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The Relationships Among Job Satisfaction, Length of Employment, and Mentoring of Nursing Faculty

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COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

This is to certify that the doctoral study by

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Abstract

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MA, New York University, 1978

BSN, Hunter College-Bellevue School of Nursing, 1974

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Proposal

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Abstract

The shortage of faculty in nursing education programs has been well documented by the National League for Nursing. Job satisfaction is important in retaining nurse educators, and one New York nursing program was interested in examining the potential impact of mentoring on satisfaction. The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine job satisfaction, measured by the Job Descriptive Index/Job in General scale (JDI/JIG), between nurse faculty participants in formal mentoring programs compared to participants receiving an informal type of mentoring. In addition, the length of employment was examined as a possible factor in predicting job satisfaction. The theoretical framework for the study included Knowles's theory of adult learning, Maslow's theory on motivation, and Erikson's theory of psychosocial development. Forty-nine nursing faculty completed a survey with 2 components including a faculty questionnaire and the JDI/JIG scale. Logistic regression was used to assess whether formal mentoring programs or length of employment were predictive of job satisfaction. Scores on the 6 component parts of the JDI/JIG determined job satisfaction. Neither length of employment nor formal mentoring programs were predictive of job satisfaction. Recommendations included continued research on job satisfaction with larger samples of nurse faculty. These findings will promote positive social change by informing discussions at the local site on ways to improve job satisfaction amongst nursing faculty, which could reduce the nursing faculty shortage at the local site.

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Dedication

This is dedicated to my family without whom I could not have achieved this goal. To my parents Jacob and Jeanette Socholitzky, you are always in my corner. To my daughter Rebecca, you gave help whenever I asked, and most importantly, to Edward, my husband, you supported and believed in me throughout the process. I would not have succeeded without you.

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Lastly, this project could not have been accomplished without the dedicated nurse educators in the New York State associate-degree nursing programs.

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Section 1: Introduction to the Study

Introduction

The nursing education community is experiencing a faculty shortage. According to the National League for Nursing (National League for Nursing [NLN], 2006; NLN, 2010), the percentage of open faculty positions in this country is 7.9 % in baccalaureate and higher degree programs and 5.6 % in associate degree programs (NLN, 2006, para. 1). In a "Special Survey on Vacant Faculty Positions for the Academic Year 2010 – 2011," the American Association of Colleges of Nursing (American Association of Colleges of Nursing [AACN], 2010) found that 556 schools surveyed had 880 (6.9%) vacant faculty positions. Furthermore, this AACN study revealed that schools with no current vacancies identified the need for an additional 112 faculty positions (AACN, 2010). In 2007 – 2008, the NLN's annual Nursing Data Review (NLN, 2009) noted, "eighty-four percent of U.S. nursing schools attempted to hire new faculty" (p.7), but found it "difficult to very difficult" (p. 7). This continuing faculty shortage, in turn, has created a situation where qualified students cannot enroll in nursing programs (AACN, 2006; AACN, 2012; AACN, 2014; NLN, 2005).

Suggested reasons for this deficit include aging of current faculty, an increased number of part-time faculties, budget constraints, salary, and lack of doctoral prepared educators (AACN, 2006; AACN, 2014; NLN, 2006). These factors continue to trend in nursing education. Another significant factor, according to Morgan (2005) is that a school culture that lacks collegiality can lead to discord and lack of collaboration among faculty. This negative environment may then adversely influence a faculty member's sense of job

satisfaction and his/her willingness to either remain in the faculty role or join as a new faculty member. Without faculty, schools cannot admit a sufficient number of students to overcome the deficit (AACN, 2006; Reid, Hinderer, Jarosinski, Mister & Seldomridge, 2013). Fewer nursing students can then have a negative impact on the healthcare of this country, as there will be fewer nurses to care for our population.

In response to the faculty shortage, the NLN (2006) has identified formal mentoring programs as a means to attract and retain faculty. Over time, a mentoring relationship can facilitate the achievement and development of faculty through the structure, support, and coaching it provides. In addition, Sullivan (2001) has suggested that the "social component" of mentoring increases job satisfaction by decreasing "role ambiguity and conflict" (p.68) and increases retention and "intent to stay" (p.3) by nursing faculty. A formal mentoring program integrates an identified strategy by a school to engage new and senior faculty in the development of a teacher/learner relationship. Currently, there is limited information in the literature that discusses the relationship between formal mentoring programs, length of employment and job satisfaction in nursing programs (Elliott, 2007).

Problem Statement

Further study is needed to determine if participation in formal mentoring programs is related to improved job satisfaction within associate-degree nursing programs. Job satisfaction was examined in new faculty, two years or less of employment, and senior faculty. Additionally, some associate-degree nursing programs use a formal mentoring program while others do not. It is believed that faculty who are

employed at a nursing program with formal mentoring will be more satisfied with their faculty role.

Research Questions

RQ1: Is job satisfaction as measured by the JDI/JIG scale more likely to occur for new faculty than senior faculty in associate-degree nursing programs in New York State?

$H_0$1: Faculty length of employment does not affect the respondent's perception of job satisfaction as measured on each of the six JDI/JIG components.

$H_1$1: Faculty length of employment does affect the respondent's perception of job satisfaction as measured on each of the six JDI/JIG components.

RQ2: Is job satisfaction as measured by the JDI/JIG scale more likely to occur for faculty when a formal mentoring program is in use by associate-degree nursing programs in New York State?

$H_0$2: Participation in formal mentoring programs affects the respondent's perception of job satisfaction as measured on each of the six JDI/JIG components.

H_1*2*: Formal mentoring programs do not appear related to the respondent's perception of job satisfaction as measured on each of the six JDI/JIG components.

Research Objectives

The objective of this research is to examine the probability of job satisfaction in both senior and new faculty at associate-degree programs in nursing who participate in either formal or informal mentoring programs. This would support the recommendation of the NLN (2006) that formal mentoring programs would aid in attracting new faculty and help promote faculty retention. The study's focus also examines the differences in

senior and new faculty members' perception of formal mentoring and informal mentoring programs on job satisfaction.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to identify the possible relationship between length of employment, formalized mentoring and job satisfaction in associate-degree nursing programs. The literature supports the idea that a school's environment, the collaboration and support a faculty member experiences, may contribute to job satisfaction through relationships formed (Baker, 2010; Dow, 2014; Hutchinson, 2003; Smith & Zsohar, 2007; Thorpe & Kalischuk, 2003; Wagner & Seymour, 2007). Extrinsic, prosocial and intrinsic motivation have been identified as important issues related to mentoring (Grant, 2008; Kent, 2006; Pololi & Knight, 2005; Smith & Zsohar, 2007). Motivation, specifically the form of it experienced by the faulty member, may influence the member's willingness to participate in a mentoring relationship as well as affecting the quality of the association that is developed.

Locally, nursing programs experiencing a faculty shortage may benefit from a formal mentoring strategy. This strategy may lead to increased job satisfaction and nurses who willingly enter or remain in the faculty role. However, research pertaining to nursing faculty in associate-degree nursing programs mentoring other faculty using a formal process is limited. It is important to determine which approach will assist in adding and retaining faculty in schools of nursing and ultimately increase the number of nurses available to the workforce.

The Nature of the Study

This quantitative study used a survey design to determine whether formal mentoring programs relate to job satisfaction in associate-degree nursing programs. The associate-degree nursing programs selected are in New York State. The schools follow different curricula, but are each accredited by the NLN. A survey containing two components, a faculty questionnaire and the Job Descriptive Index (JDI)/Job in General (JIG) scale, was used. The two component parts were used to determine if faculty participants with two different types of mentoring experiences have disparate views of job satisfaction. Creswell (2003) stated, "A survey design provides a quantitative or numeric description of trends, attitudes or opinions of a population by studying a sample of that population" (p.153). Use of a survey design, sent through Survey Monkey, facilitated the ease with which faculty from across New York State could participate. Further description of the research method is discussed in Section 3.

Theoretical Base

Knowles's Theory

Knowles's (1970) theory of adult learning, andragogy, frames this study, as the mentor/mentee relationship occurring between educators is one that facilitates the process of adult learning in the academic setting. Knowles's andragogical model of learning has evolved over time to encompass six major concepts.

The first is the need to know. Adult learners must recognize the benefits that the knowledge gained will give them. The second involves the learners' self-concepts. As adults, individuals must recognize that they are responsible for their own learning and

that learning can be achieved. Accordingly, adults should not be placed in the dependent learning role of a child. The third concept is the role of learners' expertise. Adults gain experiences throughout their years of living. Their personae of being adults are defined by these life experiences, and these experiences have value. These occurrences can augment and enhance the learning in a positive manner. However, experience itself can also have a negative effect on learning. This negativity may derive from a close-minded view of new ideas, biases, and previous learned habits (Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 2005). Concept four relates to readiness to learn. This concept stresses the importance of the idea or task as something significant to the learner's ability to perform and function effectively. The fifth concept reflects an orientation to learning. Adults must perceive the knowledge attained as having application to their lives and be motivated to become skilled at developing this area. The last concept in this model refers to motivation. Knowles et al. (2005) identified motivators for the adult as deriving from either an internal or external position. Examples of external motivators are the results that accrue leading to better jobs, promotion, and increased salary. Internal motivators, which are seen as having greater importance, are those that result in improved self-esteem and enhanced job satisfaction (Knowles et al., 2005).

Adults are the learners in a faculty-to-faculty mentoring relationship. Knowledge of how adults learn is an important aspect to understanding how to best develop and encourage new faculty in their roles as educators. Additionally, awareness of adult learning theory has implications for how formal mentoring programs are constructed.

Maslow's Theory

Maslow's (1970) theory addresses motivation. Recognition of why someone chooses to mentor, that is, the motivation behind that choice, has relevance to the development of a successful mentoring relationship. Mentoring relationships require time, energy and the idea of taking a chance on another person. Maslow's hierarchy of needs can provide a foundation for understanding how motivation can influence a person's willingness to undertake a mentoring relationship.

Maslow's (1970) motivation theory identifies all people as having basic needs. These basic needs influence a person's behavior and are ranked from the lowest level to the highest level. Respectively, the needs are as follows: physiologic, safety and security, love and belonging, self-esteem, and self-actualization. Love and belonging needs include the desire for friendships and relationships. Self-esteem needs encompass the importance of achievement, confidence, recognition, and feelings of capability. Self-actualization needs imply that a person has reached his or her fullest potential. Each of the needs can overlap in time and do not need to be sequential. According to Maslow, striving to achieve these needs is what motivates humans. Within a mentoring relationship, achievement of the need for love and belonging, self-esteem, and self-actualization can occur. Maslow believed that, "the pursuit and gratification of the higher needs have desirable civic and social consequences" (1970, p.58). Need satisfaction may then be contributory towards a positive work environment.

Pursuant to this study, the awareness of which needs will best motivate a faculty member to mentor another may be significant in improving faculty job satisfaction at

associate-degree schools of nursing. Job satisfaction is relevant to both the mentor and the mentee, as both the experienced educator and new faculty are desirable at schools of nursing.

Erickson's Theory

Erikson (1963) suggests that a person moves through eight stages of psychosocial development. At each stage, the person must master conflicts and difficulties to proceed to the next healthy stage. Erickson's theory of psychosocial development was based on Freudian theory. This theory emphasizes a healthy approach to personality development as "opposed to a pathologic approach" (Hockenberry and Wilson, 2009, p.79). Familiarity with the eight stages and awareness of where each of the members in the mentor/mentee relationship is can support the partnership. Utilization of Erikson's theory can facilitate the understanding of a person's psychosocial development at different stages of his/her life. This can aid in identifying what is important to the individual. Stages one through five refers to childhood development. This study will consider the adult years.

Relationship of Theories

Erikson's (1963) life-span developmental theory contributed to Knowles's (1970) andragogical model of adult learning. Knowles (1970) establishes a relationship between the periods in the lives of adults when they need to learn, and when they are most motivated to learn. One aspect of Maslow's (1970) theory, "emphasizes the role of safety" (Knowles et al., 2005, p 46) and purports that in order to learn, a person needs to feel secure in the process of learning and in the development of the relationship between

teacher and learner. Other facets of Maslow's theory refer to the need to belong, self-esteem, and self-actualization. These three theories highlight different elements of the mentor/mentee relationship and are applicable to the connection between creating a mentoring relationship and the development of job satisfaction in schools of nursing.

Definitions

Associate-degree nursing program: A program of study, upon completion of which, a person can sit for the licensure exam to become a registered professional nurse. This program can be completed in a minimum of two years.

External compensation: A benefit that is given to a mentor for their participation in a formal mentoring program. This can occur through money, time, or advancement in the faculty role.

Formal mentoring program: A program that uses an established protocol that provides structure and guidance and is used by a designated senior faculty member in the development of a new faculty member.

Full-time faculty: For the purposes of this study, a faculty member who teaches nursing on a full-time basis as defined by the school's governing organization. Full-time faculty responsibilities include planning and revision of the curriculum, student advisement, and program evaluation.

Informal mentoring: Senior and new faculty who enter into a mentoring relationship without organizational involvement.

Job satisfaction: A feeling of contentment and fulfillment within the work environment as measured by the JDI and JIG scale (Balzer et al., 2000).

Mentoring: A dynamic state that encompasses two or more individuals in a teaching learning process. The relationship formed is supportive in nature. It becomes a means for educators to share knowledge and expertise with the next generation of faculty over an extended period. Mentoring helps socialize a mentee into a new role (NLN, 2006; Ridout, 2006; St. Clair, 1994).

New faculty: Faculty employed for two years or less at the school.

Part-time/adjunct faculty: For the purposes of this study, a faculty member who teaches nursing on a part-time basis as defined by the school's governing organization. The faculty member's responsibilities at the school are fewer than full-time faculty.

Senior faculty: Faculty employed more than two years at the school.

Major Concepts

Adult Learners

According to Knowles's (1970) model of adult learning, the adult learner is self-directed and motivated, goal oriented, sees relevance for the subject of learning, is practical, has prior knowledge and experience, and needs respect from others (Russell, 2006). As a new faculty member, the mentee is both teacher to the students and learner of the new educator role or new aspects of the post. As an adult learner, the expectation is that previous learned knowledge and experience transfers to this new position or role. Furthermore, the new faculty member is in a new environment and, though possessing nursing experience, may lack knowledge of the current workplace and social cues of its culture. The functions of a mentor uphold the constructs of adult learning. A mentor helps the mentee build upon learned knowledge. Their relationship requires respect, is goal

oriented, relevant, and has practical application to the learner's needs. Intentionally, the mentor becomes a resource for the mentee and can facilitate this learning. This is consistent with Erikson's (1963) stage of Generativity. Gaskin, Lumpkin and Tennant (2003) maintain that:

> Mentors provide support and information regarding the institutional culture, rules, and processes; assist with instructional planning and dealing with student issues; guide the development of research and publication skills; collaborate on or facilitate scholarly contributions; offer advice about involvement in service activities; and assist with time and stress management. (p. 49)

However, the form mentorship takes at the educational institution, formal or informal, is not mandated. Without a structured process for assisting new educators to learn their role, difficulties may be encountered.

Nurses Transitioning into Education

The profession of nursing requires many skills and an education where there is application of knowledge within a clinical setting (Chung & Kowalski, 2012; Taylor, Lillis, & LeMone, 1989/2005). Nurses must endeavor to keep pace with an ever-changing body of scientific knowledge. Preparing students to function in such a dynamic environment requires the educator to not only have an understanding of nursing knowledge, but also be able to facilitate students' learning within such an environment.

However, the traditional education of a nurse primarily encompasses how to assess a patient, analyze data, and plan, implement and evaluate a program of care. It does not emphasize how to educate students in the context of school. Therefore, unless a

nurse has taken advanced courses in education or has arrived at nursing as a second career, teaching at a school of nursing is a new function that has not been previously learned. Benner, Sulphen, Leonard, and Day (2009) in *Educating Nurses: A Call for Radical Transformation* noted that most faculty members who earn masters or doctoral degrees in nursing do so without receiving much training on how to teach. The presence of a mentor, someone to offer support and guidance, can ease a nurse into the new educator role. The availability of a mentor may, therefore, bring about feelings of comfort within the new role, expand the mentee's knowledge base and contribute to job satisfaction (Billings & Kowalski, 2008; Hessler & Ritchie, 2006; Reid et al., 2013).

Mentoring

The term "mentoring" dates back to ancient Greece. In Homer's epic, *The Odyssey*, Mentor was the sage who guided Telemachus, son of Odysseus (Graves, 1974). Use of the word mentor derives from this tale. Its usage as a noun, as seen in the Oxford English Dictionary, dates to 1750 (Zellers, Howard, & Barcic, 2008). Today, mentoring often describes a long-term, empowering, and dynamic process and refers to a more experienced person sharing their knowledge, giving support, and socializing a mentee into a new role (NLN, 2006; Ridout, 2006; St. Clair, 1994). The term mentoring can function as either a noun or a verb (Lindberg, 2007).

Congruent with this definition of mentoring are the NLN's expectations and recommendations, or core competencies, of nurse educators. These competencies are: (a) facilitate learning; (b) facilitate learner development and socialization; (c) use assessment and evaluation strategies; (d) participate in curriculum design and evaluation of program

outcomes; (e) function as a change agent and leader; (f) pursue continuous improvement in the nurse educator role; (g) engage in scholarship; and (h) function within the educational environment (NLN, 2005). These competencies reflect the diverse educational expectations of the nurse educator practicing in a school setting. Specifically, competency (f) reflects the nurse educators' role as multidimensional and emphasizes the need for a commitment to ongoing role development. Mentoring and the support of colleagues is one of the tasks in this competency (NLN, 2005). The expectations required of the nurse educator are that the educator will participate in meeting the core components that the NLN has determined and meet the educational needs of students.

A first time nurse educator is an adult learner in an academic setting and moves from a position of expert in the clinical field to that of novice in the educational field. Senior faculty members are in a position to mentor those faculty members with less teaching experience. As a mentor, the experienced faculty member can act as a guide, a sponsor, a teacher, role model, counselor, and an advisor to facilitate the new educator's transition into the role (Smith & Zsohar, 2007; Thorpe & Kalischuk, 2003). Mentoring connotes a collaborative approach to professional development and engenders "a positive effect on nursing clinicians turned educators" (Smith & Zsohar, 2007, p. 184). Additionally, Sallee Williams (1998) stated that:

> The purposes of mentorship are to: (a) provide new faculty members with a support structure that facilitates learning about the academic culture; (b) help the faculty member attain the rewards of reappointment, tenure, and promotion; and (c) assist faculty without the doctoral degree to pursue their scholarship. (p. 138)

For the purposes of this study, the term *mentoring* refers to a dynamic state that encompasses two or more individuals in a teaching and learning process. The relationship formed is supportive in nature. It becomes a means for educators to share knowledge and expertise with the next generation of faculty over an extended period. Mentoring supports the socialization of the mentee into the new role (NLN, 2006; Ridout, 2006; St. Clair, 1994).

Formal mentoring. A formal mentor role is one that is arranged and has preset criteria. A formal mentor program has an established protocol that provides structure and guidance; a designated senior faculty member assists the development of a new faculty member (Allen, 2006; Patterson & Patterson, 2004; Peters, 2006) and uses the protocol. A formal mentoring program may last from 6-12 months (Egan & Song, 2008) or longer depending on the relationship developed between the mentor and mentee. Suplee and Gardner (2009) concur and indicate that, in addition to the initial meeting with the mentor, meetings should occur "throughout the first year" (p.517). In agreement about the extended length of time the mentor role requires, Dunham-Taylor, Lynn, Moore, McDaniel and Walker (2008) have also described a mentoring process that extends over time. They believe a long period allows a new faculty member to develop and become acclimated to the new environment and seek answers to questions and issues that arise over time.

A selection process for choosing a mentor is often the province of administration or the human resources department of the institution. This process may look at teacher expertise, willingness to mentor or voluntary participation, gender, race, mentor/mentee

schedule, and/or the perceived level of caring in the teacher. Additional characteristics and traits valued in a mentor, as defined in the literature, are trust, empathy, honesty, dependability, confidentiality, and being a good listener (Allen, 2006; Smith, Howard & Harrington, 2005). Other prerequisites of the formal mentoring role are the requirement of scheduled time with the mentee and participation in an evaluation process. Acting as a formal mentor may also lead to recognition and the obtaining of a tenured position within the organizational structure. Furthermore, an adjusted salary or time given is often compensation for the formal mentor (Gaskin, Lumpkin, & Tennant, 2003; NLN, 2006; Smith et al., 2005; Smith & Zsohar, 2007). According to Blauvelt & Spath (2008), formal mentorship requires a significant time commitment. They suggested the role be considered as part of the mentor's teaching load.

Informal mentoring. Informal mentoring occurs when new faculty members select their own mentor. This selection process happens when shared interests, values, and beliefs are evident (Smith et al., 2005). Participation is voluntary by both participants. Scheduled meetings are not required and a formal evaluation process is not mandated. Feedback is a natural part of the dialogue between mentor and mentee.

Peer mentoring as a subcategory of informal mentoring eliminates the concept of a hierarchal structure. The faculty members are equal in rank or experience and a more senior member is not part of the dyad. This mentor/mentee relationship is reciprocal. According to Smith and Zsohar (2007), having peers share knowledge and experience increases their "professional accountability and academic success" (p.186). The NLN (2006) has suggested that, "Peer mentoring occurs when new faculty members

themselves pool information and expertise and support each other" (Background and Significance section, para. 4).

Additionally, in a study of the role of peer relationships on career development, Kram and Isabella (1985) agree that a hierarchal relationship fosters one-way communication between the individuals instead of a dynamic two-way dialogue. They found this factor an impediment to the psychosocial component of mentoring. The results of their study support the idea of peer relationships, in opposition to mentoring relationships, as it promotes a relationship that allows for greater mutuality between the participants. Furthermore, they found that peer relationships extended over a longer time.

Challenging the preference for formal mentoring, Thorpe and Kalischuk (2003) created the collegial mentoring model to advocate for informal mentoring. In this model, the concept of mentoring is defined as "a friendship-based, collegial relationship affording honest and open communication occurring over an extended period and resulting in a positive outcome for both individuals" (p.6). The traditional hierarchal layering of the more experienced person, the mentor, developing the less experienced mentee is not as significant.

Pololi and Knight (2005) have suggested that there are risks within the mentoring relationship that may deter participation in this role. Personality, generational differences, time constraints, differing levels of commitment and expectations may impede the development of a positive mentoring relationship. These risks may adversely influence or motivate a faculty member, dissuading them from participating in the mentoring process. This study promoted the concept of informal mentor relationships.

Substantiating the NLN's proposed use of formal mentoring programs in nursing education to promote faculty retention, therefore, continues to require research to determine its effectiveness. An important corollary to the process of developing a formal mentoring program is what will motivate a faculty member to participate in the program. Determining if job satisfaction is an outcome may be a factor in this process.

Motivation

Determining what factors will encourage senior faculty to mentor another faculty member is significant to the mentoring process. Motivation as defined by Grant (2008) "describes the reasons that drive actions" (p.48). This is congruent with Maslow's (1970) theory of motivation as defined by the basic needs.

Intrinsic motivations are innate to the individual and direct the person's choices from within. External motivations are forces that promote action from without the individual. Mentorship of another person may result in promotion, tenure, decreased workload or monetary gain. Ridout (2006) has linked these motives to mentor as stemming from external motivation.

Grant (2008) has proposed that prosocial motivation is more predictive of "persistence, performance, and productivity" (p. 56). Grant's study suggests that prosocial motivation together with intrinsic motivation is needed to enhance the work environment and its culture. Prosocial motivation manifests in a person's desire to help another individual. One conclusion of the study is that managers should "design work contexts to cultivate both prosocial and intrinsic motivations" (p. 56). This conclusion is not supportive of a formal mentoring program.

An educational environment and a culture that supports mentoring should improve job satisfaction. Sullivan's (2001) study states, "research has shown a positive relationship between mentoring and job satisfaction among nurses" (p.9). Additionally, Lennon (1996) noted that job satisfaction increased when faculty mentoring occurred in academia. However, whether formal or informal mentoring is more effective in achieving this result has yet to be determined. Understanding the type of motivation which will promote mentoring is fundamental to the form mentoring should take.

Organizational Environment/Culture

The NLN (2005) has recommended that academic nursing communities support the concept of mentoring. The organizational environment can help or hinder this endeavor. A school community, the organizational environment, is comprised of a variety of people, administrators, teachers, and ancillary staff, with similar interests and goals. The decision to become a member within the group suggests the membership has connection to the values and the expected outcomes of the group (Cartwright & Zander, 1968). The relationships that develop within this population will determine how the environment or school culture evolves and transforms over time. Any change in personnel, such as a new faculty member, influences the group's dynamic. North, Johnson, Knotts, and Whelan (2006) have noted that mentoring "promotes a culture of excellence in nursing" (p. 17). Dow (2014) notes that commitment to an organization may be enhanced by the mentor/mentee relationship. A positive environment that encourages and supports mentoring should promote job satisfaction and influence a faculty member's desire to remain at the school.

Academic Role

In academic nursing education, the role of educator develops secondary to the initial role of clinical nurse. Choosing to become a faculty member necessitates a change in focus for the nurse as he or she enters into a school community. However, many new faculty members often have limited formal "academic preparation in nursing education" (Hand, 2008, p.63).

To qualify for a teaching position in an Associate-degree nursing program the Accreditation Commission for Education in Nursing (2013) formally known as the National League for Nursing Accrediting Commission (2006), requires documentation to confirm that:

1. Full-time faculty hold a minimum of a graduate degree with a major in nursing. Full- and part-time faculty include those individuals teaching and or evaluating students in classroom, clinical, or laboratory settings.
2. Part-time faculty hold a minimum of a baccalaureate degree with a major in nursing; a minimum of 50% of the part-time faculty also hold a graduate degree with a major in nursing.
3. Faculty (full- and part-time) credentials meet governing organization and state requirements.
4. Preceptors, when utilized, are academically and experientially qualified, oriented, mentored, and monitored, and have clearly documented roles and responsibilities.

5. The numbers of full-time faculty is sufficient to ensure that the student learning outcomes and program outcomes are achieved.
6. Faculty (full- and part-time) maintain expertise in their areas of responsibility, and their performance reflects scholarship and evidence-based teaching and clinical practices.
7. The number, utilization, and credentials of staff and non-nurse faculty within the nursing education unit are sufficient to achieve the program goals and outcomes.
8. Faculty (full- and part-time) are oriented and mentored in their areas of responsibility.
9. Systematic assessment of faculty (full-and part-time) performance demonstrates competencies that are consistent with program goals and outcomes.
10. Faculty (full- and part-time) engage in ongoing development and receive support for instructional and distance technologies. (p. 86)

Nurses working in a school of nursing are often required to teach in the clinical area as well as the classroom setting, participate in research, and contribute to the functioning of the organization. Additionally, a faculty member is often responsible for student advisement, community service, and, in due course, ensuring that the graduates perform successfully on the nursing licensure exam. Multifaceted skills are expected of the nurses transitioning into this educator role. Furthermore, learning the structure and culture of the school is also expected of the new faculty member. This new position,

therefore, encompasses both the roles of teacher and learner and the expectation is that the faculty member will be both competent to teach students and be able to learn the new job simultaneously. The new areas of knowledge required of a novice faculty member presuppose the need for learning from a more seasoned faculty member (Billings & Halstead, 2005). Senior or more experienced nurse educators can assist in this socialization process. Socialization is defined by the Mosby (2006) dictionary as follows:

> The process by which an individual learns to live in accordance with the expectations and standards of a group or society, acquiring the beliefs, habits, values, and accepted modes of behavior primarily through imitation, and educational systems. (p. 1734)

The acculturations of new faculty into the school is enhanced by the presence of faculty who are open to communication and are willing to engage the new faculty in dialogue (Allen & Poteet, 1999; Halstead, 2005). Dialogue and a collaborative environment increase faculty knowledge of one another and support professional development. Collaboration connotes interaction linking people and the subsequent fostering of knowledge between them. Donaldson (2006) affirms that "knowledge of one another" is vital to "establishing basic trust, [a] precondition for forming relationships that can mobilize people for professional improvement and personal support" (p. 129). An academic environment requires a faculty member to work collaboratively as part of the educator team, yet function independently (Dunham-Taylor et al., 2008). Mentoring upholds the concept of a collaborative team.

The creation of a collaborative environment that is supportive to new faculty is essential to the growth and development of novice educators (Halstead, 2007; Lennon, 1996). Empowerment of the learner, the novice educator, is encouraged in a collaborative environment. “Empowerment is the process of providing others with opportunities and resources needed to understand and facilitate change” (Brancato, 2007, p.538). Mentoring is a collaborative relationship, and as such, mentors have the potential to provide an environment that is empowering to new faculty. A study by Ambrose, Huston and Norman (2005) concluded that, “collegiality was the number one factor determining faculty satisfaction” (p. 814). Additionally, this study indicated that faculty who were “willing to listen and provide feedback on ideas, proposals, papers and teachers” (p. 814) were important to the creation of job satisfaction within a school community. The role and function of a mentor encompasses this description. Job satisfaction as an outcome of mentoring in schools may then be consistent with the development of a collegial and a collaborative environment. An organizational culture that promotes a collegial environment and fosters mentoring encourages organizational commitment (Dow, 2014; Egan & Song, 2008). This sense of commitment or belonging aligns with the fundamental need for love and belonging identified by Maslow (1970).

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction involves the affective context in which the faculty perceive their academic role. Sullivan (2001) has identified job satisfaction as “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experience” (p. 9). Moody (1991) defines job satisfaction as “the degree to which one likes their occupation” (p.3).

As faculty members, nurses traditionally arrive at education from a clinical position. A nurse transitioning into education has done so by choice. It is important to encourage faculty to remain in this role. Faculty who do not find satisfaction in the new role of educator may choose to return to clinical practice (Reed, 2006). Senior faculty who are not satisfied with their role may also choose to leave their position. Mentorship may add interest to the faculty role, decrease the element of day-to-day sameness, and lead to greater satisfaction (Moynihan & Pandey, 2007).

A work environment, either positive or negative, can influence the perception of job satisfaction. Mentorship has been considered a factor that can positively influence this perception (Bally, 2007; Garbee & Killacky, 2008). However, it has not been determined whether formal or informal mentoring best promotes job satisfaction.

Knowledge of what will foster an organizational environment and culture that leads to collegiality and job satisfaction is especially important to nursing education today. The nurse educator shortage compels the nursing community to look at ways to increase the number of faculty. The key question for this study is: will a formal mentoring program achieve the result that the NLN (2006) has envisioned?

Assumptions, Delimitations, and Limitations

The primary assumption of this study is that mentoring is a positive activity that should be encouraged in an academic environment. Moreover it is believed that mentoring, in some form, occurs in the academic setting. Another assumption is that the geographic location will not influence the outcome of mentoring. Additionally, there is an assumption that faculty will be forthright in their responses.

The study was confined to 17 Associate-degree nursing programs in New York State. A limitation of the study is its small sample size. The study results may not be generalizable to other types of nursing programs. Differing cultures among the faculty as well as generational differences may also affect the outcome. Additionally, as most nurses are women, the dynamics of mentoring might differ if any faculty member is male. Moreover, the differing educational levels and areas of clinical expertise may influence the results. Another factor may be any prior experience with mentoring the participants may have had previously, either as mentor or as mentee, Furthermore, the formal mentoring program design will differ in each of the schools. Involvement in a formal mentoring program may or may not be voluntary, and if it is voluntary, the reasons for volunteering may vary, which may have an influence on the outcome. Some schools will only have an informal mentoring process in place and the lack of a structured approach to mentoring may affect a sense of job satisfaction as an outcome.

Significance

Locally, in New York State, the faculty vacancy rate reported as of October 2010 is 27.4 % (Brewer, Wolff & Welch, 2012). The faculty shortage is a factor limiting the number of students who can enroll in a program of nursing. This is significant as the country is experiencing a nursing shortage (AACN, 2012; AACN, 2014; NLN, 2006). To address this problem, nursing programs are seeking ways to increase faculty retention. Formal mentoring programs may achieve this through improved job satisfaction. Faculty who are satisfied with their job may stay in the role of educator. Nurses considering education may opt to enter a nursing program in the faculty role when faculty satisfaction

is evident. What is more, student learning may be affected, as mentoring should increase faculty proficiency. In addition, formal mentoring programs, if shown to improve job satisfaction, may be used by other programs of nursing including doctoral, masters, and baccalaureate.

Summary

The literature supports the concept of mentoring, whether it occurs formally or informally. The NLN (2006, 2010) is advocating the use of formal mentoring programs. Mentoring of faculty-to-faculty places the dynamic in an adult-to-adult learning milieu. Research to ascertain if formal mentoring in associate-degree nursing programs is effective in achieving job satisfaction is in its infancy. Nursing is in need of evidence-based studies to support the supposition that formal mentoring increases job satisfaction.

A corollary to this proposal is the question of what will motivate faculty to mentor each other. Ridout (2006) suggests that in a formal mentoring program, extrinsic motivation predominates. However, the utilization of intrinsic motivation to achieve a successful mentoring relationship may be more important. Future research in this area may be of value.

Erikson (1963) identified humans as moving through eight stages of psychosocial development. The sixth through eighth stages, intimacy vs. isolation, generativity vs. stagnation and ego integrity vs. despair align closely with intrinsic motivation as it reflects innate needs. These stages of Erikson's theory encompass concepts related to affiliation, commitment, promotion of the next generation, and the development of a sense of accomplishment in one's life. How can administrators utilize this knowledge?

Grant (2008), North et al. (2006) and Pololi and Knight (2005) have indicated that informal mentoring encourages mentoring through intrinsic and prosocial motivation. Should nursing school administrators look to intrinsic and prosocial motivation to enhance the school environment in order to improve job satisfaction?

In summary, this researcher's study endeavors to determine whether formal mentoring programs promote a culture that leads to job satisfaction. This study will provide evidence based documentation to support or negate the NLN's (2006) proposal on the use of formal mentoring programs in associate-degree schools of nursing.

Section 1 identified the problem and gave an overview of the theoretical base for the study. Section 2 describes the current literature related to the major concepts of the study. Section 3 explains the research methodology used. Section 4 describes the study's findings and presents an analysis of the data found. Section 5 conveys a summary of the study through an interpretation of the findings, implications for social change, and recommendations for future study.

Section 2: Literature Review

Introduction

This study seeks to identify whether a formal mentoring process increases the job satisfaction of both mentor and mentee. Mentoring is a dynamic relationship involved with learning. Understanding how adults learn is integral to the mentor/ mentee relationship in the nurse faculty community. Comprehension of why a person chooses to mentor, a faculty member's motivation for mentoring, may influence this dynamic.

The research strategy incorporated a search through the following databases: PsychInfo, CINHAHL, OVID Nursing Journals, ERIC, and ProQuest Central. Threaded through the study are concepts relevant to many disciplines. In these databases a search under *higher education*, *nursing education*, *mentoring in areas such as business, education and medical settings*, *motivation*, and *job satisfaction* were reviewed. Topic headings included were *formal and informal motivation*, *mentoring culture*, *adult learners*, *faculty job satisfaction*, *organizational environment*, *organizational culture*, and *mentoring in nursing education*. Articles and studies were chosen based on their relevance to the selected population and variables.

The literature review looked for information on concepts associated with mentoring such as the different forms of mentoring and the characteristics of a mentor as well as the risks and benefits of a mentoring relationship. In addition, how generational differences can influence the motivation to mentor or be mentored was considered. The literature review also sought to define the types of motivation and factors that promoted

or inhibited the willingness to mentor. Lastly, the review examined the perception of what promoted job satisfaction in nursing education.

Theoretical Framework

Knowles's Theory

Knowles's (1970) theory of adult learning, addresses how adult learning differs from the learning that takes place in childhood. Definitions related to the term adult derive from several themes: biologic, legal, social, and psychological. However, Knowles highlights the psychological perspective as the most significant. "Psychologically, we become adults when we arrive at a self-concept of being responsible for our own lives, of being self-directing" (Knowles et al., 2005, p. 64). The term used to describe this theory, andragogy, derives from the term *andragogik,* which was first used by Alexander Kapp in 1833 (Knowles et al., 2005). "Kapp used the word in a description of the educational theory of the Greek philosopher Plato" (Knowles et al., 2005, p.59). Knowles uses this term to describe the art and sciences of helping adults learn (Bastable, 2008, Cooper, 2009, Knowles et al., 2005). This andragogical theory of adult learning places the emphasis on the learner as opposed to the educator and stresses the importance of the dynamic between the two adults, teacher and learner (Bastable, 2008, Knowles et al., 2005). The core assumptions of this model are the need to know, the learners' self-concepts, the role of the learners' experiences, their readiness to learn, their orientation to learning and motivation.

Choosing to work as an educator in a school setting draws a parallel to Knowles's (1970) core assumption of readiness to learn. As a new faculty member, the mentee is

engaged in learning their new role and the culture of the educational setting. There is an assumption that the new educator hopes to perform well the new role. Having access to a mentor can support and enhance the transition process of learning the new responsibilities. Furthermore, the new faculty member or mentee inexperienced in education brings knowledge and expertise from previous work experience that can augment the new position. As both the mentee and mentor may have different areas of expertise, there is an opportunity for a sharing of knowledge. This two-way communication embodies the relationship between mentor and mentee. The need to know and the wish to demonstrate ability can act as a motivating factor for the mentee. What motivates the mentor to participate is not as clear.

Maslow's Theory

Maslow's (1970) theory of human motivation describes a hierarchy of needs that motivates a person to achieve. The hierarchy of needs includes physiologic needs, safety and security needs, love and belonging needs, self-esteem needs, and self-actualization. Achievement of these needs is not required to be sequential and can overlap in time. In the context of Maslow's love and belonging is the idea of the need for friendships and relationships. Mentorship cannot take place without a relationship to another person. Maslow's self-esteem need embodies the importance of achievement, confidence, recognition and feelings of capability. These needs correspond to both the mentor and mentee. Attainment of the self-esteem need coincides with the middle adult years characterized by the Baby Boomer age group and is congruent with an altruistic or intrinsic motivating factor. Reaching the highest need level, self-actualization implies that

a person has reached their fullest potential. This person is accepting and respectful of others, objective, and can focus on problems outside of the self (Chapter 2). A mentor is a person striving towards self-actualization.

Erikson's Theory

Erikson's (1963) theory of psychosocial development identifies a person's progress through eight stages. The adult years are reflected in stages six through eight. The sixth stage, intimacy vs. isolation, reflects the young adult's willingness to join with another person. A mentor/mentee relationship, though not of a sexual nature, encompasses the ideas of affiliation and commitment to a partnership. The seventh stage, generativity vs. stagnation, speaks to man's need to promote the next generation and is congruent with faculty in mid to late career. The generativity vs. stagnation stage also addresses the need for involvement with not only family, but also friends and community. Erikson's last stage, ego integrity vs. despair, denotes man's view of his or her life in terms of fulfillment and feelings of accomplishment (Taylor et al., 2005). "Ego integrity, therefore, implies an emotional integration which permits participation by followership as well as acceptance of the responsibility of leadership" (Erikson, 1963, p.169).

Mirroring the stages identified by Erikson (1963), development of relationships, both professional and friendship based, occurs within the nursing education community. A faculty member's willingness to mentor or be mentored incorporates the concepts inherent in the sixth through eighth stages in Erikson's eight stages of psychosocial development.

Mentoring

Fundamental to the concept of mentoring are the relationships developed, essential characteristics of the mentor, and the role that the mentor has in facilitating the education of the mentee. A school or organization's philosophy as it is reflected in the organization's culture can recognize the importance of mentoring and support its function. This commitment to mentoring by the organization can "move a school towards excellence" (Brown, 1999, p. 48). Studies by Bally (2007), Garbee and Killacky (2008) affirmed that organizational culture could influence mentoring and that mentoring can in turn shape the organization's culture. Emphasizing the "value of caring" (p. 3), encouragement, nurturance, and welcome to the new faculty. Blauvelt and Spath (2008) concluded that a formal mentoring program could "ease the culture shock of novice faculty" and provide "role education and socialization" (p. 33). Another benefit of mentoring to an organization is the promotion of professional development in a cost effective manner (St. Clair, 1994).

Collaboration is inherently part of the mentoring process. The relationships formed in a community that encourages mentoring can affect the organization's culture (Campbell & Brummett, 2007). Over time, the perception that mentoring is beneficial to the organization can become internalized into the organization's culture as the norm. This may establish a reason to mentor from an intrinsic motivation perspective.

Many studies, however, do not address specific reason(s) why a person chooses or is motivated to mentor (Brown, 1999; Campbell & Brummett, 2007; Garbee & Killacky, 2008; St. Clair, 1994). Rather, studies often explore the roles, functions, and

characteristics of mentoring and the organizational environment. Though the concept of mentoring is believed to be important to creating a positive organizational environment, understanding what factors motivate a faculty member is inconclusive. Conceivably, there are innate qualities that predispose a person to engage in mentoring.

The diversity of personal qualities or characteristics ascribed to mentoring attest to its multifaceted role. Characteristics manifested by the mentor may include competence, professionalism, honesty, integrity, approachability, humor, empathy, self-confidence, generosity, respect, dependability, resourcefulness, nurturing, possessing good interpersonal and listening skills, camaraderie, and maturity. Other criteria cited are the willingness to commit to a relationship, share time, and make time (Allen, 2006; Haidar, 2007; Peters, 2006; Smith et al., 2005 Smith & Zsohar, 2007). Consistent with the other studies, Sherman (2005), addressing the characteristics of mentors in a qualitative study, found that trust and honesty were the most significant qualities of a mentoring relationship.

Correspondingly, Niehoff (2006) researched mentoring based on personality characteristics. He found that the decision to mentor could be influenced by an individual's character traits. The outcome of his study suggested that a person who is extroverted, conscientious, and open to experience is more likely to mentor another. This study's findings attribute mentoring to qualities intrinsic to the person. This knowledge may help in clarifying the type of motivation most important to the mentor role.

Furthermore, characteristics identified in a study by Cawyer, Simonds, and Davis (2002) related to the type of support new faculty in a mentor/mentee relationship needed

to facilitate their socialization into the organization. The researchers ascertained that interpersonal bonding, social support, professional advice, history—"why things happen the way they do in the work environment" (p.235)—and accessibility were the five main characteristics. Accessibility was noted to be the most significant determinant. Though the researchers used the term "characteristics," the descriptors are closer to the roles and function of a mentor than to character traits. Satisfaction with the job, though not a stated conclusion, could be considered an outcome of the socialization process. An organization that fosters the socialization of new faculty espouses the ideas related to a culture of mentoring.

Another dynamic related to the character traits present in the individual participants of the mentoring dyad addresses the characteristics and values of the generational workforce and may be fundamental to developing a successful organizational climate. At present, nursing faculty are "an average age of 53 for doctorally prepared faculty… and over 50 for master's prepared faculty" (Falk, 2007). This age group, those born between 1946 and 1964, are known as Baby Boomers. The new generation of nurse educators, those born between 1965 and 1980, are referred to as Generation X (Siela, 2006).

Generational Influences

In nursing education programs, the two groups, Baby Boomers and Generation X, are most likely to be coworkers in a mentor/mentee relationship. According to Siela (2006), Baby Boomers tend to follow the rules even as they disagree or question policies. This group likes to feel valued and to please others. Siela indicated that this group is

known to be comprised of workaholics and achieving personal success is very important. Teamwork and an informal environment are important to this group. These attributes suggest that this group would welcome becoming mentors. Weston (2006) describes Baby Boomers as "wanting to make a significant contribution with their experience and expertise" (p. 13). Erikson's (1963) stage of generativity vs. stagnation reflects this point in the mature faculty member's career. During this stage of psychosocial development, a person needs to feel appreciated and looks to promoting the next generation. This concept correlates to the Baby Boomer's age group, the middle-adult years.

According to Siela (2006), the Generation X group is often perceived as lacking in good manners. Authority does not intimidate them, and they often believe that they should be at the top of the priority list. At an early age, this group learned that their voices had value, their opinions counted, and they believed in themselves (Weston, 2006).

This group does not volunteer readily. Studies have identified volunteerism as an essential ingredient to a positive mentoring relationship (Cawyer et al., 2002; Dunham-Taylor et al., 2008; St. Clair 1994; Wagner & Seymour 2007). Assignment to a formal mentor may negate the concept of voluntary participation in a mentoring relationship and may impede the relationship.

Prior life experience, one of Knowles's (1970) assumptions, may also contribute to an adult's lack of willingness to participate in a formal mentor relationship. A previous mentoring relationship may not have been successful. The result is a person disinterested in pursuing such an association. Additionally, Generation X nurses, unlike the Baby

Boomers, often refuse to give up their personal life for the work place (Weston, 2006). This differing outlook may lead to conflict within the mentoring connection.

A positive facet of Generation X is that they are good with technology and do extremely well with multitasking. In this sphere, Generation X excels and can become the teacher to the Baby Boomer. As a group, Generation X focuses on the result but not the process. Baby Boomers recognizing the potential for a positive or successful outcome may lead to their acceptance of Generation X.

Acknowledgement of the differing traits of Generation X by the Baby Boomers can assist the mentee in the smooth transition from novice educator to one with experience. This acknowledgement allows for incorporation of the learner's experience and correlates to Knowles et al. (2005) theory of adult learning. In addition, in Sherman's (2005) study, Generation Xers saw mentoring as "the key type of support that participants felt they needed" (p. 130). If the mentoring dyad of the Baby Boomer and the Generation X faculty member is positive, then satisfaction and not discord can predominate in the work environment. Job satisfaction should be an outcome.

Informal Mentoring

An organization's culture governs the type of mentoring practiced in an educational setting. Commonly used classifications referring to the style of mentoring relationships are informal with peer mentoring as a subset, and formal. A peer relationship is, by definition, non-hierarchal and indicates a connection between two or more people. According to The Oxford College Dictionary (2007), a peer is "a person of the same age, status, or ability as another specified person" (p.1011) and relationship is

defined as, “The way in which two or more people or organizations regard and behave toward each other; the way in which two or more objects, or people are connected” (p.1152).

The continuum of mentoring styles ranges from the informal to formal. Studies relating to both mentoring types have been carried out in government, organizational environments and academia (Smith et al., 2005). Despite this, neither the informal style of mentoring nor formal mentoring constructs has been consistently identified as superior.

Informal mentoring is a form of social interaction that ultimately assists members of the dyad to attain a goal. Within this form of mentoring, there are no periods mandated or specific guidelines to follow. The creation of an informal mentoring dyad implies that the mentor has chosen to carry out the functions of a mentor and is functioning in a role beyond the expectations of the job (Allen, 2003). This informal approach to mentoring is often cited as being more effective (Kram, 1985; Pololi & Knight, 2005; Thorpe & Kalischuk, 2003; Wanberg, Kammeyer-Mueller, & Marchese, 2006).

In accordance with the informal approach, Thorpe and Kalischuk (2003) created a caring mentoring model called the collegial mentoring model (CMM). This model defined mentoring as a “friendship-based, collegial relationship affording honest and open communication occurring over an extended period and resulting in a positive outcome for both individuals (The Collegial Mentoring Model, para 1). They concluded that informal collegial mentoring improves employee retention and external motivation factors such as salary is not as significant. Friendship, a primary feature of this model, is

reflective of intrinsic motivation. Additionally, sharing inquiry and accessing one's own experiences to construct new meanings are basic to this model of mentoring. These notions are in accord with Maslow's (1970) theory of motivation. Both the achievement of love and belonging and movement towards self-actualization can be viewed as underlying concepts of this model. Additionally, Erikson's (1963) stage of Intimacy vs. Isolation is exhibited through the faculty members' willingness to participate in a partnership.

Pololi and Knight (2005) addressed mentoring in the context of the medical profession. They cited Erikson's (1963) and Levinson et al (1978) developmental theories in identifying man's need to give back to society. Pololi and Knight proposed that it was altruistic reasons that encouraged a person to mentor another. They believed that informal mentoring "provides a more effective mentoring model' (p. 867). Their study compared a formal mentoring dyad, personal mentoring program (PMP), with a collaborative mentoring program (CMP). The CMP program, modeled on adult learning theory, espoused the importance of a supportive learning environment. Though they uncovered risks of participating in a mentoring relationship, they concluded that peer mentoring which is informal is of greater benefit than the more formal, hierarchal relationship. Although not stated in their study, Erikson's stage of Intimacy vs. Isolation can also be viewed as pertaining to the results.

Continuing this theme, Sorcinelli and Yun (2007) describe a model of mentoring that has early career faculty developing a flexible network of mentors. This network advocates a collaborative approach in which there is a non – hierarchal style of

mentoring. The new faculty member utilizes a variety of people to aid in learning the various aspects of the new position. Examples include research, teaching, interdisciplinary connections and tenure requirements. They believe that this model encourages a sharing of information and that the learning process is reciprocal. Again, this model is more reflective of an informal or peer mentoring approach.

Informal relationships predominate in studies by Kram (1985) and Kram and Isabella (1985). They found that peer relationships have similarities to mentoring and were based on an equal and reciprocal dynamic. Their studies stressed a non-hierarchal structure within the organization. Three-tier levels of peer relationships were identified: informational, collegial and special peer, (Kram & Isabella, 1985). Furthermore, it was believed that trust increases as a person progresses through these stages. The concept of trust is supportive of Sherman's (2005) finding of the importance of this mentoring characteristic.

However, Kram (1985) points to the human resource department as being integral to the development of mentoring relationships. Kram does not advocate for formal mentoring programs, but a "sequence of programs and organizational changes that support rather than force the mentoring process" (p. 42). Overall, the endorsement is for an informal mentoring organizational environment.

Formal Mentoring

The more formal approach to mentoring involves management or the human resources department in identifying who the mentor and mentee will be. This system utilizes a specific period and provides the mentee with a person to assist in their

attainment of individual goals (Dunham-Taylor et al, 2008; Egan & Song, 2008; Suplee & Gardner, 2009). Neither the mentee nor the mentor need know each other prior to the assignment (Wanberg et al., 2006). In a formal program, the mentee may not have the option as to who will mentor them. However, the senior faculty member often does have a choice to become a mentor or not.

This "willingness to mentor newcomers" (Cawyer et al., 2002, p. 236) on the part of the mentor corresponds to the idea volunteerism needs to be part of the mentoring process. Overall, the researchers concluded that formal mentoring of new hires was beneficial, but not the sole form mentoring should take. Again, the recommendation seems to favor using both an informal as well as a formal approach to mentoring. The investigators use of willingness invokes the idea that motivation is necessary for a positive mentoring result.

St. Clair (1994) concluded that participation in formal mentoring should be on a voluntary basis and that participants should be carefully selected to facilitate the development of the mentor/mentee relationship. Wagner and Seymour (2007) in their development of the caring mentorship model shared the opinion that the process for pairing the mentor and mentee should be voluntary. However, they differed in their belief that the pairs should self-select each other. Again, this concept of volunteerism incorporates the idea that choice and willingness, i.e. motivation, is basic to the concept of a better-quality mentoring relationship. Dunham-Taylor et al. (2008) also saw the concept of voluntary participation in a mentoring program as more constructive to the mentoring process. However, they felt faculty who did not volunteer might be induced to

mentor with the right incentives. Suggested incentives identified were reflective of extrinsic motivating factors such as financial rewards, reduced workload and movement towards promotion. Congruent with this study, Allen, Eby and Lentz (2006) proposed that it was essential for both the mentor and mentee to feel that they had "input into the matching process" (p.576). This matching process imbued the partners with a greater sense of relationship and increased their motivation to sustain an "effective formal mentoring practice" (p.575). Furthermore, participation in the matching processes "created a sense that program participation is voluntary" (p.568). The inference is that formal mentoring programs are viable if it feels more like an informal construct. Allen et al. (2006) also found that the effectiveness of mentorship training must be "perceived as high quality" (p. 576) for it to have a positive effect on the mentor relationship. Again, the idea of choice seems to be an important determinant to an enhanced mentoring relationship. The motivation to choose a mentoring role seems necessary for the mentor/mentee relationship to be of value.

However regardless of the form in which mentoring occurs, Dunham-Taylor et al. (2008) suggest that the role modeling which occurs throughout the process will eventually be continued with the next generation of faculty and students and thus has the potential for a positive outcome. This idea of influencing the next generation is congruent with Erikson's (1963) seventh stage of psychosocial development.

Another study that correlates to both Erikson's (1963) stage of Generativity and Maslow's (1970) need for self-actualization is one by Grosshans, Poczwardowski, Trunnell and Randsdell (2003). These researchers used a qualitative study to investigate

the role of mentoring at a university. Their conclusions identified the majority of respondents as having had a formal mentor. The mentor/mentee relationship was typically that of teacher to graduate student. One of the main findings was the value the mentor placed on leaving a legacy. This study has relevance to senior faculty and new faculty at an associate-degree nursing program.

Frequently, the concept of mentoring is studied without emphasis on either informal or formal mentoring. Siler and Kleiner (2001) looked at the expectations novice faculty had of their new role. They concluded that mentoring had increased importance to the novice faculty member, as often the role of educator was not taught formally and resulted in little expertise in this setting. The researchers indicated that the faculty's level of responsibility should be lighter the first year to allow for a period of adjustment. Without guidance, Siler and Kleiner felt new faculty become responsible for teaching themselves how to educate students and negotiate the college environment. This study verified the importance of mentoring, but not the form it should take.

Kwan and Lopez-Real (2005) looked at the role mentoring has in a non-nursing academic setting. Their research was conducted via a questionnaire with a follow-up interview. They viewed the concept of mentoring as both a relationship and a process that is hierarchal in nature. They viewed mentorship as containing elements of both informal and formal structures. The planned or formal role is purposeful in nature and is aimed at aiding the new faculty member in assimilating into the school community. The informal mentoring relationship encompasses friendship, coaching, collegiality, and counseling. The relationship becomes successful through caring and support. These elements of

caring, support, and friendship are indicative of the importance of an informal approach to mentoring.

The literature suggests that promotion of a formal mentoring program might encourage a more collaborative environment through a merging of the strengths of each group (Egan & Song, 2008; North et al., 2006; Smith & Zsohar, 2007). Expertise can be shared between the mentor and mentee. A response to this relationship resulting in the experienced faculty member feeling valued and the novice faculty member feeling respected. Both of these elements can advance the perception of job satisfaction. Motivation an assumption of Knowles's (1970) adult learning theory, addresses the mentee's position in the partnership as well. However, understanding the motivation to mentor as well as why someone would volunteer to mentor is also important for administration to enhance and support a culture of mentoring.

Risks of Mentoring

However, it has also been noted, that a formal mentoring program may have a negative effect on the mentoring process (Smith et al., 2005). These researchers examined formal mentor characteristics and functions in the academic, military and business environments. Their study cited Kram (1983) as identifying the purpose of mentoring as helping the mentee's career development. During the study, the researchers found that formal mentor programs could lead to anxiety on the part of the mentor. The anxiety stemming from confusion about the mentor role and the increased visibility now present because of the new relationship. Smith et al. (2005) found that formal mentoring

relationships are “less rich” and can be externally motivated because of “reward systems” (p. 38).

Other reasons to refuse a mentor role might pertain to the mentor’s self - perception of ability and previous experience with the role. Furthermore, it has been suggested that there are other risks to being part of a mentoring relationship. Pololi and Knight (2005) have indicated that there might be differing goals and levels of commitment between the mentor and the mentee. Personalities might be incompatible, especially related to generational differences. Time constraints may be significant and the mentor may feel that they do not have the time to accommodate the mentee or the mentee may be seen to make excessive demands upon the mentor’s time. In addition, consistent with women being the predominant gender in nursing, home responsibilities may contribute to time limitations and availability to mentor (Smith & Zsohar, 2007).

Motivation

The benefits of mentoring have been observed in academic, military and business venues (Smith et al, 2005). Overall, benefits relate to such areas as improved satisfaction with one’s career, growth within the career, networking, improved productivity, awareness of new ideas and self– reflection (Kent, 2006; Pololi & Knight, 2005; Smith & Zsohar, 2007). These benefits or outcomes can arise out of both intrinsic and extrinsic motivating factors.

Intrinsic factors frequently speak to altruistic motives. Promotion of another person’s development is a primary example. As previously stated, Erikson’s (1963) theory of psychosocial development stresses the importance of sharing one’s knowledge

with the next generation. He includes the important ideas of "productivity" and "creativity" into the concept of Generativity (p. 267). Maslow's (1970) "self-esteem" need corresponds with the characteristics of the Baby Boomer age group and is congruent with an altruistic or intrinsic motivating factor. Additionally, at this stage, the adult can be viewed as reaching towards the highest need level of "self-actualization" (Chapter 2). Both theories link with the concepts of motivation and mentoring.

The concept of intrinsic motivation may be implicit in a study by Zellers et al. (2008). The researchers noted that personal satisfaction gained through the participation in a mentoring relationship promoted a renewal of the values placed on the individual's work. It was found that the creation of an environment that promotes the sharing of new ideas and perspectives benefits the mentor. These aspects of the mentoring relationship may then constitute a reason for the person to pursue the connection. Similarly, in a study by Lennon (1996), outcomes related to both intrinsic and extrinsic motivating factors were identified as influencing a faculty member's decision to act as a mentor. Cited was stimulation of personal and professional growth, networking, improved teaching as well as promotion, tenure, decreased committee work and teaching load. However, neither intrinsic nor extrinsic motivation predominated.

In another study, Grant (2008) compared prosocial motivation with intrinsic motivation and their role in job satisfaction. He acknowledged motivation as "central to explaining individual and organizational behavior" (p. 48) and included definitions of intrinsic, extrinsic and prosocial motivations as it relates to the work environment. Intrinsic motivation refers to the willingness to "expend effort based on interest in and

enjoyment of the work itself" (p. 49). Extrinsic motivation is the "desire to expend effort to obtain outcomes external to the work itself, such as rewards or recognition" (p. 49). Grant viewed prosocial motivation as focusing on outcomes. He utilized self-determination theory as the basis for his study. The findings indicated that "higher levels of persistence, performance, and productivity" (p.56) are seen when employees experience intrinsic and prosocial motivations at the same time. Grant's acknowledgement of the importance of prosocial motivation to secure job satisfaction closely aligns with Erikson's (1963) stage of Generativity. Prosocial motivation may manifest as a person's desire to help another individual. Additionally, the concepts of motivation in this study are in accord with Maslow's (1970) theory.

Moynihan and Pandey (2007) examined motivation factors in the public sector as it pertained to job satisfaction, job involvement and organizational commitment. They determined that driving forces are people's own attributes and their perspective of the work environment. The employee's particular view as to "what is important in life, and in his or her job" (para. 20) reflected intrinsic motivation. Additionally, they looked at extrinsic motivation and established that the ability to advance in one's job was associated with greater job satisfaction. They concluded that development of belonging to the group, the organization, and a sense of purpose were strong motivators in "maintaining an engaged workforce" (para. 51). Overall, their findings correlate to Maslow's (1970) stages of Love and Belonging and Self-esteem where intrinsic motivation is of great significance. Advancement within the work environment may also

encompass components of extrinsic motivation. Though the study did not pertain to the nursing education community, the findings are relevant.

The consideration of extrinsic motivating factors is important when creating a formal mentoring program. The literature suggests that acting as a formal mentor may lead to recognition and the obtaining of a tenured position within the organizational structure. A performance evaluation that includes the added role of mentor may contribute towards this goal. Furthermore, an adjusted salary or time given often compensates the formal mentor. A decreased teaching load is another factor that may prompt a faculty member to become a mentor, as is the enhancement of the individual's professional networking (Gaskin et al., 2003; NLN, 2006; Ridout, 2006; Smith et al., 2005; Smith & Zsohar, 2007; Van Emmerik et al. (2005). These reasons however are not predicative of either a positive or a negative response to a formal program.

Conversely, Van Emmerik et al. (2005) investigated the "influence of affective organizational commitment, career aspirations, and networking activities on propensity to mentor" (p. 310). This study suggested extrinsic motivation as the driving force behind the choice or motivation to mentor. The researchers found that the motivation to mentor, as evidenced by volunteering, suggested that the participants were ambitious for their own career, but that the participants were not necessarily committed to the organization. They believed that the role of mentor was often sought to develop a "network of loyal and supportive organizational members" (p. 310). In the setting associated with this study, the mentor role developed in an informal manner. However, networking did not

correlate significantly to the desire to mentor. The suggested rationale was that though networking and mentoring are similar, networking implies a less intense relationship.

Determining if intrinsic or extrinsic motivation is more valuable to the organization may lead the administration to encourage a faculty member to endorse the role of mentor. Can administration work to alter the culture of a school establishing mentoring as an expectation and the norm? Alternatively, will incentives/compensation foster a mentoring environment? Understanding motivation may further enhance our comprehension of how mentoring may contribute to job satisfaction.

Job Satisfaction

Knowledge of what motivates a mentor may be essential to establish an organizational culture of mentoring. Satisfaction with one's job may be an added benefit that derives from an organizational culture that promotes mentoring. North et al. (2006) state, "Mentoring builds teams, strengthens work ethic, revitalizes commitment, and inspires people to create better relationships (p. 17). Similarly, Skemp-Arlt and Toupence (2007) found that an organizational environment that emphasizes cooperation over competition is more motivating to employees. Cooperation is a component of a mentoring relationship.

Wagner and Seymour (2007) created a model of "Caring Mentorship" in nursing similar in concept to Thorpe and Kalischuk's (2003) Collegial Mentoring Model. Their study involved student nurses and registered nurses in the hospital setting. A formal approach to mentoring that stressed caring and nurturance was developed. They concluded that the mentor relationship had to be important to both the mentor and the

mentee and needed to go beyond cognitive development. This study also concluded that the act of mentoring fosters the continuation of mentoring within an organization and generates a positive work environment. The overall culture of the organization benefits from a caring mentoring process. The hospital reported "increased staff satisfaction, leadership, competence, and retention of employees" (p.201). This study using a model of caring mentorship, though not carried out on this researcher's population, has implications for motivation and job satisfaction.

Sarmiento, Laschinger and Iwasiw (2004) studied the effect empowerment had on nurse educators in relationship to burnout and job satisfaction. Initially, they established how the nurse faculty shortage "increased workload, stress and burnout" (p. 142). Additionally, they described how the multifaceted role that nurse educators have increases "the risk of burnout and job dissatisfaction" (p.142). Citing Kanter's organizational empowerment theory (1977, 1993) that stated, "workers are empowered when they perceive that their work environments provide opportunity for growth and access to power needed to carry out job demands" (p135). They determined that the greatest influence on job satisfaction and burnout was "access to resources and support" (p.142). Empowerment may be achieved through a mentoring relationship (Brancato, 2007) as mentorship is inherently a supportive role. Furthermore, a mentor acts as a resource to the mentee. Though this study does not directly discuss mentoring, it is congruent with the concepts of mentoring.

A study by Gormley (2003) reviewed factors affecting job satisfaction in nurse faculty. As previously identified, nursing faculty have a multifaceted role. Nurse

educators may be responsible for "providing community service, maintaining competency in practice, writing grants, conducting research, and publishing texts and journal articles" (p. 174). These diverse roles can lead to "conflict" and "job dissatisfaction" (p.174). Gormley (2003) found that the behavior of the dean or chairperson influenced job satisfaction, as did their role in "curriculum design and instruction" (p.177). Organizational characteristics and climate did not have a significant effect. The exception was the concept of "esprit" (p.177). Mentorship was not specifically identified. However, the role of mentor is often identified as a more senior person in the organization. A chairperson or dean could qualify and therefore be perceived as a mentor who contributes to job satisfaction. In this scenario, however, the mentorship role would be more likely towards a faculty member in mid- career and not new to the position.

Kaufman (2007) in a review of the Carnegie National Survey of Nurse Educators: Compensation, Workload, and Teaching Practice, ascertained that job satisfaction was negatively influenced by workload. The survey found that "nurse educators reported working just over 56 hours per week while school is in session…those with administrative responsibilities working an average of an additional two hours per week" (para. 13) and this number of hours led to dissatisfaction. Mentorship requires a time commitment (Egan and Song, 2008; Suplee and Gardner, 2009) and can add to the perception of increased workload. This may adversely influence the motivation to mentor. Additionally, actual time required to mentor may not be available and can be detrimental to the mentoring process.

Fain (1987) in a study on role conflict, role ambiguity and job satisfaction in baccalaureate nurse educators identified satisfaction with one's job increased when there was a clear understanding of role expectations. The study affirmed that faculty with more educational teaching experience had less uncertainty about their role and this increased their level of job satisfaction. Fain suggests that decreasing role conflict and role ambiguity improves job satisfaction. This study did not specifically address the concept of mentorship. However, the role of mentor supports these constructs. Inherent in the mentor role is support for the mentee and sharing knowledge. This in turn should lead to improved understanding of faculty role expectations and result in less ambiguity.

Moody (1996) took a survey of faculty employed in doctoral programs of nursing to ascertain their level of job satisfaction. The tools employed to measure job satisfaction were the JDI and the JIG. Citing Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1969) the identified purpose of the JDI is to generate information related to aspects of job satisfaction "with work itself, pay, opportunities for promotion, supervision, and coworkers" (p.279). The JIG is a broader scale that addresses the affective aspects of job satisfaction. The findings concluded that a greater number of years in the job led to increased overall job satisfaction, contentment with coworkers, and approval of one's salary. Additionally, Moody found that job satisfaction was greater when faculty taught students in master's or doctoral programs rather than in associate or baccalaureate education. Furthermore, she noted that faculty had added satisfaction when the work contracts were for a 9-month period as opposed to a 12-month period.

Less satisfaction and higher stress correlated to lack of resources and decreased time to stay current in the nursing field. Moreover, Moody (1996) considered the type of role preparation that faculty had for working in an education environment as a factor that could lead to stress. She suggested that adequate understanding of the expectations inherent in the faculty role was not always apparent upon entering the field of education. She concluded that transition into this role required the participation of others, which would help decrease the stress of the new job and promote job satisfaction. Though Moody does not specifically address mentoring, the identification that improved job satisfaction and decreased stress had a relationship to a "successful transition" (p.287) into this role pertains to the need for a mentoring program. The conclusion supports the creation of a formal mentoring program. The ease of transition and the concurrent sense of accomplishment this engenders can correlate to Maslow (1970) and the need for self-concept.

Egan and Song (2008) carried out a pretest-posttest randomized field experimental study using a control group. These researchers focused on the new employees' performance and perceptions of their jobs and the organization. The study compared the control group to participants involved in low and high-level- facilitated mentoring programs. The results of their study indicated that higher "levels of job satisfaction, organizational commitment and manager performance" in the "high- level – facilitated mentoring group" (p.358). Additionally, both high and low-level-facilitated groups perceived , increased "measures of job satisfaction, organizational commitment,

person organization fit and manager performance ratings" (p.358) than those in the non-mentored (control) group.

Summary

Acknowledgement of the pros and cons of mentorship are woven throughout the literature. Paradoxically, the term mentor itself, does not have a consistent definition within the literature. However, it has often been identified as a person who seeks to support the success and development of another. This association between the mentor and mentee is congruent with Erikson's (1963) stages of intimacy, generativity as well as ego integrity. This connection also corresponds to Maslow's (1970) need for love and belonging, self-esteem and self-actualization. Additionally, as both mentor and mentee are adults participating in the relationship, it is important to understand the underlying assumptions of how adults learn. Knowles's (1970) theory of adult learning provides this framework.

The literature includes studies that describe the characteristics of a mentor (Allen, 2006; Blauvelt and Spath, 2008; Kram and Isabella, 1985; Niehoff, 2006; Sherman, 2005; Smith, et al. 2005; Thorpe and Kalischuk, 2003) that can lead to a positive mentoring relationship. Terms such as honesty, trust, good communicator, approachable, nonjudgmental, and caring are common themes.

However, the manner in which this relationship forms can vary. The literature comprises studies that highlight both informal, its subcategories such as peer mentoring, and formal styles of mentoring (Allen et al., 2006; Dunham-Taylor et al., 2008; Kram & Isabella, 1985; Pololi & Knight, 2005; Thorpe & Kalischuk, 2003). The themes of caring

and friendship are often identified with informal mentoring (Blauvelt & Spath, 2008; Thorpe & Kalischuk, 2003). The mutuality of a mentoring relationship that evolves over time may correlate more closely with a friendship based informal style of mentoring. By nature, it is a voluntary connection.

In contrast to informal mentoring, formal mentoring is classified as either occurring through voluntary participation or involuntary (Allen, et al., 2006; Dunham-Taylor, et al. 2008; St. Clair, 1994; Van Emmerik et al., 2005; Wagner & Seymour, 2007). If participation as a mentor is involuntary, then he or she may not actively seek or be motivated to aid the mentee. The role may not have the same value to the mentor as one arrived at through voluntary participation. A less satisfactory relationship can be the consequence.

The choice to participate in a formal mentoring relationship may be based on the mentor's evaluation of risks and benefits. Risks of mentoring have included issues related to time commitment, generational differences, increased visibility within the organization and the potential production of anxiety in the mentor. Benefits have related to promotion and tenure, monetary remuneration, decreased workload, networking, recognition, sense of achievement and promotion of the next generation. Conclusions regarding the most effective style of mentoring continue to need investigation.

The notion that there are risks and benefits related to the concept of mentoring can be expressed through the concept of motivation. Is the motivation to mentor intrinsic (Grant, 2008; Grosshans, 2003; Lennon, 1996; Moynihan and Pandey, 2007; Zellers, et al., 2008) or extrinsic in nature (Ridout, 2006; Smith, et al., 2005)? The examination of

intrinsic motivation in the development of mentoring relationships may be basic to its success. A mentor who finds the role itself valuable may require few if any external rewards. These intrinsic rewards derived from observing and participating in the mentee's success may lead the mentor towards a sense of satisfaction (Andrews & Wallis, 1999). Contrasting the idea of intrinsic motivation, it is worthwhile examining whether extrinsic motivators predominate in encouraging mentorship. Therefore, knowledge of which form of motivation will best encourage faculty to add the role of mentor to their job is significant to a school's administration.

Furthermore, research, as it relates to mentoring, indicates improved professional development between both the mentor and the mentee. Mentoring is shown to be an outgrowth of a collegial environment. An environment that espouses mentoring also fosters friendships and professional growth. Job satisfaction is a direct corollary to this relationship. Maslow's (1970) need for love and belonging, self-esteem and self-actualization can directly relate to the concepts inherent to mentoring.

The exploration of the three major concepts of faculty mentoring faculty, motivation to mentor and job satisfaction are intertwined in nursing education. Utilizing knowledge of how these concepts work in concert with each other may lead to successfully implementing a mentoring program with the outcome of increased job satisfaction for both the mentor and mentee within the school environment.

Section 3: Research Method

Introduction

Mentoring using a formal approach has been identified by the NLN (2006) as being a method for improving job retention among nursing faculty. Whether it improves job satisfaction among nursing faculty has not been shown. In addition, there are limited studies indicating the response of educators, both new and senior, in associate-degree nursing programs to mentoring. Section 3 provides an overview of the methodology employed to determine which approach to mentoring, informal or formal, promotes job satisfaction in new and/or senior nursing faculty members. In addition, Section 3 describes the design and approach, research questions and hypothesis statements, the sampling method, instruments used, data collection, and analysis method. A summary of the method used to protect participant rights and the role of the researcher are also discussed.

Research Design and Approach

The purpose of the study was to determine whether a formal or an informal approach to mentoring improves the perception of job satisfaction of new and senior nursing faculty in associate-degree nursing programs, or whether length of employment alone is predictive of job satisfaction. A quantitative approach was used to ascertain if there is a relationship between these variables. Coleman and Briggs (2002) have described quantitative research as using independent and dependent variables combined with a cross-sectional survey to support such a relationship. Additionally, in a quantitative study, “the emphasis is very much upon the individual as the object of

research; the aggregation of individualized data provides overall measures" (Coleman & Briggs, 2002, p. 17). Use of a quantitative survey approach for this study may have helped determine if formal mentoring is a factor that can influence an outcome such as job satisfaction. This quantitative approach was more applicable than a qualitative approach as the variables are known. Additionally, this quantitative survey design was without open-ended questions, direct observations, or interviews common to qualitative research.

A cross-sectional, self-administered, randomized survey design was chosen to examine whether the type of mentoring, formal or informal, is a factor in improved job satisfaction. Associate-degree nurse educators from across New York State were asked to participate in the study. Nursing programs in New York State are located in cities, suburbs, and rural communities and may then be representative of this country's larger nursing community. This was a randomized study, as the researcher could not predict which faculty members would respond to the survey questionnaires. Each faculty member had an equal opportunity to respond (Creswell, 2003).

Faculty in nursing programs have many demands placed on them. They are often responsible for teaching theory, laboratory and clinical experiences, student advisement, research, and maintaining and updating their knowledge and skills as well as fulfilling college-related activities. A one-time self-administered online survey strategy seemed the most effective method for obtaining data without undo time constraints placed on the faculty. The survey took 15 minutes or less to complete and therefore should not have caused a delay in faculty commitments.

As New York State is geographically large, the self-administered questionnaire (Appendix B & Appendix C) was distributed via Survey Monkey to allow for ease of distribution and collection of data. The large geographic area also fostered a diversity of faculty from city, suburban, and rural settings. Furthermore, use of Survey Monkey incurred less expense.

According to Coleman and Briggs (2002/2006), "survey research is a method of collecting information by asking a set of preformulated questions in a predetermined sequence in a structured questionnaire to a sample of individuals drawn as to be representative of a defined population" (p.93). The responses of the individual faculty members surveyed could then provide data to be generalized to other programs of nursing (Coleman & Briggs, (Eds.) 2002).

The survey contains two components: a faculty questionnaire (Appendix C) and the JDI/JIG scale, revised 1997 (Appendix B). The faculty questionnaire includes a demographic component that will contribute to the understanding of the sample population, as well as determining the type of mentoring employed at a school. Faculty in nursing programs are diverse in their preparation for the educator role and their exposure to mentoring. This component helps to quantify how each faculty member differs in their current position and their prior educational and mentoring experiences. The JDI/JIG scale, revised 1997, will give a numeric value to the faculty member's perception to each of the six components of the job satisfaction scale. Completion of this survey is easy and does not require significant time. Using a method that can be completed quickly may

improve the number of responses received. It is hoped that a faculty member who chooses to answer the survey questions will do so giving thoughtful responses.

Setting and Sample

Criteria for Selecting Participants

This quantitative research study used a randomized sampling method. The population studied was associate-degree nursing faculty. According to the NLN (2013), there are 1,084 Associate-degree programs nationally. The sample population was faculty working in associate-degree nursing programs in New York State that were accredited by the NLN. All faculty in the study were required to have a minimum of a master's degree in nursing and/or an advanced nursing practice credential. No additional criteria were needed. According to Gravetter and Wallnau (2005), a population is defined as "the set of all the individuals of interest in a particular study" (p. 3) and a sample is defined as "a set of individuals selected from a population, usually intended to represent the population in a research study" (p. 4). Selecting New York State as the sample frame may have increased the diversity of the faculty and allowed for more generalization to the nursing population at the local level. In addition, the researcher works in New York City.

The associate-degree nursing programs selected had different curricula. However, the schools of nursing had similar standards and criteria for implementing their programs. One method of maintaining those standards was through an accreditation process. Therefore, though the school curricula and faculty varied, standards and criteria remain the same. One such accrediting body is the Accreditation Commission for Education in Nursing (ACEN), previously known as the National League for Nursing Accrediting

Commission (NLNAC). ACEN/NLNAC's mission includes the idea that "accreditation is a voluntary, self-regulatory process by which non-governmental associations recognize educational institutions or programs that have been found to meet or exceed standards and criteria for educational quality" (*Accreditation Manual*, 2006, p.1). ACEN/NLNAC is the accrediting body for the schools' in the study. Therefore, faculty employed in these schools must have met minimum standards.

Justification for the Number of Participants

The 47 schools selected are located in the state of New York. Each school has a different complement of faculty and this number can change semester to semester. Therefore, the number of faculty members in each nursing program can vary and the number of faculty, part time and adjunct can change with each course every semester. However, a nursing program's courses are often divided into 5 major content areas: fundamentals of nursing, medical-surgical nursing, maternal-child health nursing, mental health and leadership. Typically, there is at least one faculty member responsible for teaching theory and/or clinical, in each of the five areas. Based on this commonality, a minimum of 235 faculty are present in the New York State Associate-degree nursing programs. My goal was to include the participation of at least 5-15 faculty members per school. This would equal one to three faculty members per nursing course, comprising a mix of full-time, part-time, adjunct, new and senior faculty members. No additional criteria were needed to determine the sample population as faculty must meet the accreditation standards.

Procedures for Gaining Access to Participants/Development of a Working Relationship

Prior to the start of the study, IRB approval from Walden University was obtained. The identification of the schools and their deans/chairpersons were obtained from the NLN member site. The deans/chairpersons of these Associate–degree nursing schools in New York State were asked to forward an e-mail requesting participation in the study to all part-time/adjunct nursing faculty as well as full-time nursing faculty employed at the schools. Completion of the survey would indicate the faculty's consent to participate (Appendix F). A letter of cooperation was not considered necessary as the forwarding of the e-mail is considered sufficient willingness to participate. It is common practice in nursing programs to have requests for faculty participation in non-experimental research studies forwarded in this manner. Prior IRB approval from the schools selected may or may not be a requirement.

The researcher knows the acting dean of the Phillips Beth Israel School of Nursing and is employed at the school as a faculty member and course coordinator. A personal request for completion of the survey in addition to an e-mail was sent to this group. The faculty was reminded that names are optional and that completion of the survey has no evaluative function by the researcher.

Instrumentation and Materials

The instrument for determining job satisfaction was the JDI/JIG scale, revised 1997. Balzer et al. (1985/2000) "defined job satisfaction as the feelings a worker has about his or her job or job experiences in relation to previous experiences, current

expectations, or available alternatives" (p. 7). Their definition was derived from the work of Smith et al. (1969) and Ironson et al. (1989) (Balzer, et al., 1985/2000).

According to the researchers, the JDI and JIG have been used in a variety of settings and can be applied to all jobs within an organization. Furthermore, this tool has been translated into multiple languages and used in different countries (Balzer, et al., 1985/2000).

The purpose for measuring job satisfaction, according to the researchers, primarily relates to humanitarian, economic and theoretical reasons. Examples of humanitarian concerns correspond to "life satisfaction and mental and physical health," economic to "investment of time and money" by the management and theoretical to "work motivation and work behavior" (Balzer, et al., 1985/2000, p. 8). The JDI is reflective of the person's short-term evaluation of the job and the JIG the long-term evaluation (Balzer, et al., 1985/2000).

These researchers chose to use a written questionnaire format to collect their data as they believed that interpretation of interviews were more subjective. Additionally, they made a decision to create a questionnaire where the responses were in a simplified form. The respondents were required to answer questions with "yes," "no" or a "?" (cannot decide). In this way, the researchers hoped that the collection of data would be greater (Balzer, et al., 1985/2000, p. 10, 12). The checklist format used adjectives that require a low reading level in the attempt to capture a diverse work population. The two scales, JDI and JIG, assess a person's view of the job itself, supervision, promotion, pay and co-

workers as well as the person's feelings revolving about the job (Balzer et al., 1985/2000, p. 11). The scales are not meant to be used as a tool for evaluation.

Validation of the scale was originally performed in a process spanning five years in a series of four studies. It was a revised in 1985 to reflect changes in language use and jobs and again in 1997. Balzer et al. (1985/2000) determined that the "scale reliabilities remain impressively high, with an average internal consistency (alpha) of .88 across six samples" (p.42). The internal reliability estimates were calculated based on approximately 1600 cases. The results of the coefficient alpha for the JDI and JIG are as follows (Table 1) (Balzer et al., 1985/2000 p. 43-44).

Table 1

Coefficient Alpha (α) Values for the JDI and JIG

JDI subscale	α	n
Work	.90	1623
Pay	.86	1603
Opportunities for promotion	.87	1611
Supervision	.91	1613
Co-workers	.91	1615
Job in general	.92	1629

Van Saane, Sluiter, Verbeek and Frings-Dresen (2003) reviewed job satisfaction tools to determine their psychometric quality. The researchers focused on internal consistency, the test-retest reliability and construct validity of the instruments. Scores of

.80 or higher were considered acceptable for the internal consistency coefficient, a .70 or higher for the test-retest coefficient and .50 or higher for convergent validity. Both the JDI and JIG were instruments evaluated. The researchers found that the revised JDI had an internal consistency of .88 and the JIG .91(Van Saane, et al. 2003).

Data related to the two independent variables in the study, formal mentoring and employment length at the school (new or senior), were obtained from the faculty questionnaire (Appendix C). The dependent variable, job satisfaction, was scored using the data collected from the JDI/JIG Scale (Appendix B). All of the data obtained via Survey Monkey is kept on the researcher's private home computer.

Data Collection and Analysis

Data Collection Choices and Justification

An online survey format was used. This method of data collection allows faculty from across New York State, a large geographic area, to participate in the study. New York State's large geographic area encompasses rural, suburban and city locations, which should increase the diversity of faculty. Having a variation in school locals should increase the study's generalizability to schools across the country. An online survey design will also decrease cost to the researcher and take minimal time to complete by the faculty.

The schools' deans/chairpersons were e-mailed asking to have their faculty complete a survey via Survey Monkey. A hyperlink to Survey Monkey was included in the e-mail. Use of e-mail with a link to Survey Monkey should have decreased the time

required to collect the data. However, due to timing, the surveys went out near the holidays and winter intercession. This delayed the response time.

Specific Plan for the Survey

Faculty members were asked to complete a questionnaire indicating demographic information and data related to mentoring (Appendix C). This assisted in differentiating the presence of a formal mentoring program at the school (question # 10), faculty employment status (questions # 9), length of time employed (question # 8), voluntary participation (question # 13), compensation as well as prior experience with the mentoring process (questions 11- 21). Additionally, questions # 2 - 9 depict basic information related to age, gender, and the person's years as an RN, years as an educator, highest degree and certification. Question # 1 identifies the location of the school. Descriptive statistics, such as the frequency were used to organize and summarize the data. For example, nonparametric tests with nominal scales will categorize the participants according to whether the schools have a formal mentoring program and the faculty member's highest degree earned. "Measurements on a nominal scale label and categorize observations, but do not make any quantitative distinctions between observations" (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2005. p.18). An interval scale was used to categorize the age of the faculty members.

Faculty members also completed the JDI/JIG (Appendix B) questionnaire to assess job satisfaction. Scoring of the JDI/JIG is done by assigning a numerical value to the "Y", "N", and "?" (cannot decide) answers. Approximately half of the items on the scale are worded favorably and indicate satisfaction. Three points are given to these

responses, 0 points for an "N" response and the "?" gets 1 point. Scores on the JDI Pay and Promotion sections are doubled. The range of possible scores for each section is equal to 0-54. Therefore a score of 27 is the midpoint and scores of 32 or higher are considered to indicate satisfaction and 22 and below to indicate dissatisfaction (Balzer, et al., 1985/2000 p. 19-27). Items left blank are given 1 point unless more than 3 responses in an 18 item scale or more than 2 responses in a 9 item scale are left blank. If that occurs the section should not be scored. Examples of answer choices on the JDI category People in Your Present Job include stimulating and boring. Examples of choices on the JDI category Work on Present Job are fascinating and boring.

The first research question (RQ1), "Is job satisfaction, as measured by the JDI/JIG scale, more likely to occur for new faculty than senior faculty in Associate-degree nursing programs in New York State?" The two hypotheses are H_01 "Faculty length of employment does not affect the respondent's perception of job satisfaction measured on each of the six JDI/JIG components." and H_11 "Faculty length of employment does affect the respondent's perception of job satisfaction measured on each of the six JDI/JIG components." The independent variable is length of employment (new or senior faculty); a dichotomous value. The dependent variable job satisfaction was measured for each of the six components of the JDI/JIG scale.

Research question number two (RQ2), "Is job satisfaction as measured by the JDI/JIG scale more likely to occur for faculty when a formal mentoring program is in use by associate-degree nursing programs in New York State?" The two hypotheses are H_02 "Participation in formal mentoring programs affects the respondent's perception of job

satisfaction measured on each of the six JDI/JIG components" and $H_1 2$ Formal mentoring programs do not appear related to the respondent's perception of job satisfaction as measured on each of the six JDI/JIG components." Logistic regression was used for each of the two research question hypotheses. "Logistic regression allows you to test models to predict categorical outcomes with two or more categories" (Pallant, 2010, p.170). The data obtained was analyzed using the SPSS software, v 21.

Data Collection and Recording

The request for completion of the surveys was sent via e-mail to reach faculty at the start of the week. A second request for participation via e-mail was sent after two weeks and then an additional two weeks with a reminder to capture the greatest number of participants. A total of five weeks was allotted for the collection of data. However, due to school holiday and intercession additional time was needed to obtain survey responses. Data analysis using SPSS software commenced following the data collection. All data was recorded and kept at the researcher's home. Faculty may request the results of the study by including their e-mail address and name.

The Role of the Researcher

The researcher has been an RN for 41 years and an educator for 37 years. The last 8 years have included coordination responsibilities at the Phillips Beth Israel School of Nursing, an Associate-degree program. Therefore, the researcher knows this faculty. The faculty were reminded that there is no evaluative function attached to the research and they may remain anonymous when completing the questionnaire. In addition, the

researcher has been a clinical adjunct in a Baccalaureate nursing program. The researcher does not know the faculty from the other schools in the study.

How and When Data Were Analyzed

Data was analyzed at the end of the four months. The added time was required due to the need to obtain IRB approvals from many of the schools. SPSS software was used to analyze the data collected. The variables were first coded, and then entered into SPSS. The following are examples of how the faculty data questionnaire variables were coded: gender (female =1, male = 2), highest degree (MA/MSN =1, EdD=2, PhD=3, DNP=4) and been mentored (Yes=1, No=2, Unsure=3, Not Applicable = 4, Blank = 5). The Job in General Scale was labeled as JIG. The coding instructions for each of the variables included 0 = Not satisfied and 1-= Satisfied. The Job Descriptive Index had each component listed as JDI plus the name of the component. For example, JDI: People in my job. A 0= Not satisfied with the component and a 1 = Satisfied. After entering the variables and codes, the data was explored using descriptive statistics, frequencies, and logistic regression.

Logistic regression is appropriate when there is a dichotomous dependent variable. In this study, the dichotomous dependent variables are not satisfied, coded as a 0, or satisfied coded as a 1. The independent variables or set of predictors, in this study, include length of employment and type of mentoring provided by the academic institution. Pallant (2010) states, “Logistic regression allows you to assess how well your set of predictor variables predicts or explains your categorical dependent variable” (p. 171). The predictor variables should be independent of each other.

A nonparametric test, Chi-square, is used to test goodness- of- fit. It is used as part of logistic regression. The Chi -square test is employed with categories in a nominal or ordinal scale. This test determines whether the hypothesis evaluates the population proportion (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2005). "A significant value should be less than .05" (Pallant, 2010, p.175). If the scores obtained were on an interval or ratio scale than a *t* test should have been used "to evaluate a hypothesis about the population mean" (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2005, p. 465).

Evidence of Quality and Procedures to Assure Accuracy, Validity and Reliability

Prior to the distribution of the actual survey, it was piloted to several colleagues. Their feedback helped ensure that the questions asked were clearly stated and relevant. Based on their response the location of the school, city, suburban or rural was added as a question. According to Coleman and Briggs (Eds.)(2006), "it's only when a group similar to your main population completes your questionnaire and provides feedback that you know for sure all is well" (p.167). No adjustments were made to the JDI/JIG scale.

Process/Informed Consent and Ethical Considerations

Prior to the study Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval was granted from Walden University. The IRB number is: 07-30-14-0049363. Nursing programs receiving requests for study participation in a survey may or may not require prior IRB approval.

A letter of introduction, indicating the title and purpose of the research was included as a cover letter. Faculty were informed in the e-mail (Appendix F), that participation is voluntary and that they could withdraw from the study at any time without repercussion. Their responses to the survey would remain confidential and all

documents related to the study kept in a secure location at the researcher's home. Completion of the survey indicates the faculty's consent to participate. If the faculty member requests the results of the study, they must indicate their name and e-mail address. However, their names remain with the researcher and are not included in any document.

Summary

A faculty data survey and the JDI/JIG questionnaires were used to collect data from mentors and mentees in Associate-degree nursing programs in New York State. The dependent variables used to determine faculty perception of job satisfaction were the responses on the six components of the JDI/JIG scale. The independent variables were formal mentoring programs as opposed to the use of an informal approach employed at the schools. As well as, the prediction of job satisfaction as it relates to years of employment dichotomized, senior vs. new faculty. Each was examined via logistic regression.

Section 4: Results

Introduction

The study sought to determine whether job satisfaction could be predicted by the implementation of formal mentoring programs in associate-degree nursing programs or if length of employment was a more significant factor. The first research question (RQ1) was, "Is job satisfaction as measured by the JDI/JIG scale more likely to occur for new faculty than senior faculty in associate-degree nursing programs in New York State?" The second research question (RQ2) was, "Is job satisfaction as measured by the JDI/JIG scale more likely to occur for faculty when a formal mentoring program is in use by associate-degree nursing programs in New York State?" The responses obtained from faculty completion of the online survey via Survey Monkey determined the scores. The survey included two components, a faculty questionnaire and the JDI/JIG scale.

The JDI/JIG scale contains six component parts, each measured independently. A logistic regression model was used to estimate the probability that job satisfaction was an outcome of formal mentoring or length of employment. A value on a JDI/JIG component that equaled 31 or less was coded as 0 for not satisfied, and a value 32 or more was coded as 1 for satisfied. Faculty data included areas related to demographics and mentoring. The collected data was then quantified numerically and by percentiles. SPSS, v 21 software was used for the statistical analysis.

Data Analysis

Faculty Questionnaire

A total of 47 NLNAC/ACEN accredited New York State associate-degree nursing programs were asked to participate in the survey. Seventeen schools agreed and were granted participation by the Walden IRB number 07-30-14-0049363. Out of the 17 schools that participated, there were 49 respondents. Although the sample did not include the original number of five faculty per school, it did include a mix of school locations. This information was discerned from the response to survey question 1 (Table 2) and added to the diversity of the sample.

Table 2

Location of Schools Surveyed

Location	Frequency	Percent
City	31	63.3%
Suburb	10	20.4%
Rural	8	16.3%
Total	49	100.0%

Faculty did not have a significant mix of gender. Only one out of the 49 respondents was male. The nursing profession is predominantly female. Therefore, this is an expected finding. According to the AACN (2010) only 9.6% of nursing faculty are male. The data on gender was obtained from survey question 2.

The faculty response for ages, survey question 3, indicated a diversely aged population. Ages ranged from 25-30 years to 71- plus years. Faculty aged 51 years and older, 63.2%, (Table 3) were the majority.

The faculty were classified by age group comparing how each age group's educational background differed. The highest degree earned by faculty indicated that the NLNAC/ACEN guidelines had been followed. At the associate-degree level, the minimum degree is an MA/MSN. This degree was held by 75.5% of the 49 respondents. The remaining respondents had earned an EdD (2%), PhD (8.2%), or DNP (8.2%). Two respondents left this blank. This data was identified from survey question 5 (Table 3).

Table 3

Highest Faculty Degree and Certification by Number in Each Age Group

Faculty Age Groups	Frequency	MA/MSN	PhD	Ed D	DNP	Blank	Certification Frequency	Certification Percent
25-30	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	5.9%
31-35	3	3	0	0	0	0	2	11.8%
36-40	3	3	0	0	0	0	1	5.9%
41-45	4	2	0	0	1	1	2	11.8%
46-50	6	4	1	0	0	1	0	0%
51-55	11	9	0	1	1	0	5	29.4%
56-60	11	7	2	0	2	0	5	29.4%
61-65	6	5	1	0	0	0	0	0%
66-70	2	2	0	0	0	0	1	5.9%
71+	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0%
Blank	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0%
Total	49	38	4	1	4	2	17	100%

Additionally, 17 (34.7%) of the faculty had advanced practice certification, survey question 6 (Table 3). Certification was further broken down by age. Faculty aged 25-50 years equaled 35.3% with advanced certification and those aged 51 and older equaled 64.7%. Certification is not a mandatory requirement for faculty employment in associate-degree nursing programs. Obtaining advanced certification is pursued by choice

and gives evidence of expertise in an area. This question was included to determine if this was significant to mentoring. It was not.

Twenty-seven of the 49 faculty had been in the nursing profession for 26 or more years (Table 4). This data was derived from question 4 on the survey.

Table 4

Years as a Registered Professional Nurse (RN)

Years as an RN	Frequency	Percent
1 – 10 Years	5	10.2%
11 – 15 Years	8	16.3%
16 – 20 Years	5	10.2%
21 – 25 years	4	8.2%
26 + Years	27	55.1%
Total	49	100%

Furthermore, 46 of the 49 respondents had been in nursing education for more than two years (Table 5). This data was obtained from survey question 7. Determining a faculty member's years in nursing, years as an educator, and years in their current place of employment revealed the nurse's professional trajectory in nursing education. When viewing the numbers, it was apparent that not all faculty remained at the same place of employment throughout their years as an educator.

Table 5

Faculty Years in Nursing Education

Number of Years	Frequency	Percent
Less than 2 year	3	6.1%
2 – 10 Years	28	57.1%
11 – 20 years	8	16.3%
21+ Years	10	20.4%
Total	49	100%

A further description of the faculty surveyed narrowed the focus to whether they were new employees or senior employees as compared to how long they have been in their current place of employment. New faculty equaled 17 (34.7%) in number and senior faculty 32 (65.3%). Relatedly, the percentage of senior faculty (65.3%) is close to the percentage of faculty over the age of 51 years (63.2%).

In addition, the faculty member's position, full time, part time, or adjunct, within the organization was determined. Their status within the school could have had potential bearing on the development of a mentor/mentee relationship. Full-time faculty totaled 24 (48.9%), adjunct faculty equaled 23 (46.9%), and part-time faculty accounted for two (4.08%). It cannot be determined from this study if this is a typical distribution in nursing programs. However, the position of adjunct or part time faculty can make it potentially more difficult to connect as mentor to mentee.

Faculty in nursing academia, do not remain with the same employer throughout their academic career. The reason for this cannot be determined from this study.

Nevertheless, it indicates that though a faculty member may be employed in an educational institution for many years, their position, full-time, part-time or adjunct within the institution or his/her job title in the nursing program may have changed.

Only 17 of the faculty indicated that their school had a formal mentoring program. The remaining 32 indicated that there was no formal program or that they were unsure. The unsure group was added to the "no" numbers as a formal program was not apparent to this group. A review of the number and percentage of schools with a formal mentoring program was compared with regard to new and senior faculty through cross tabulation. Table 6 indicates the results. Only four new faculty indicated that a formal mentoring program was present at their school. This limited the results for new faculty on analysis of the data.

Table 6

Number of Senior Faculty and New Faculty with Formal Mentoring Programs

Faculty	Informal mentoring program	Formal mentoring program	Total
Senior faculty	19 (59.4%)	13 (40.6%)	32
New faculty	13 (76.5%)	4 (23.5%)	17
Total	32 (65.3%)	17 (34.7%)	49 (100.0%)

The remaining survey questions dealt specifically with the concept of mentoring. Two questions related directly to being a mentee (Table 7). This was important to ascertain the number of faculty who identified themselves as having been mentored. Prior experience with being a mentee may have influenced the faculty's perception of the

mentor/mentee association. Furthermore, a mentee who acknowledged that being mentored increased their willingness to stay in their position was seen as a positive response to mentoring.

Table 7

Faculty Who Have Been a Mentee

	Frequency Yes	Frequency No	Frequency Unsure	Frequency Not applicable	Frequency Blank
Have you ever been mentored?	29	17	1	1	1
Has being mentored increased your willingness to stay in your position?	26	5	3	14	1

The three faculty who indicated that they were unsure if they had ever been mentored, chose not applicable or left the question blank. They may not have recognized or understood mentoring. Additionally, these questions did not distinguish whether the mentoring was with a formal program or done informally.

Mentoring as an expectation or requirement of the position was indicated as occurring by 11 (22.4%) respondents, survey question 15. The remaining faculty, 77.5%, indicated no, unsure, not applicable or blank. In addition, 17 (34.7%) respondents indicated that a formal mentoring program was currently present at their school, survey question 10. Given this information, though schools may have a formal mentoring program not all faculty are expected to mentor when a program is in place. Relatedly 11

(22.4%) of respondents indicated, survey question 16, that the mentee was assigned, but only six (12.2%) had input into who the mentee would be, question 17 (Table 8).

Table 8

Questions Related to Taking on the Role of Mentor

	Frequency Yes	Frequency No	Frequency Unsure	Frequency Not applicable	Frequency Blank
Did you volunteer to be a mentor?	18	7	0	0	24
Was the mentee assigned?	11	15	0	0	23
Were you compensated for being a mentor?	1	22	0	17	9
Did compensation influence your decision to be a mentor?	1	7	0	30	11
Would you have volunteered without compensation?	34	1	0	8	6
Did being a mentor increase your willingness to stay in your current position?	7	10	3	21	8

The number of faculty who would volunteer to mentor without any form of compensation was 34 (69.4%). This is also consistent with Erikson's (1963) stage of Generativity vs. Stagnation when a person wants to give back and share their knowledge and is consistent with the increased percentage of respondents who were 50 years old or more.

Other questions associated with mentoring, asked if the respondent had ever been mentored at the school, survey question 11. The response indicated that 29 (59.2%) had felt they were mentored. Given 17 respondents identified their schools as having a formal program it is likely that informal mentoring was taking place. Furthermore, 26 (53.1%) respondents revealed that being mentored would increase their willingness to stay in the position, survey question 13. These results indicate that faculty agree that being mentored is beneficial.

However, increasing the willingness to stay in the position in response to being the mentor was identified by only seven (14.3%) of the respondents, survey question 21. Only one respondent indicated that compensation was given, survey question 18, for being a mentor and one indicated that it influenced the decision to become a mentor, survey question 19. Out of the 22 (44.9%) faculty who revealed that they were mentors, survey question 13, only 18 (36.7%) indicated that the role was voluntary, survey question 14. The remaining four faculty were therefore not in this role by choice. These numbers are inconsistent with the 34 faculty who indicated they would volunteer to mentor without compensation. It is reasonable that some of the respondents who responded to this question were part of the mentee group and would in the future volunteer to mentor.

JDI/JIG Scale

Logistic regression analyses were performed to determine whether there was a relationship between faculty length of employment and job satisfaction or if participation in a formal mentoring program related to job satisfaction. The hypotheses for Research

Question 1 was: H_o1 Faculty length of employment does not affect the respondent's perception of job satisfaction as measured on each of the six JDI/JIG components and H_11 Faculty length of employment does affect the respondent's perception of job satisfaction measured on each of the six JDI/JIG components. Hypotheses for Research Question 2 were H_02 Participation in formal mentoring programs affect the respondent's perception of job satisfaction measured on each of the six JDI/JIG components and H_12 Formal mentoring programs do not appear related to the respondent's perception of job satisfaction measured on each of the six JDI/JIG components. Each component conducted individually and analyses are performed for each of the independent variables including new faculty, senior faculty and formal mentoring programs.

The Job in General (JIG) scale reflects the person's long-term evaluation of job satisfaction. Logistic regression was performed to assess the impact of length of employment and formal mentoring programs on the likelihood that respondents would indicate job satisfaction on the Job in General scale (JIG).

Length of employment was coded 1 for 2 years or less of employment obtained from survey question # 8 and coded a 0 for more than 2 years. The dependent variable, job satisfaction on the JIG scale were coded as 0 equals not satisfied and 1 equals satisfied. The first regression was conducted on the independent variable, new faculty, and their response on the JIG scale (Table 9).

Table 9

Logistic Regression Block 1: New Faculty and the JIG Scale

	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig	Exp(B)	95% C.I. for Exp(B)	
							Lower	Upper
New faculty	.693	1.049	.437	1	.509	2.000	.256	15.623
Constant	2.015	.753	7.164	1	.007	7.500		

In logistic regression, Block 0 shows the results without the independent variable included in the model and the classification tables give the overall percentage that has been correctly identified (Pallant, 2010). Block 1 contains the predictor variable and tests the model. It displays the results with the predictors tested. The Chi-square goodness-of-fit test, a nonparametric test, was used to determine how well the model fit. It compared the expected values to the observed values. A p-value of $\alpha = .05$ was used. The Chi-square goodness-of-fit test compares the observed frequencies to the null hypothesis and the significance should be a value less than .05 (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2005; Pallant 2010). If it is higher, then none of the excluded variables is significant as a predictor.

In the logistic regression for new faculty and the JIG scale, the model without the predictor variable showed a satisfaction percentage of 91.8%. The classification table with the predictor present showed no difference in the percentage compared to the table in Block 0. The model as a whole explained between .9% (Cox & Snell R squared) and 2% (Nagelkerke R squared) of the variance of job satisfaction on the JIG scale. These scales indicate, “the amount of variation in the dependent variable explained by the

model" (Pallant, 2010, p. 176).The results for new faculty and the JIG was $\chi 2$ (1, n =49) = .431, p > .512. The significance level of .512 for new faculty was not a good predictor of long-term satisfaction as obtained from the scores on the JIG scale. Similar findings were obtained for senior faculty as there was no difference between the percentage satisfied on the classification table with and without the predictor present.

The JDI suggests the person's short-term view of job satisfaction. It explicates the individual's perception of five categories. The categories are people on your present job, supervision, work on my present job, pay and opportunities for promotion. The independent variable, for length of employment, was analyzed against the respondents report on the corresponding JDI scales. Length of employment was coded 1 for 2 years or less of employment and coded a 0 for more than 2 years. The dependent variable for job satisfaction on the corresponding JDI scales were coded as 0 equals not satisfied and 1 equals satisfied. These codes were used for each of the JDI components.

The first regression was conducted on the independent variable, new faculty, and the response on the JDI scale People on Your Present Job (Table 10).

Table 10

Logistic Regression Block 1: New Faculty and JDI: People on Your Present Job

	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% C.I. for Exp(B)	
							Lower	Upper
New faculty	.254	.967	.069	1	.793	1.289	.194	8.572
Constant	2.015	.753	7.164	1	.007	7.500		

Block 1 presented the results from the actual observed data. A p-value of $\alpha = .05$ was used for the Chi-square goodness-of-fit test. The result for new faculty and the JDI: People on Your Present Job was $\chi 2$ (1, n =49) = .068, p > .793. This indicates that the model was unable to distinguish between the new faculty respondents who were and were not satisfied on this component of the JDI scale. The classification table showed no difference in the percentage compared to the table in Block 0, 89.8%. The model as a whole explained between .1% (Cox & Snell R squared) and .3% (Nagelkerke R squared) of the variance of job satisfaction on this element of the JDI scale.

Once again, senior faculty showed no difference in their perception of job satisfaction on the JDI: People on Your Present Job. The classification table indicated that they were satisfied 89.8% of the time both with and without this predictor present.

The next component analyzed was JDI: Supervision. This area also had similar statistics between the two groups, new and senior faculty. The first group analyzed for satisfaction with supervision was new faculty. In this group, one person did not complete this component, so the n = 16 instead of 17.

Block 1 of new faculty and supervision revealed that the model was not able to determine with accuracy satisfaction with supervision (Table 11). A p-value of $\alpha = .05$ was used for the Chi-square goodness-of-fit test. This test result for new faculty and the JDI: Supervision was $\chi 2$ (1, n =48) = .951, p > .329. The model as a whole explained between 2% (Cox & Snell R squared) and 3.7% (Nagelkerke R squared) of the variance of job satisfaction on this section of the JDI scale. Given these values, the model was not able to discriminate satisfaction with supervision.

Senior faculty reported satisfaction with supervision 97.9% of the time. This value was unchanged whether the predictor of supervision was added. There was no significance noted for the predictor variable supervision.

Table 11

Logistic Regression Block 1: New Faculty and JDI: Supervision

	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% C.I. for Exp(B)	
							Lower	Upper
New faculty	-1.022	1.142	.801	1	.371	.360	.038	3.374
Constant	2.708	1.033	6.875	1	.009	15.000		

The next set of regressions was on the component JDI: Work on My Present Job (Table 12). As before, both new and senior faculty were analyzed. New faculty and senior faculty were both satisfied on this category. The classification tables indicated a 97.9% satisfaction in this section. One person omitted the section.

Block 1 regression, new faculty, found the Chi-square goodness-of-fit test with a p-value of $\alpha = .05$ to have the following results. This was $\chi 2$ (1, n =48) = .822, p > .365. The model as a whole explained between 1.7% (Cox & Snell R squared) and 9.3% (Nagelkerke R squared) of the variance of job satisfaction on the JDI: Work on My Present Job scale. Given these values, the model was not able to discriminate satisfaction with new faculty members.

Table 12

Logistic Regression Block 1: New Faculty and JDI: Work on My Present Job

	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% C.I. for Exp(B)	
							Lower	Upper
New faculty	-17.769	10048.24	.000	1	.999	.000	.000	
Constant	21.203	10048.24	.000	1	.998	1615474831.0		

a. Constant is included in the model.

The results for senior faculty also lacked significant data. Given the values obtained, the model was not able to discriminate satisfaction for senior faculty members. The classification tables indicated satisfaction for this group as well.

The JDI scale for Pay was the next area analyzed for new and then senior faculty. Logistic regression was performed on these two independent variables. The predicted values were unable to predict with significance satisfaction for either new or senior faculty. The overall percentage predicted for satisfaction with pay was 68.8%. One person did not complete the section.

New faculty and the JDI scale for Pay indicated less satisfaction than the other categories, but was not predictive of satisfaction. The results for new faculty, Block 1 statistics resulted in the Chi-square goodness-of-fit test with the p-value of $\alpha = .05$ was $\chi 2$ (1, n =48) = .430, p > .512. The model as a whole explained between .9% (Cox & Snell R squared) and 1.3% (Nagelkerke R squared) of the variance of job satisfaction on the JDI: Pay scale. Given these values, the model was not able to discriminate satisfaction for new faculty members.

Senior faculty, again, had similar results. The scale representing satisfaction with pay was unable to be used as a predictor of satisfaction.

The last scale related to opportunities for promotion. Again, logistic regression was used to determine satisfaction for both new and senior faculty. The results were similar for both new and senior faculty with an overall prediction rate of 83.3%. One person did not complete this component.

Block 1 statistics for the independent variable new faculty resulted in the Chi-square goodness-of-fit test with the p-value of $\alpha = .05$ was $\chi 2$ (1, n =48) = .312, p > .576. The model as a whole explained between .6% (Cox & Snell R squared) and 1.1% (Nagelkerke R squared) of the variance of job satisfaction on the JDI: Opportunity for Promotion scale. Given these values, the model was not able to discriminate satisfaction for new faculty members.

However, further statistics for Block 1, new faculty and the JDI scale opportunities for promotion, resulted in the Exp(B) value of 1.615 with a 95% confidence

interval for Exp(B) equal to .287- 9.086. Though it lacked significance, new faculty were 1.6 times as likely to be satisfied with opportunities for promotion.

Senior faculty did not show similar results for the odds ratio in this category. However, when the independent variable, advanced degree was added, the significance was .027. Opportunity for promotion was therefore a significant predictor when the faculty held a higher degree than the minimum of the MA/MSN required by NLNAC/ACEN.

In addition, when years as an RN were added as an independent variable then the significance level was .066. Though not significant, it is close. This may have had a more significant value if the sample size were higher.

Another variable of significance occurred when faculty with ten plus years was added. The significance level for new faculty was .043. The perceived perception of opportunities for promotion may relate to their early trajectory within nursing education.

A summary table (Table 13) of the number and percentage of faculty who were or were not satisfied with each category is presented.

Table 13

Number and Percentage of Faculty Satisfied/Not Satisfied with Each Scale

Scales	New Faculty			Senior Faculty	
	Satisfied	Not Satisfied	Missing	Satisfied	Not Satisfied
Job in General	15 (88.2 %)	2 (11.8%)	0	30 (93.4%)	2 (6.3%)
JDI: People in My Present Job	15 (88.2 %)	2 (11.8%)	0	29 (90.6%)	3 (9.4%)
JDI: Supervision	15 (88.2 %)	1 (5.8%)	1 (5.8%)	27 (84.4%)	5 (15.6%)
JDI: Work on My Current Job	16 (94.1 %)	0	1 (5.8%)	31 (96.9%)	1 (3.1%)
JDI: Pay	6 (35.2%)	10 (58.8%)	1 (5.8%)	9 (28%)	23 (71.8%)
JDI: Opportunities for Promotion	2 (11.8%)	14 (82.4%)	1 (5.8%)	6 (18.8%)	26 (81.3%)

The null hypothesis for research question number one was not rejected for length of employment. Length of employment, alone, was not a significant predictor of job satisfaction on any of the JDI/JIG scales.

The next set of regressions looked at formal mentoring programs and each of the JDI/JIG scales. There was an n = 17 for identified formal programs. The remaining programs, n = 32, represent informal mentoring. Formal mentoring did not predict job satisfaction in any of the areas of the JDI/JIG scales. Therefore, the null hypothesis for research question number 2 related to the presence of a formal mentoring program was not rejected.

The opportunity for promotion scale was the only category that had any variable with significance. These independent variables were advanced degree, years as an RN and new faculty.

Summary

The study attempted to determine whether length of employment, new or senior faculty, or a formal mentoring program was more predictive of job satisfaction in Associate-degree nursing programs in New York State. A survey was sent, via Survey Monkey, to 47 schools. Seventeen schools agreed to participate. The anticipated sample size was not achieved as only 49 faculty members of the 17 schools responded. However, there was diversity in geographical location of the schools, age, credentials and experience with mentoring. Frequencies presented the actual number and percentage of faculty responding to each question on the faculty questionnaire. Each of the six components of the JDI/JIG scales were analyzed using SPSS, v 21 software. A Chi-square goodness-of-fit test and logistic regression was used on each component. The presence of a formal mentoring program at the school, senior faculty (employed more than two years) and new faculty (employed two years or less) were the independent categorical variables. The dependent variable, job satisfaction, was indicated as not satisfied or satisfied, for each of the six components.

Section 4 addressed the analysis of the research questions and their attendant hypotheses:

RQ1: Is job satisfaction as measured by the JDI/JIG scale more likely to occur for new faculty than senior faculty in associate-degree nursing programs in New York State?

$H_0$1: New faculty length of employment does not affect the respondent's perception of job satisfaction measured on each of the six JDI/JIG components.

$H_1$1: New faculty length of employment does affect the respondent's perception of job satisfaction measured on each of the six JDI/JIG components.

RQ2: Is job satisfaction as measured by the JDI/JIG scale more likely to occur for faculty when a formal mentoring program is in use by associate-degree nursing programs in New York State?

$H_0$2: Formal mentoring programs affect the respondent's perception of job satisfaction measured on each of the six JDI/JIG components.

H_1*2*: Formal mentoring programs do not appear related to the respondent's perception of job satisfaction measured on each of the six JDI/JIG components.

Neither length of employment, new or senior faculty, nor the presence of a formal mentoring program, was statistically significant as a predictor of job satisfaction as measured on the JDI/JIG scale.

Section 5 will discuss the conclusions, recommendations and social change.

Section 5: Discussion, Conclusions, Recommendations and Social Change

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to identify whether a formal mentoring program or length of employment, senior or new, is more predictive of job satisfaction. The NLN (2006) suggested that a method to decrease the approaching nursing shortage is to employ formal mentoring programs in schools of nursing and that having nurses choose to enter academia or remain within its environment may improve retention. In consequence, this would allow for greater student enrollment. Nursing programs have had to turn away students for lack of qualified faculty (AACN, 2014; NLN, 2006; NLN, 2010).

Researchers have found that a caring collegial environment is a motivator in retaining faculty (Sawatzky & Enns, 2009; Skemp-Arlt & Toupence, 2007; Thorpe & Kalischuk, 2003; Wagner & Seymour, 2007). Furthermore, researchers have also noted that a formal mentoring program could lead to a more collegial environment (Ambrose, et al., 2005). Nevertheless, it has not been demonstrated that faculty participation in formal mentoring programs improve job satisfaction nor what aspects of the job will inspire faculty to enter or remain in academia. The research questions asked if length of employment or formal mentoring programs were more predictive of job satisfaction.

One might conclude that a person who remains in a position for a longer period is satisfied with their position. However, it is possible that needs are being met that are unrelated to job satisfaction (Maslow, 1970). Examples of these necessities are the feeling that a person should be giving back to society, that the job meets a family or

personal need, that it fulfills the need for advancement in a career, or that there is recognition of the importance of educating the next generation of nurses (Erikson, 1963; Maslow, 1970; Knowles, 1970). None of these examples simply state that the job leads to happiness, contentment, or satisfaction and the positive affective emotion they imply. This study was conducted to determine if there was a particular aspect of the job, the presence of a formal mentoring program or length of employment that led to the concept of job satisfaction.

The JDI/JIG is a tool that views six aspects of a job, and a response can indicate whether or not the respondent is satisfied with a particular job area. By breaking down the job into components, the JDI/JIG helps identify areas that can lead to job satisfaction in the workplace. Knowledge of how the component outcomes are examined can direct nursing programs to employ measures to improve job satisfaction.

Discussion

The survey identified only 4 out of 17 new faculty and 13 out of 17 senior faculty who had a formal mentoring program present at their school. These numbers make it difficult to discern the significance of the relationship between formal mentoring and job satisfaction. Analyses indicate that participation in a formal mentoring program would not influence a senior faculty member's decision to stay in the job. This would not support the NLN (2006) expectation that formal mentoring would lead to improved faculty retention, but it is difficult to determine given the small sample.

However, a formal mentoring program might be seen as an advantage to nurses seeking a new career role. New faculty may view a specific key faculty member such as

an assigned mentor as a resource for easing their transition into a new organization or role in nursing. This view may also indicate that formal mentoring may be perceived as increasing the likelihood of friendships and feelings of increased comfort within the new position (Maslow, 1970). This notion may further lead to the belief that the new position will continue over time. Perhaps a study utilizing a larger sample size will yield this conclusion.

The JDI scales measure a person's more immediate view of their job. When considering the variables of length of employment and formal mentoring programs in context to the JDI/JIG scale, none of the null hypotheses were rejected.

Satisfaction on the JDI: People on the Present Job scale was not significant for either length of employment or formal mentoring programs. However, the questionnaire data indicated that being mentored was seen more positively than being the mentor. This feeling may relate to the new faculty member's frequent interaction with a specific person or persons. Maslow's (1970) identified need for love and belonging and Erikson's (1963) sixth stage, intimacy vs. isolation, may be underlying factors for new faculty as they initiate new connections within the work environment. In addition, the new faculty member recognizes that their status places them in the position of learner and understands that a mentor can facilitate the process of applying their knowledge to the new workplace (Knowles, 1970). Nevertheless, this data did not identify whether formal or informal mentoring was the type of mentoring offered.

Length of employment and formal mentoring programs were not significant predictors of job satisfaction on the JDI: Supervision scale. Though formal mentoring

was not predictive, supervision can be considered a component of the concept of mentoring. In addition, both Maslow's (1970) identified need for self-esteem and self-actualization may be factors. Improving one's abilities or moving to an advanced place within the organization is consistent with the necessity for supervision. Knowles's (1970) concepts of readiness to learn, the need to know, and immediate application of knowledge may underlie this aspect of the JDI: Supervision scale.

Additionally, senior faculty have greater work expectations placed on them compared to new faculty. It is plausible that supervision is perceived as just one more responsibility. The questionnaire indicated that compensation was given to only one senior faculty member for mentoring. Yet 11 faculty indicated it was an expectation of the job and 11 had assigned mentees. Only six faculty members had input into who their mentee would be.

The JDI: Work on Present Job scale did not indicate significant job satisfaction with either senior or new faculty, length of employment, or formal mentoring programs as a predictor. Knowles's (1970) theory of adult learning identifies that having a facilitator of learning, a mentor, could improve one's self-concept and by extension a sense of satisfaction. Internal motivation may also contribute to satisfaction. However, satisfaction is a broad idea and may not relate specifically to job satisfaction. Moreover, in accordance with Knowles's (1970) theory, the need to know and the direct application of knowledge are both important to a new employee transitioning into a new role or new academic environment. Having a formal mentor can ease this transition.

The 34 faculty who would volunteer to mentor without compensation are consistent with Erikson's (1963) theory of psychosocial development. However, not all of these faculty members fall within the stage of generativity vs. stagnation when a person wants to give back to the next generation. It is possible that people who enter the nursing profession are givers by nature and that this phenomenon has little to do with age.

Furthermore, it may be beneficial to allow senior faculty more input into who would be their mentee. This could then incorporate both informal and formal mentoring into the work environment.

Job satisfaction on the JDI: Pay scale could not be predicted by either length of employment, new or senior faculty, or by the presence of a formal mentoring program. The faculty questionnaire indicated that most faculty would volunteer to mentor without any form of compensation. The manner in which this compensation could occur was irrelevant or not apparent based on the survey questions. A possible theory regarding pay is that those who remain in academia are not staying due to salary. Fulfillment within the profession and giving back to the next generation and the community of nursing may be fundamental reasons senior faculty remain in the educator role. Additionally, the mentor role may support the concept of accomplishment and fulfillment in one's life. These ideas are consistent with Erikson's (1963) stages of generativity vs. stagnation and ego integrity vs. despair and are pertinent to senior level faculty.

New faculty did not perceive pay as leading to satisfaction within the job. Nurses in academia have been cited as having non-competitive salaries for their work (Cangelosi, 2014; Chung and Kowalski, 2012; Geis, 2013). The National Advisory

Council on Nurse Education and Practice (NACNEP) (2010) Ninth annual report stated, "Compensation is generally higher in clinical nursing and private sector settings than it is the nursing academic setting" (p. 17). A nurse's reason for changing to an academic role might relate to the fact that physical labor, needed for patient care is lessened in the faculty role. Furthermore, faculty may be interested in pursuing other aspects of nursing such as research. In addition, changing their position in the nursing community may reflect a need for change due to personal needs and family obligation (Maslow, 1970). A change in salary may not have been the primary reason.

In addition, nearly half the faculty who responded to the survey were adjuncts. In this context, the role of educator is often a supplement to their full-time position and may reflect a need for additional salary. This necessity may supplant the need for satisfaction or help achieve it. Personal goals such as added pay towards vacation, school or family needs may be achieved in this manner. This is also congruent with Maslow's (1970) Hierarchy of needs.

More predictive of satisfaction on the JDI: Opportunities for Promotion scale, was length of employment, new faculty. In addition, a new faculty member's increased perception of satisfaction may arise from the notion that employment in academia reflects achievement within their profession and may correspond with the completion of a higher education degree. Moreover, new faculty may perceive that they have more time to achieve promotion within the academic environment. Having time to achieve an advanced degree may also relate to satisfaction within this component, as already being in possession of advanced education was one of the few variables that were significant.

Limitations and Conclusions

Limitations of this study were primarily related to its small sample size. This would limit its generalizability to other types of nursing programs as well as different locations within the country. Other aspects of faculty-to-faculty characteristics were also not available. Examples such as culture and the motivation to mentor were not apparent. Lastly, those programs that did have a mentoring program were each different and had fewer representation with new faculty. The number of faculty that were new compared to senior faculty was approximately half. This too made generalizing the results problematic.

Overall, entering a formal mentoring program into the analysis or the presence of length of employment did not lead to job satisfaction as indicated on any of the JDI/JIG scale's six components. However, it is still important to determine what will entice nurses to become faculty and what will keep senior faculty from leaving the academic role.

Social Change

The purpose of this study was to establish whether length of employment or formal mentoring programs led to job satisfaction. However, neither of these variables could conclusively determine this outcome. Nevertheless, the need for nursing faculty is still an important concern to the profession. Additional studies need to be done to determine what will increase faculty retention and encourage nurses to enter into an academic role. Gutierrez, Candela and Carver (2012) have stated, "the RN shortage, the lack of faculty is finally being recognized as a major issue directly influencing the ability

to admit and graduate adequate numbers of students for the nursing workforce." (p. 1602).

Pay, evidenced the least amount of satisfaction on the JDI scale. Faculty need to become proactive in trying to equalize the pay scale between academia and the clinical milieu. Nurse educators should become more involved in legislation of government funding for education and reimbursement. Recognition that the education necessary to teach should be compensated equally with nurses in a clinical role is paramount and would encourage nurses to enter academia.

In addition, senior nurses in academia should continue to develop an educational culture that will facilitate learning by those new to education. The classroom is also a place that educators can role model mentoring to their students, sharing the enjoyment that teaching can bring. As educators, it necessary to promote the positive aspects of teaching to nurses and nursing students in order to increase their interest in this career path.

Recommendations for Action

The first recommendation would be to repeat the study with a larger sample size. In addition, extend this study to other academic degree programs. For example, baccalaureate, masters and doctoral programs should be included or studied separately. The study should also extend to other parts of the country to increase diversity. More men should be encouraged to participate as well. Additional studies could limit the sample population to either full time or adjunct faculty, but not combine the two. This may elicit relevant data. Furthermore, nursing organizations should increase their government

lobbying efforts regarding money for faculty education, as should colleges and universities.

Other areas for investigation are what motivates a faculty member to mentor another and what aspects of an advanced degree may lead to the willingness to mentor and job satisfaction. Qualitative studies may elicit this information. Interviews with the faculty may garner the thoughts and feelings behind the choice to mentor.

Further investigation could include how differing areas of clinical expertise and educational level effect satisfaction. Differing cultures of the faculty as well as differing environmental cultures may also be pertinent and an area for study.

The results and recommendations of this study can be disseminated at a national nursing conference. One such conference is the NLN yearly national conference for their members. Another method for dissemination can be via a journal article.

However, to determine the actual effects of formal mentoring programs on job satisfaction more schools should employ them. Faculty as both mentor and mentee should participate in evaluation of these programs to make them their own and increase their investment in the outcome. Discussions within the school environment should also include what would increase the job satisfaction of their members both new and senior faculty.

Recommendations for Further Study

Suggestions for future studies related to formal mentoring programs could include isolating each type of nursing program, associate-degree, masters and doctoral and surveying each separately. Additional suggestions might include designing a formal

mentoring program and have two schools participate, one with a formal program and one with an informal mentoring approach. This might work best as a longitudinal study. Another avenue to study is whether voluntary participation as the mentor leads to improved job satisfaction. A further topic of consideration could be related to whether the mentor has input into who their mentee would be. Another area of investigation might be, examining the difference between having full time faculty members mentor adjuncts or whether a senior adjunct faculty member mentoring another adjunct might improve satisfaction. Lastly, focusing on whether the terminal degree that faculty have might be a significant factor.

Concluding Statement

This study attempted to find out whether a formal mentoring program or length of employment was more predictive in creating job satisfaction. However, the small sample, size was insufficient to determine satisfaction as an outcome. Nevertheless, it is imperative that schools' of nursing find ways to improve satisfaction in order to retain faculty and attract nurses into entering the academic role. Without sufficient faculty, programs cannot enroll the needed students to alleviate the nursing shortage. Nurses are necessary to support our health care environment.

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Appendix A: Permission for Use of JDI/JIG

Bowling Green State University Job Descriptive Index (JDI) Office 214 Psychology Building Department of Psychology Bowling Green State University Bowling Green, OH 43403

4 June, 2010

The Job Descriptive Index family of measures – including the Job In General scale, abridged Job Descriptive Index, and abridged Job In General scale – are owned by Bowling Green State University, copyright 1975-2010.

Permission is hereby granted to Zelda Suzan to use these measures in his or her research. The aforementioned scales may be administered to as many participants as the researcher deems necessary.

Appendix B: Job in General Scale (JIG)/Job Descriptive Index (JDI)

The Job in General Scale (1997 Revision)

Job in General
Think of your job in general. All in all, what is it like most of the time? In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write “Yes” if it describes your job, “No” if it does not describe it, or choose cannot decide if unsure.
_____ Pleasant _____ Bad _____ Ideal _____ Waste of time _____ Good _____ Undesirable _____ Worthwhile _____ Worse than most _____ Acceptable _____ Superior _____ Better than most _____ Disagreeable _____ Makes me content _____ Inadequate _____ Excellent _____ Rotten

_____ Enjoyable _____ Poor

The Job Descriptive Index

Supervision	Work on Present Job
Think of the kind of supervision that you get on your job. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe this? In the blank beside each word or phrase below write “Yes” if it describes the supervision you get on the job, “No” if it does not describe it or choose cannot decide if unsure.	Think of the work you do at present. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe this? In the blank beside each word or phrase below write “Yes” if it describes your work, “No” if it does not describe or choose cannot decide if unsure.
_____ Ask my advice	_____ Fascinating
_____ Hard to please	_____ Routine
_____ Impolite	_____ Satisfying
_____ Praises good work	_____ Boring
_____ Tactful	_____ Good
_____ Influential	_____ Gives sense of accomplishment
_____ Up-to-date	_____ Respected
_____ Doesn’t supervise enough	_____ Uncomfortable
_____ Has favorites	_____ Pleasant
_____ Tells me where I stand	_____ Useful
_____ Annoying	_____ Challenging
_____ Stubborn	_____ Simple
_____ Knows job well	_____ Repetitive
_____ Bad	_____ Creative

_____ Intelligent _____ Poor planner _____ Around when needed _____ Lazy	_____ Dull _____ Uninteresting _____ Can see results _____ Uses my abilities
Pay Think of the pay you get now. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe this? In the blank beside each word or phrase below write “Yes” if it describes your present pay, “No” if it does not describe it, or choose cannot decide if unsure.	Opportunities for Promotion Think of the opportunities for promotion that you have now. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe this? In the blank beside each word or phrase below write “Yes” if it describes these, “No” if it does not describe it, or choose cannot decide if unsure.
_____ Income adequate for normal expenses _____ Fair _____ Barely live on income _____ Bad _____ Income provides luxuries _____ Less than I deserve _____ Well paid _____ Insecure _____ Underpaid	_____ Good opportunities for promotion _____ Opportunities somewhat limited _____ Promotion on ability _____ Dead-end job _____ Good chance for promotion _____ Unfair promotion policy _____ Infrequent promotions _____ Regular promotions _____ Fairly good chance for promotion
People in Your Present Job	

Think of the majority of people with whom you work or meet in connection with your work. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe these people? In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write “yes” if it describes the people with whom you work, “No” if it does not describe them, or choose cannot decide if unsure.	
_____ Stimulating _____ Boring _____ Slow _____ Helpful _____ Stupid _____ Responsible _____ Fast _____ Intelligent _____ Easy to make enemies _____ Talk too much _____ Smart _____ Lazy _____ Unpleasant _____ Gossipy _____ Active _____ Narrow interests	

_____ Loyal _____ Stubborn	

The Job In General Scale
Bowling Green State University 1982,
1985
B o w l i n g G r e e n S t a t e U n i v e r s i t y

Appendix C: Faculty Questionnaire

Please complete the following questions.

1. Is the school/program where you are employed located in a city, suburban or rural setting? _____
2. What is your gender? Male _____ Female _____
3. What is your current age?

   25 – 30 _____ 51 – 55 _____

   31 – 35 _____ 56 – 60 _____

   36 – 40 _____ 61 – 65 _____

   41 – 45 _____ 66 – 70 _____

   45 - 50 _____ 70+ _____
4. How many years have you been an RN? _____
5. What is your highest degree earned?

   MA/MSN _____

   EdD _____

   PhD _____

   DNP _____
6. Do you have Advanced Practice Certification?

   Yes _____ What area(s) _____ No _____
7. How many years have you been a faculty member in nursing education?

   _____

8. How many years have you been employed at your current college/institution? _____
9. What is your current employment status?

   Full time _____Part time _____ Adjunct _____
10. Is a formal mentoring program currently in use at the college/institution?

    Yes _____ No _____ Unsure _____
11. Have you ever been mentored?

    Yes _____ No _____ Unsure _____
12. Has being mentored increased your willingness to stay in your current position?

    Yes _____ No _____ Unsure _____ NA _____
13. Have you ever mentored another faculty member?

    Yes _____ No _____Unsure _____
14. If yes, did you volunteer to be a mentor? Yes _____ No _____
15. Is mentoring another faculty member considered an expectation of this faculty position?

    Yes _____ No _____Unsure _____
16. If you have mentored another faculty member, was the mentee assigned to you? Yes _____ No _____
17. Did you have input as to who the mentee would be?

    Yes _____ No _____

18. Did you receive any form of compensation for being a mentor (e.g. money, time, credit towards tenure)?

    Yes _____ No _____ Unsure _____

19. Did this compensation influence your decision to be a mentor?

    Yes_____ No _____Unsure_____

20. Would you have volunteered to be a mentor without compensation?

    Yes_____ No _____Unsure_____ NA_____

21. Has being a mentor increased your willingness to stay in your current position?

    Yes _____ No _____ Unsure _____ NA _____

22. Other comments welcome.

_____

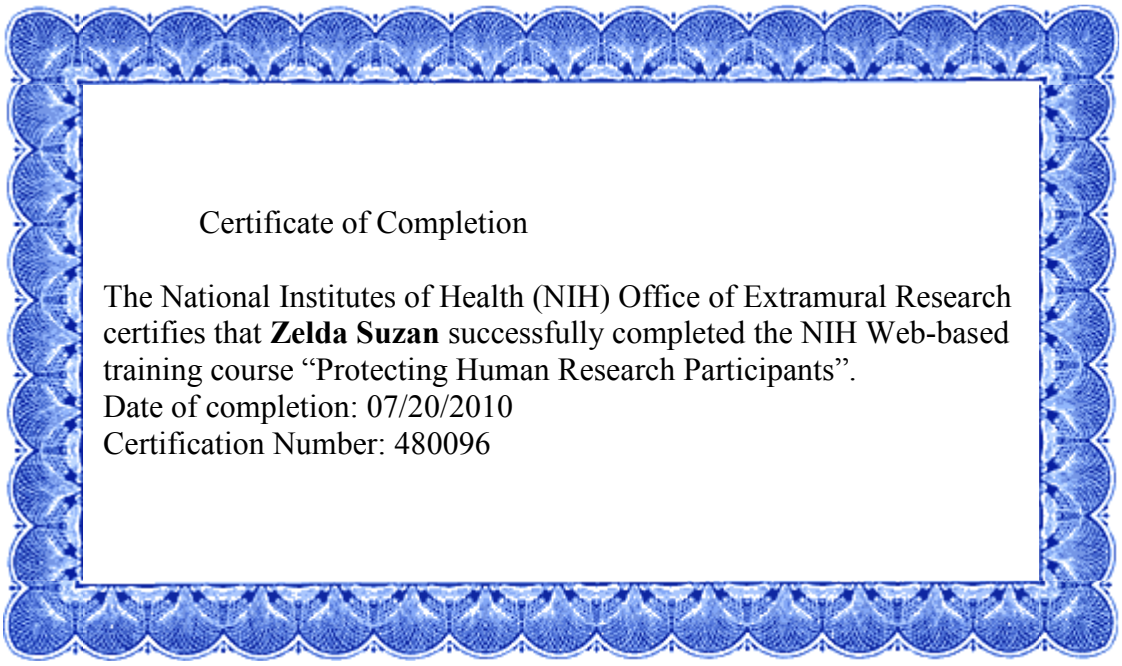
_____

_____

Thank you for participating in this study.

Zelda Suzan MA, RN, CNE

Appendix D: National Institute of Health Training Course



Certificate of Completion

The National Institutes of Health (NIH) Office of Extramural Research certifies that **Zelda Suzan** successfully completed the NIH Web-based training course "Protecting Human Research Participants".
Date of completion: 07/20/2010
Certification Number: 480096

Appendix E: Community Partner Request

Community Research Partner Name:

Contact Information:
Date:

Dear Zelda Suzan MA, RN, CNE

I give permission for you to conduct the study entitled "Examining the Job Satisfaction between Formally Mentored and Informally Mentored Faculty Participants in New York State Associate-degree Nursing Programs" within the school. I understand that the purpose of this study will be to determine if formal mentoring will increase faculty job satisfaction in both the mentor and mentee.

As part of this study, I authorize you to invite members of my organization, whose names and contact information I will provide, to participate in the study as survey participants or will disseminate your request for participation through an e-mail (see attachment). Their participation will be voluntary and at their own discretion. We reserve the right to withdraw from the study at any time if our circumstances change.

I understand that the data collected will remain entirely confidential and may not be provided to anyone outside of the research team without permission from the Walden University IRB.

Sincerely,
Authorization Official
Contact Information

Appendix F: Second Request for Faculty Participation

Dean

This is a reminder to forward this request for completion of an online survey entitled, "Examining the Job satisfaction Between Formally Mentored and Informally Mentored Faculty Participants in New York State Associate-Degree Nursing Programs". Please forward the attached document to your full time, part time and adjunct faculty. A link to Survey Monkey is at the bottom of the attachment. Completion of the survey takes approximately 10 minutes. If they have already completed the survey, then I thank them. Thank you for allowing your faculty to participate.

Sincerely

Zelda Suzan

Walden University

Appendix G: Letter of Inquiry to School Regarding IRB Approval

Dean ,

My name is Zelda Suzan and I am currently a doctoral student at Walden University. I am planning a study entitled, "Examining the Job Satisfaction between Formally Mentored and Informally Mentored Faculty Participants in New York State Associate-degree Nursing Programs". Participants in the study will be asked to complete a survey which will be accessed through Survey Monkey. The survey has two questionnaires that should take approximately 15-20 minute's total. Prior to asking your school/ faculty to participate, I need to know if the school requires prior approval of your IRB committee. If so, can you please send the contact information to me?

My contact information is:

Sincerely

Zelda Suzan MA, RN, CNE

Zelda Suzan MA, RN, CNE

Appendix H: IRB Conditional Approval

Dear Ms. Suzan,

This email is to notify you that the Institutional Review Board (IRB) has approved your application for the study entitled, "Examining the Job Satisfaction Between Formally Mentored and Informally Mentored Faculty Participants in New York State Associate-degree Nursing Programs" conditional upon the approval of the community research partner, as documented in the appropriate approval notification for the colleges. Walden's IRB approval only goes into effect once the Walden IRB confirms receipt of those appropriate approval notifications.

Your approval # is 07-30-14-0049363. You will need to reference this number in your doctoral study and in any future funding or publication submissions. Also attached to this e-mail is the IRB approved consent form. Please note, if this is already in an on-line format, you will need to update that consent document to include the IRB approval number and expiration date.

Your IRB approval expires on July 29, 2015. One month before this expiration date, you will be sent a Continuing Review Form, which must be submitted if you wish to collect data beyond the approval expiration date.

Please note that this letter indicates that the IRB has approved your research. You may NOT begin the research phase of your doctoral study, however, until you have received the **Notification of Approval to Conduct Research** e-mail. Once you have received this notification by email, you may begin your data collection. Your IRB approval is contingent upon your adherence to the exact procedures described in the final version of the IRB application materials that have been submitted as of this date. This includes maintaining your current status with the university. Your IRB approval is only valid while you are an actively enrolled student at Walden University. If you need to take a leave of absence or are otherwise unable to remain actively enrolled, your IRB approval is suspended. Absolutely NO participant recruitment or data collection may occur while a student is not actively enrolled.

If you need to make any changes to your research staff or procedures, you must obtain IRB approval by submitting the IRB Request for Change in Procedures Form. You will receive confirmation with a status update of the request within 1 week of submitting the change request form and are not permitted to implement changes prior to receiving approval. Please note that Walden University does not accept responsibility or liability for research activities conducted without the IRB's approval, and the University will not accept or grant credit for student work

that fails to comply with the policies and procedures related to ethical standards in research.

When you submitted your IRB application, you a made commitment to communicate both discrete adverse events and general problems to the IRB within 1 week of their occurrence/realization. Failure to do so may result in invalidation of data, loss of academic credit, and/or loss of legal protections otherwise available to the researcher.

Both the Adverse Event Reporting form and Request for Change in Procedures form can be obtained at the IRB section of the Walden web site or by emailing irb@waldenu.edu: http://inside.waldenu.edu/c/Student_Faculty/StudentFaculty_4274.htm

Researchers are expected to keep detailed records of their research activities (i.e., participant log sheets, completed consent forms, etc.) for the same period of time they retain the original data. If, in the future, you require copies of the originally submitted IRB materials, you may request them from Institutional Review Board.

Both students and faculty are invited to provide feedback on this IRB experience at the link below:

http://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=qHBJzkJMUx43pZegKlmdiQ_3d_3d

Sincerely,
Libby Munson
Research Ethics Support Specialist
Office of Research Ethics and Compliance
irb@waldenu.edu
Phone: 612-312-1341
Fax: 626-605-0472
Office address for Walden University:
100 Washington Avenue South
Suite 900
Minneapolis, MN 55401

Information about the Walden University Institutional Review Board, including instructions for application, may be found at this link: http://researchcenter.waldenu.edu/Office-of-Research-Ethics-and-Compliance-IRB.htm