of academic dishonesty. Also stated in the Policy is the expectation that learners will follow APA rules for citing another person's ideas or works.

The following standards for original work and definition of *plagiarism* are discussed in the Policy:

Learners are expected to be the sole authors of their work and to acknowledge the authorship of others' work through proper citation and reference. Use of another person's ideas, including another learner's, without proper reference or citation constitutes plagiarism and academic dishonesty and is prohibited conduct. (p. 1)

Plagiarism is one example of academic dishonesty. Plagiarism is presenting someone else's ideas or work as your own. Plagiarism also includes copying verbatim or rephrasing ideas without properly acknowledging the source by author, date, and publication medium. (p. 2)

Capella University's Research Misconduct Policy ([3.03.06](#)) holds learners accountable for research integrity. What constitutes research misconduct is discussed in the Policy:

Research misconduct includes but is not limited to falsification, fabrication, plagiarism, misappropriation, or other practices that seriously deviate from those that are commonly accepted within the academic community for proposing, conducting, or reviewing research, or in reporting research results. (p. 1)

Learners failing to abide by these policies are subject to consequences, including but not limited to dismissal or revocation of the degree.

Statement of Original Work and Signature

I have read, understood, and abided by Capella University's Academic Honesty Policy ([3.01.01](#)) and Research Misconduct Policy ([3.03.06](#)), including the Policy Statements, Rationale, and Definitions.

I attest that this dissertation or capstone project is my own work. Where I have used the ideas or words of others, I have paraphrased, summarized, or used direct quotes following the guidelines set forth in the *APA Publication Manual*.

Learner name
and date

Mentor name
and school

APPENDIX B. QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Gender
 - a) Male
 - b) Female
2. Age
 - a) Under 21
 - b) 21-29
 - c) 30-39
 - d) 40-49
 - e) 50-59
 - f) 60-69
 - g) 70 or over
3. Job tenure
 - a) 0 to 1 Years
 - b) 1 to 5 Years
 - c) 5 to 10 Years
 - d) 10 to 15 Years
 - e) 15 to 20 Years
 - f) Over 20Years
4. Tenure with Supervisor
 - c) 0 to 6 months
 - d) 6 months to 1 year
 - e) Over 1 year
5. Do you have direct reports?
 - a) Yes
 - b) No
6. Job Status
 - a) Full-time
 - b) Part-time

7. What is the principal industry of your organization?
- a) Other
 - b) Agriculture, Mining
 - c) Construction
 - d) Finance, Insurance, Real Estate
 - e) Government
 - f) Health Care
 - g) Internet
 - h) Manufacturing
 - i) Retail, Wholesale
 - j) Services
 - k) Transportation
 - l) Communications, Utilities
 - m) Nonprofit
8. Employee-supervisor location: if you have no direct supervisor answer with "A". If you have a direct supervisor, where is your direct supervisor in relation to where you normally work, e.g., your office?
- a) same office
 - b) same floor-different office
 - c) same building-different floor
 - d) same city-different building
 - e) same country-different city
 - f) different country

Spector Job Satisfaction Survey

From Job Satisfaction Survey by P. E. Spector, 1994, Department of Psychology,
University of South Florida. Copyright 1994 by P. E. Spector. Reprinted with permission.

9. My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.

- a) Disagree very much
- b) Disagree moderately
- c) Disagree slightly
- d) Agree slightly
- e) Agree moderately
- f) Agree very much

10. I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.

- a) Disagree very much
- a) Disagree moderately
- b) Disagree slightly
- c) Agree slightly
- d) Agree moderately
- e) Agree very much

11. My supervisor is unfair to me.

- a) Disagree very much
- b) Disagree moderately
- c) Disagree slightly
- d) Agree slightly
- e) Agree moderately
- f) Agree very much

12. I like doing the things I do at work.

- a) Disagree very much
- b) Disagree moderately
- c) Disagree slightly
- d) Agree slightly
- e) Agree moderately
- f) Agree very much

13. My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.

- a) Disagree very much
- b) Disagree moderately
- c) Disagree slightly
- d) Agree slightly
- e) Agree moderately
- f) Agree very much

14. I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.

- a) Disagree very much
- b) Disagree moderately
- c) Disagree slightly
- d) Agree slightly
- e) Agree moderately
- f) Agree very much

15. I like my supervisor.

- a) Disagree very much
- b) Disagree moderately
- c) Disagree slightly
- d) Agree slightly
- e) Agree moderately
- f) Agree very much

16. My job is enjoyable.

- a) Disagree very much
- b) Disagree moderately
- c) Disagree slightly
- d) Agree slightly
- e) Agree moderately
- f) Agree very much