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Walden University
2018

Abstract

Stress and Job Satisfaction in Career College Criminal Justice Department Heads

by

Sherria N. King

MA, Argosy University, 2006

BS, Middle Tennessee State University, 2005

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Forensic Psychology

Walden University

August 2018

Abstract

There has been a significant amount of research on the impact of stress and job satisfaction amongst employees in a multitude of professional settings, including the criminal justice and higher education field. Yet, information on criminal justice professionals who work in more untraditional types of higher education institutions, such as career colleges, was lacking. The purpose of this quantitative research study was to examine whether there is a significant relationship between stress, job satisfaction, and being employed as a criminal justice department head within a career college institution and compare whether heads of other departments within career college institutions differ in terms of these relationships. Selye's stress model and Spector's model of job satisfaction were used as the theoretical framework. Nonexperimental quantitative survey data were collected from 77 department heads and instructors who worked in career college institutions. Participants were selected using a nonprobability convenience sampling procedure. The data were evaluated using discriminant analysis. The overall results showed no significant differences in the relationship of stress and job satisfaction between criminal justice department heads and instructors and their counterparts in other academic departments. Further in-depth research regarding the individual work-related experiences of these professionals could be beneficial in gaining a holistic understanding of criminal justice professionals who transition to higher education. With more knowledge, employers within this sector of higher education may be able to better evaluate institutional practices and develop more effective intervention and training programs aimed at improving retention and job satisfaction, as well as, igniting a change in the negative image that is often times associated with career college institutions.

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Dedication

I would like to dedicate this dissertation to my sister, Joanna. Although your days on this earth were few, your impact on my life has been profound. You have remained in my heart, and I will continue to strive to live life to the fullest knowing that you are so proudly looking down upon me smiling. You are truly my angel in heaven, and I love and miss you greatly.

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To my mother and grandmother, thank you for pushing me to be the best person that I can be and for keeping me grounded in my faith, and for your constant prayers and words of encouragement. You both have wiped many tears from my eyes, picked me up when I have fallen short, and taught me how to remain strong in the face of adversity. Although neither of you had everything, you managed to give me the world. I strive daily to make sure that the sacrifices that you made for me are not in vain, and I hope that I have made you both proud. To my uncle Mario, you have been my father figure, my inspiration to excel in education, and my confirmation of what a real man is like. You have been there my entire life and you have stepped up to support me in my most

memorable moments. To my sisters, Jessica and Morgan, I have always strived to be the best example for each of you, to show you that your environment does not hinder your success, but that you must work hard to reach your goals. I have watched both of you grow from sweet little girls to beautiful and smart young women. Although, you have given me many headaches, you have also given me a lot of happiness and laughter.

To my friends, thank you for your support and encouragement, for always believing in me, and, most importantly, for being by my side through my many struggles and triumphs. We have achieved so many milestones together and shared lots of laughs, tears, and wine through it all. You are more than just my friends, you are my family. And lastly, to my mentors during this dissertation process, Dr. Sprague and Dr. Diebold, this dissertation has been no small feat, and there were a lot of bumps along the way. However, you both kept me focused on the finish line, gave guidance that was invaluable, and provided me with much needed support and perspective. Thank you for agreeing to take on my dissertation and for guiding me to completing this degree.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Introduction

Stress affects a wide array of professionals across many specialized fields. The stress experienced by professionals in the workplace often times negatively affects their job satisfaction, researchers have found (Hassell, Archbold, &Stichman, 2011; Johnson et al., 2005). Criminal justice professionals frequently work in environments that are considered by many researchers to be highly stressful with very little job satisfaction (Jaramillo, Nixon, & Sams, 2005; Roy & Avdija, 2012). Because of the nature of the criminal justice field, high stress and low job satisfaction may lead to burnout and turnover. This particular group of professionals commonly tends to seek out different, yet rewarding career opportunities (Kuo, 2014; Paoline III & Lambert, 2012). Higher education is a field that is in demand of criminal justice professionals with practical work experience and knowledge that can be shared with students who desire to work in the criminal justice field (Higher Learning Commission, 2016).

In this study, I examined the relationship between stress, job satisfaction, and holding a department head position within the criminal justice department at a career college, which is a college that offers instruction and practical introductory experience in skilled trades such as mechanics, carpentry, plumbing, and construction (Career college, 2011; Tierney, 2011). I wanted to learn whether holding this type of administrative position negatively or positively affects one's experience with stress and job satisfaction in comparison to those holding similar positions within other disciplinary departments at career colleges. There has been a great deal of research conducted on stress and job

satisfaction in various occupations, including within the higher education field. Most of this research conducted in higher education has focused on the administrators, faculty, and students who work and attend school at these institutions (see Ablanedo-Rosas, Blevins, Gao, Teng, & White, 2011; Akin, Baloglu, & Karsli, 2014; Batanineh, 2014). Additionally, many of the research findings suggest that administrators and faculty members who work in colleges and universities across the world experience some degree of stress associated with their position within these institutions (Ablanedo-Rosas et al., 2011; Eagan Jr. & Garvey, 2015; El Shikieri & Musa, 2012). Additional work-related factors, such as salary, workloads, colleague relationships, and work-life balance, have also been considered by researchers (Barkhuizen &Rothmann, 2008; Bhatti, Hashmi, Raza, Shaikh, & Shafiq, 2011).

While there has been a significant amount of research conducted on stress and job satisfaction in higher education institutions, much of this research has been conducted on employees and students in traditional colleges and universities (see Gillespie, Walsh, Winefield, Dua, & Stough, 2001; Jacobs, Tytherleigh, Webb, & Cooper, 2007; Necsoi, 2011). Researchers have seemingly overlooked career colleges, with much of the research on this sector having occurred in more recent years (see Chung, 2012; Kirkham & Short, 2013; Krupnick, 2013; Schilling, 2013; Wood & Urias, 2012). The authors of these more recent studies have also focused on exploring the student populations who attend these nontraditional institutions, as well as the viability of these institutions (see Deming, Golden, & Katz, 2013; Hertzman & Maas, 2012; Wood & Vasquez Urias, 2012). Based on my review of the literature, there have been no known studies exploring

stress and job satisfaction within career colleges as it relates to department heads, in general, or criminal justice department heads, in particular. By conducting this study, I sought to fill this gap in the literature and provide more insight on the job-related functioning of this particular population of professionals.

Implications for Positive Social Change

Career colleges provide unique educational opportunities for those individuals desiring a nontraditional type of institutional setting. The faculty and department heads assigned to educate these students strive to provide this specialized group of students with a career-focused education where practical knowledge and hands-on education can be quickly transferred into the workforce (Tierney, 2011). Often times, faculty and campus administrators at career colleges are under pressure from corporate administration to produce high-quality graduates in a short amount of time (Deming, 2013). Additionally, because of the fast-paced educational environment, department heads of career colleges are tasked with running their respective departments in the most efficient manner, while still ensuring that a high quality of education is being provided to students. Furthermore, these department heads must hire and manage faculty members who are sufficiently skilled to provide such a high-quality education (Deming, 2012).

I examined the various work responsibilities of criminal justice department heads within career college institutions as the first step to determining what tasks may contribute to increased stress levels and what aspects of the position may contribute to lower levels of job satisfaction amongst this group of professionals. I also wanted to uncover potential information regarding how stress and job satisfaction levels amongst

this population is similar or different from those who work in similar positions in other departments within career colleges. Findings from the study may be useful in explaining differences, if any, in the amount of stress and job satisfaction experienced by the various department leaders within this institutional setting. Findings may also encourage leaders of career colleges to re-evaluate their institutional practices and possibly develop employee intervention programs aimed at helping their employees, especially their managers, positively cope with stress in the work environment.

Focusing on criminal justice department heads in career colleges was necessary, I believe, as the research in this area appears to be seemingly nonexistent despite this being a growing sector of the higher educational system (see Tierney, 2011). These professionals often have different hiring requirements that are more career-focused than those at noncareer colleges and universities that have hiring requirements which emphasize educational qualifications (Tierney, 2011). Comparing how criminal justice department heads experience job stress and satisfaction in comparison to other department heads within this same sector of education may account for potential differences in the pressure that criminal justice department heads face in preparing their graduates for successful careers within a potentially dangerous and stressful profession (see Gabbidon, 2005; Gabbidon & Higgins, 2012). These subtle differences, as well as others, may account for any potential stress and job satisfaction levels in criminal justice professionals compared to those who work in other departments. However, for this to be better understood, research must continue to be developed amongst this sector of educators and administrators (Tierney, 2011; Zagier, 2011).

In this chapter, I will explore the problem and purpose of the study and present the research questions that were addressed during the course of this research. Additionally, I will outline the theoretical framework I used along with the nature of the study. Definitions and the assumptions, scope of delimitations, and limitations of the study will also be addressed. Lastly, the significance of the study will be explained.

Background

There has been a significant amount of research conducted on stress, job satisfaction, higher education, career colleges, and criminal justice professionals. However, based on my review of the literature, researchers have not yet explored all of these aspects in one study. Ablanedo-Rosas et al. (2011) focused on identifying similarities and differences in the types and amounts of stress experienced by academic staff, administrative staff, and students within a public university. Bhatti et al. (2011) focused on the relationship between stress and job satisfaction in teachers in public universities. Gabbidon and Higgins (2012) provided data on how job satisfaction and stress affected the careers of professionals working in criminal justice departments at major colleges and universities. Research by Gillespie, Walsh, Winefield, Dua, and Stough (2001) addressed the causes, consequences, and moderators of stress among the staff in public universities. Gmelch and Burns (1994) provided insight on the sources of stress for those employed as department chairs in public universities. Belfield (2013) explored the financial debt associated with attending a for-profit college in comparison to attending a public college. While these studies all provide valuable insight into the

stressors associated with being employed in a higher education institution, none have exclusively explored all aspects sought to be explored in this study.

Selye (1955) developed the concept of stress in the early 1900s. Selye explored the idea of stress in relation to how the body reacts to various stressful situations, such as trauma, fatigue, infection, and strain (Selye, 1955). His general adaptation theory of stress paved the way for other researchers to explore stress as a phenomenon within different occupational sectors (see Selye, 1973). Similarly, Hoppock (1935) is known for coining and researching the concept of job satisfaction, while Spector (1985) is considered to be one of the primary researchers of job satisfaction and the developer of the Job Satisfaction Survey instrument, which has been used by researchers to examine the level of job satisfaction experienced by professionals in their occupation (see Roy & Avdija, 2012).

Past researchers studying stress and job satisfaction in the criminal justice field have focused on examining how these two factors (stress and job satisfaction) affect employee retention, productivity, and organizational commitment. Some of the research previously conducted on stress and job satisfaction within the criminal justice field suggested that factors such as department morale, opportunities for professional advancement, support from supervisors, colleague relationships, and workloads all affected the amount of work-related stress experienced by this group of professionals, which in turn affected their job satisfaction (Jaramillo et al., 2005; Julseth, Ruiz, & Hummer, 2011; Paoline, III, & Lambert, 2012). Researchers have found that when criminal justice professionals are consistently exposed to high amounts of work-related

stress with very little job satisfaction, there is the potential for an increase in burnout, turnover, and intentions to change careers (Hassell et al., 2011). This increase in stress and burnout may account for why these professionals may seek to transition their careers into the higher education sector. Criminal justice professionals considering a career change desire to continue to use their training and knowledge in an academic setting. These professionals often seek out instructor positions within higher education institutions where their practical work experience along with their education-based knowledge is a desired requirement for a teaching position. However, these professionals may potentially experience high amounts of work-related stress and little job satisfaction in their new careers. Faculty members have several sources of work-related stress including organizational demands, high workloads, inadequate financial compensation, and the inability to achieve a desired work-life balance, Barkhuizen and Rothmann (2008) noted. These stressors can not only negatively affect their work performance, but also their level of job and personal satisfaction.

When examining stress, in general, stress has not only been found to negatively affect one's job satisfaction but has also been found to have negative affect on individuals' overall health, work productivity, and organizational commitment (El Shikieri & Musa, 2012). In terms of job satisfaction, many researchers have found a negative correlation between job satisfaction and stress, indicating that as one's stress increases their level of job satisfaction decreases (Maji & Ali, 2013; Necsoi, 2011). In particular, research on criminal justice faculty has indicated that job satisfaction amongst this particular group of professionals is increased when they are able to devote more time

to their family and friends (Maji & Ali, 2013; Necsoi, 2011). Interestingly, research also indicated that criminal justice faculty who reside in the U.S. South were more likely to report lower levels of job satisfaction in comparison to criminal justice faculty residing and working in other parts of the country (Gabbidon & Higgens, 2012).

For administrators, in particular department heads, who work in higher education institutions, the responsibilities associated with their position place them in situations where they are prone to more stressful encounters. Gmelch (1991) observed a high amount of turnover among department heads employed at colleges and universities around the world. Turnover and retention issues amongst these administrators have been linked to high levels of stress and reduced job satisfaction (Gmelch, 1991). This shift in stress and job satisfaction has been attributed to these professionals having less time to spend with friends and family, reduced leisure time, and increased administrative responsibilities (Gmelch, 1991). Specific administrative responsibilities found to be sources of stress for department heads included negotiating rules and regulations, gaining program approvals, handling disputes between faculty members, attending meetings, having heavy workloads, keeping current in their academic discipline, dealing with interruptions, and balancing personal and professional time (Gmelch & Burns, 1994). More recent studies have also indicated that sources of stress for department heads include working with upper-level management and administration, building relationships and working cohesively with other department chairs, being fair and just in the delegation of workloads to their faculty, and handling the general administrative responsibilities associated with being a middle-level manager (Garipağaoğlu & Vatanartıran, 2013).

In reviewing the literature, I found no studies conducted in the United States on the stress and job satisfaction of criminal justice or other department heads who work in career colleges. I found only one study, which was conducted in Taiwanese, in which researchers had examined the stress and job satisfaction of department heads who work within these specialized institutions. The findings of that study indicated that the department heads who manage the programs within these institutions often experience stress associated with their lack of experience and training in their position, as well as their frustration with their administrative responsibilities that are a key part of the position (Chang & Tseng, 2009). Thus, because of the limited amount of research conducted on department heads within career colleges as well as the nonexistent research on criminal justice department heads who work at career colleges, there is still a significant amount of information to be learned about how this group of professionals operate within the confines of the career college sector. More specifically, knowledge is lacking on whether there is an increase in the amount of stress or decrease in the amount of job satisfaction these department heads experience as a result of their leadership positions within career college institutions. Studying the various work responsibilities of criminal justice department heads within career college institutions is the first step to determining what responsibilities may contribute to increased stress levels and what facets of the position may contribute to lower levels of job satisfaction amongst this particular population.

Problem Statement

Stress is a complex phenomenon that is sometimes difficult to define or explain. Yet, despite the difficulty that comes with defining such a term, stress is a common feeling that is experienced amongst most all human beings during the course of one's life. Stress has often been defined as "the pattern of specific or nonspecific responses an organism makes to stimulus events that disturb its equilibrium and tax or exceed its ability to cope" (Gerrig & Zimbardo, 2013, pp. G-15).   The originator of the stress model, Hans Selye, similarly defined stress as being a nonspecific response of the body to any demand that is made upon it (Selye, 1973). Stress can occur as a result of various life events including work, relationships, school, and one's social environment. The effect of stress can also be detrimental to these very same areas in one's life (The American Institute of Stress, 2012). The American Institute of Stress (AIS) indicates that stress is the number one health problem in America, and that it has even more psychological impacts than physical ones. Stress affects different individuals in different ways, and what is stressful for one person may not be stressful for another individual. Thus, treatment of stress is not universal, but rather dependent on the individual and the stress symptoms that are present (The American Institute of Stress, 2012).

Stress has the potential to both negatively and positively affect one's professional performance and one's feeling of job satisfaction. There are many professionals that are notably very vulnerable to stress due to the mere nature of their profession, such as law enforcement officers, medical professionals, corporate executives, and military personnel (Adams, 2013). Often times, these professionals seek to explore other career

opportunities in an effort to reduce their level of experienced stress while still having a fulfilling and financially stable career. This is especially true of professionals in the criminal justice field, who have be known to transition from criminal justice fieldwork to the college educational system, where they can share their knowledge, experience, and skills with the next generation of striving criminal justice professionals. However, despite this career change these professionals may still experience stress and a lack of job satisfaction, especially for those who take on the role of department heads within educational institutions. To be able to determine if is any significant difference between the amount of stress and job satisfaction experienced by those with this specific position of authority, department heads; and within this specific educational institution, career colleges, one must examine various factors or work tasks that contribute to increased feelings of stress and decreased feelings of job satisfaction. This may prove challenging as the stress experienced by these professionals within the career college educational setting may not be blatantly obvious, especially in comparison to the stress and job satisfaction that these professionals may have previously experienced in their professional fieldwork. However, examining the various responsibilities of this leadership position within this particular type of institutional learning environment is key to determining which group of educational professionals experiences the most stress and least job satisfaction. (Zagier, 2011).

Over the years, there has been a tremendous amount of research conducted on stress within educational institutions. However, much of that research has been conducted on only students and faculty, or in areas outside of the United States (Gillespie et al.,

2001; Catano et al., 2010). The research directly related to stress within career colleges, which is a growing sector in the educational field, seems to be non-existent. Career colleges, while growing in popularity, have generally experienced a great deal of recent political and public scrutiny due to the high tuition costs and seemingly low gainful employment outcomes (Field, 2011). Additionally, career colleges have been politically and publically criticized because of the high student loan debt rate of graduates, laissez-faire accreditation standards, and vague federal aid mandates. Career colleges have also been criticized because their failure to meet accreditation benchmarks including retention rates, graduation rates, and placement rates (Kirkham & Short, 2013). Career colleges are specifically designed to prepare students for very specific trades in a career field, such as training a student to become a police officer, probation officer, paralegal, or court clerk. This training typically occurs within a short time frame, typically ranging anywhere from 8-months to 24-months (Tierney, 2011).

Those criminal justice faculty and department heads that work in career college institutions are typically required to have direct field experience in the trade field in which they will teach and manage, and their primary role is to serve as experts and educate students who are striving to enter that particular chosen field. This may be why transitioning to the higher educational system is desirable to many in the criminal justice field who are seeking a change of career, as well as a seemingly less stressful work environment (Zagier, 2011). However, because of the increasingly public and political scrutiny of career college institutions and their potential viability, there are questions regarding how this directly impacts the amount of stress and job satisfaction experienced

by criminal justice department heads who work within this type of educational institution in comparison to other department heads within this same type of educational institution.

Previous studies have seemed to neglect to assess in any great detail how stress impacts the department managers who are tasked with running the various programs within these institutions. Department heads typically conduct a majority of their work behind the scenes, yet the amount of stress experienced by these professionals can be even more immense than the stress experienced by the faculty and students in these institutions. Department heads who work in this type of educational setting, especially career college settings, are tasked with running their departments in a way that is efficient, economically beneficial, and academically and professionally rewarding. Furthermore, department heads must also face constant scrutiny not only from the public, but also from the institution itself as the institution strives to maintain high rates of student admission, student retention, and student satisfaction (Deming, 2012). Criminal Justice department heads, in particular, have the added challenge of adequately preparing graduates of their program for work in the highly stressful fields of law enforcement, corrections, and security.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative research study was to examine whether there is a significant relationship between stress, job satisfaction, and being employed as a criminal justice department head within a career college institution and compare whether heads of other departments within career college institutions differ in terms of these relationships. Other departments included for comparison included criminal justice, medical assisting,

medical billing and coding, dental assisting, pharmacy technician, and massage therapy. Participants for this study were recruited from various career college institutions in the United States, all of which have multiple campus locations.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

I examined the potential relationship between stress and job satisfaction among criminal justice department heads within a career college institution as compared to department heads in other departments (criminal justice, medical assisting, medical billing and coding, dental assisting, pharmacy technician, and massage therapy) within career college institutions. The department head positions included professionals who worked as program deans, department chairs, or lead instructors within career colleges. The research questions addressed during this study were

RQ1: Is there a significant difference between any of the four stress subscales or the overall score and holding a criminal justice department head position as compared to other departments at a career college institution?

The five null hypotheses related to RQ1 were

Null 1a: Department heads will not differ on overall stress score.

Null 1b: Department heads will not differ on role-based stress subscale score.

Null 1c: Department heads will not differ on task-based stress subscale score.

Null 1d: Department heads will not differ on boundary-spanning stress subscale score.

Null 1e: Department heads will not differ on conflict-mediating stress subscale score.

Each null hypothesis was tested using an oneway ANOVA. Posthoc tests of pairwise differences were conducted as warranted.

RQ2: Is there a significant difference between any of the nine job satisfaction subscales or the overall score and holding a criminal justice department head position as compared to other departments at a career college institution?

The 10 null hypothesis related to RQ2 were

Null 2a: Department heads will not differ on overall job satisfaction score.

Null 2b: Department heads will not differ on pay satisfaction subscale score.

Null 2c: Department heads will not differ on promotion satisfaction subscale score.

Null 2d: Department heads will not differ on supervision satisfaction subscale score.

Null 2e: Department heads will not differ on fringe benefit satisfaction subscale score.

Null 2f: Department heads will not differ on contingent reward satisfaction score.

Null 2g: Department heads will not differ on coworker satisfaction subscale score.

Null 2h: Department heads will not differ on nature of work satisfaction subscale score.

Null 2i: Department heads will not differ on communication satisfaction subscale score.

Null 2j: Department heads will not differ on operating procedures satisfaction subscale score.

Each null hypothesis was using an oneway ANOVA. Posthoc tests of pairwise differences were conducted as warranted.

RQ3: What multivariate profiles distinguish department heads across the four stress subscales, nine job satisfaction subscales, and any significant demographics?

I screened demographic covariates for statistically significant differences across department heads. I performed ANOVAs to test for differences in age, education level, years of experience, and years in current role. Chi squares were computed to test independence for sex and ethnicity. Any significant variable was included along with the four stress subscale scores and nine job satisfaction subscale scores in a discriminant analysis.

Theoretical Framework for the Study

The theoretical framework for this study will be based on Han Selye's stress model and Paul Spector's job satisfaction model. Selye's stress model, which is often times referred to as the General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS) is based on the notion that stress is the body's way of dealing with the nonspecific demands made upon it. The demand placed on one's body requires that one to find a way to adapt to a problem by performing certain adaptive behaviors in an effort to achieve a sense of normalcy. The stressor, according to this model, can be either pleasant or unpleasant. The stress experienced is the result of the demand must simply be intense enough to require the body to readjust or adapt. This stress model is composed of three stages: the alarm stage, the resistance stage, and the exhaustion stage. The alarm stage is the body's initial reaction to a demand or stressor. In this stage the demand is labeled as a stressor that is

threatening one's normalcy. As a result, the body goes into a defensive mode activating the fight or flight response of one's response system. The resistance stage ensues as a result of continuous exposure to the demand or stressor. During this stage, one's initial reaction to the demand or stressor has been reduced and as a result the body's defenses become weaker in an effort to properly distribute one's energy to lowering the production of stress hormones. However, if the demand or stressor is persistent then the body enters into the third stage of this model, the exhaustion stage. The exhaustion stage is characterized by the inability of the body to effectively combat the demand or stressor. As a result one's adaptive energy is exhausted leaving one unable to minimize any harmful effects of the stressor. It is this stage that can be contributed to feelings of burnout, stress overload, and decreased satisfaction, especially if the problem is unable to be resolved in a quick manner (Selye, 1973).

Additionally, this study will explore the concept of job satisfaction presented by Paul E. Spector. According to Spector's theory, job satisfaction was defined as being the extent to which individuals either like or dislike their professional occupation. Individuals who like their job were referred to as being satisfied, while those who disliked their work were labeled dissatisfied. Job satisfaction, according to Spector, was based on the theoretical assumption that job satisfaction was representative of an individual's attitudinal and affective reaction to their occupation. Spector developed the Job Satisfaction Survey to examine the concept of job satisfaction in those who work within the human service field. This instrument measured nine different aspects of job satisfaction, and was originally geared toward those working specifically in occupations

of human service, public, nonprofit organizations. The nine measures explored by this instrument include: pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent or performance-based awards, operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication (Spector, 1985). This current study will also focus primarily on measuring the volume of stress experienced by department heads within career college educational institutions, as well as, determining if such stress can be linked to job satisfaction.

Nature of the Study: Quantitative

The nature of this study will be quantitative using a non-experimental design approach. This method is the most appropriate given that the purpose of the study is to explore potential relationships between stress and job satisfaction, as it relates to holding department head positions within the academic discipline of criminal justice. These academic management positions are often times extremely demanding and are subject to a high amount public and political scrutiny (Zagier, 2011). Moreover, because there is no treatment or intervention being implemented during the course of the study the various experimental strategies would not be appropriate or beneficial (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). The survey method is a quantitative strategy that consists of collecting data using either questionnaire or interview tactics. Researchers choosing to use questionnaires as their primary source of data collection can choose between more traditional means of sending out mail questionnaires, conducting group administered questionnaires, or household drop-off surveys. There are many advantages to administering questionnaires, including that these methods tend to be more cost and time effective in comparison to

other data collection methods, such interviews or experimental designs (Trochim, 2006). Additionally, questionnaires reduce researcher bias because the process is more impersonal since the researcher has no direct contact with the participants and all participants are administered the exact same questionnaire instrument (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2015).

The variable of stress will be measured using the Administrative Stress Index (ASI). Additionally, the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), which was initially developed in 1985 by Paul E. Spector, will be used to supplement the ASI to determine if such stress impacts one's job satisfaction. Stress, as defined within the context of this study, is defined as specific and nonspecific responses to a stimulus or event that impact an individual's ability to cope in a positive manner (Gerrig & Zimbardo, 2013). This type of methodology is consistent with pinpointing the potential effects of the stress and job satisfaction that comes with holding a department head position within a career college, whether it be within the criminal justice department or other program departments, such dental assisting, medical assisting, pharmacy technician, cosmetology, etc., which is the primary concentration of this dissertation.

Possible Types and Sources of Information or Data

1. Survey questionnaires from a representative group of Criminal Justice, Medical Assisting, Medical Billing and Coding, Dental Assisting, Pharmacy Technician, and Massage Therapy department heads that work at a career college.

2. Demographical, salary, tenure, and previous work history information from a representative group of Criminal Justice, Medical Assisting, Medical Billing and

Coding, Dental Assisting, Pharmacy Technician, and Massage Therapy department heads that work at a career college.

3. Ratings of stress, as measured by the Administrative Stress Index (ASI), and job satisfaction, as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), from a representative group of Criminal Justice, Medical Assisting, Medical Billing and Coding, Dental Assisting, Pharmacy Technician, and Massage Therapy department heads who work at a career college.

4. Years of service information from a representative group of Criminal Justice, Medical Assisting, Medical Billing and Coding, Dental Assisting, Pharmacy Technician, and Massage Therapy department heads who work at a career college.

Definitions

The following terms are referred to frequently in the study:

Career college institution: "A school, especially one on a secondary level that offers instruction and practical introductory experience in skilled trades such as mechanics, carpentry, plumbing, and construction" (Career college, 2011).

Criminal justice: "A generic term for the procedure by which criminal conduct is investigated, evidence gathered, arrests made, charges brought, defenses raised, trials conducted, sentences rendered and punishment carried out" (Hill, G. & Hill, K., n.d.)

Department head: A person who is in charge of a specialized department (Department head, n.d.).

Job satisfaction: "The extent to which people like their jobs:" (Spector, 2003, pp. 210).

Professional: A term "[r]elating to a job that requires special education, training, or skill" ("Professional", n.d.).

Stress: "The pattern of specific or nonspecific responses an organism makes to stimulus events that disturb its equilibrium and tax or exceed its ability to cope" (Gerrig & Zimbardo, 2013, pp. G-15).

Assumptions

Some of the noted assumptions of this study include the belief that stress and job satisfaction are negatively correlated. Specifically, there is the belief that an individual who experiences high amounts of work-related stress will have a decreased amount of job satisfaction. Additionally, this study operated under the assumption that experiencing high amounts of work-related stress will result in various negative reactions or feelings amongst the participants without consideration that some individuals may have a positive reaction to experiencing high amounts of stress. Furthermore, this study was conducted under the assumption that all respondents will answer all of the questions in the questionnaire honestly. And lastly, there was the assumption that all of the participants of the study will be fairly representative of department heads from career colleges across the United States.

Scope and Delimitations

The scope of this research included multiple career colleges with several campus locations across the United States. Utilizing multiple career colleges and campus was

necessary to obtain a representative sample of the targeted population. Additionally, while criminal justice department heads were the primary focus of this research it was also necessary to survey department heads in other education department for comparison of the findings. This study also focused solely on work-related stress and did not take into consideration other external factors of stress. This was done in an effort to identify work-related characteristics that were most likely to impact stress and job satisfaction levels amongst this population.

Limitations

Conducting a study on this specialized group of criminal justice department heads within the career college sector of higher education presents some limitations that must be noted. While the findings of this study can make inferences on the targeted population, there is no clear indication that results on other department heads within similar institutions will have the same findings. Furthermore, more prestigious and traditional colleges and universities may not produce similar stress findings since the job responsibilities, student demographic, and institutional operations may be distinctly different based on their educational goals and serving population. Personal stressors and their possible impact on the reported stress were also not determined in this study. Thus, future studies may seek to analyze stress from not only a work-stance, but also within the context of personal stressors.

Significance

This study is uniquely different than previous studies conducted on stress and job satisfaction in the criminal justice system, as it explores stress and job satisfaction in

relation to a sector of the higher educational system that has not been previously studied. While there has been a significant amount of research conducted on criminal justice professionals much of this research focused on the job satisfaction and stress experienced by those professionals who were actively working in the criminal justice field (Roy& Avdija, 2012; Jaramillo et al., 2005; Johnson et al., 2005). Consequently, while there has been a significant amount of research conducted on stress and job satisfaction within educational institutions, much of the research has been geared toward teachers and students or public colleges and universities, and not career college institutions. The results of this study will provide much-needed insight into a sector of the educational system frequented by criminal justice professionals: career colleges. Career colleges provide a unique and focused type of educational opportunity for those students who desire a non-traditional type of learning environment. The department heads and faculty within these institutions are tasked with providing students with a career-focused education where practical knowledge and hands-on education can be quickly transferred into the workforce (Tierney, 2011).

This study is one of the first to examine the unique experiences of department heads that work within career college institutions. While career colleges continue to prove that their existence in the educational field is deserving and beneficial to various groups of student consumers, the department heads charged with managing the various departments within these institutions continue to strive for improvement in the areas that initially sparked political and public scrutiny. Additionally, as career-focused colleges rise in popularity among student consumers knowing how to best support those charged

with managing the various departments is key to the success not only of the students whom they serve, but also the faculty and staff whom they manage. In the end, the goals of career colleges are much like the goals of non-career colleges and universities, which includes providing students with a high level of educational and skill-based knowledge that can then be used for entry and advancement in one's chosen professional career.

Summary

In summary, the concepts of stress and job satisfaction amongst various professionals, including criminal justice and higher education professionals, have been of interest to researchers over the years. However, interest in career colleges, while having been in operation for decades, is only recently becoming a focus of researchers. Researchers strive to understand how career colleges operate within the higher education field, including seeking to identify the student population who attend these schools and their viability and potential outcomes within the higher education field. Understanding, the professionals who work within this specialized sector of colleges has not yet been a primary focus, until this research study. It is hopeful that this research sheds light on a group of professionals who not only have a broad range of knowledge, but also a lot of practical experience that they bring to these institutions. In the upcoming chapter, I will review the literature that has been previously conducted on stress, job satisfaction, the higher education field, the criminal justice field, and career colleges. The gap in literature will be further illustrated and the theoretical foundation of this study will be outlined.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

There has been extensive research conducted on stress and job satisfaction within the higher education field. Researchers have explored these concepts to determine if there are particular individuals who are more susceptible to experiencing stress and if there are job characteristics that are likely to trigger feelings of stress and decreases in job satisfaction amongst employees (see Necsoi, 2011; Tinu & Adeniji, 2015; Wolverton, M., Gmelch, Wolverton, M.L., & Sarros, 1999). However, despite the vast amount of research already conducted on stress and job satisfaction, very few researchers, according to my review of the literature, have explored these concepts among criminal justice department heads employed at local career college institutions.

Criminal justice department heads may be especially prone to experiencing high levels of stress and low levels job satisfaction due to the very nature of their professional field (Ivie & Garland, 2011; Julseth, Ruiz, & Hummer, 2011; Kuo, 2014). Before transitioning to the field of education, many of these professionals have backgrounds working in law enforcement, corrections, and security where they are placed in constant high stress situations with low levels of benefits or rewards (Kou, 2014; Paoline III & Lambert, 2012). These factors often leads them to seek other career opportunities that reduce the stress impacting their personal and professional well-being yet still allow them to use their criminal justice expertise and experience. Many of these individuals have transitioned to higher education positions, including both faculty and administrative. While career colleges can provide these professionals with a change of career, this career

change may not automatically lead to a decrease in stress or an increase in job

satisfaction. This can be especially true for those who take on administrative roles, such

as becoming a criminal justice department head at a career college institution, especially

in wake of the scrutiny that often times surrounds these types of institutions (Bozeman,

Fay, & Gaughan, 2013; Craig, 2005; Chang & Tseng, 2009; Deming, 2012). There have

been numerous concerns documented regarding the viability of career colleges (see

Kirkham & Short, 2013; Zagier, 2011). Some researchers have presented findings in

support of these institutions (see Heitner & Sherman, 2013; Rose, 2012; Schilling, 2013),

while other researchers have noted concerns in relation to how these institutions operate

and the potential negative outcomes for the students who attend these types of institutions

(see Belfield, 2013; Field, 2011; Taube, S. & Taube, P., 1991; Wood & Urias, 2012).

The undesirable attention surrounding career colleges in the United States has led

to questions regarding how this directly impacts the amount of stress and job satisfaction

experienced by criminal justice department heads who work within this type of

educational institution in comparison to other department heads within this same type of

educational institution. Based on my review of the literature, previous researchers have

not assessed in any great detail how stress impacts the department heads who are tasked

with running the various programs within these institutions. A majority of the work-

related tasks completed by department heads is administrative in nature, and yet the

amount of stress experienced by these professionals can be even more immense than the

stress experienced by the faculty and students who are in direct contact with each other

on a daily basis within a classroom setting (Plumlee, 2012)). Department heads who work

in career college settings are tasked with running their departments in a way that is efficient, economically beneficial, and academically and professionally rewarding (Garipağaoğlu & Vatanartıran, 2013)). Furthermore, department heads must also face constant scrutiny not only from the public but from the institutional leaders themselves who strive to maintain high rates of student admission, student retention, and student satisfaction (Deming, 2012). Criminal justice department heads, in particular, have the added challenge of adequately preparing graduates of their programs for work in the highly stressful fields of law enforcement, corrections, and security.

The impacts of stress on employees have been explored in a variety of occupational settings, including higher educational academic settings (Johnson et al., 2005). Researching how stress impacts those who work within higher education institutions is key to understanding its effect on the operations of these institutions. This research on how stress impacts individuals in higher education institutions, includes discovering how stress impacts the educational quality of the students, the responsibilities of the faculty, and the many obligations of the staff who function within this setting (Ablanedo-Rosas et al., 2011). Many researchers have explored how stress not only affects one's professional performance, but also one's personal relationships and health (Jacobs et al., 2007). Stressors involve both internal and external factors that are associated with work, family, financial, health, interpersonal relationships, and other personal issues (Seyle, 1956). The effects of stress have been linked to high levels of burnout and turnover rates in employment, as well as, physical, emotional, and mental health issues (Jaramillo et al., 2005; Roy and Avdija, 2013; Sun, Wu, & Wang, 2011).

Studies examining the concept of stress have evaluated its causes, correlations, and treatments in an effort to learn more about why and under what circumstances it exist. Similarly, I found that some studies have explored how individuals' work environment influences their overall job satisfaction, including job tasks, professional relationships, compensation, and productivity (Barkhuizen &Rothmann, 2008; Gabbidon & Higgens, 2012).

The purpose of this quantitative research study was to examine whether there is a significant relationship between stress, job satisfaction, and being employed as a criminal justice department head within a career college institution and compare whether heads of other departments within career college institutions differ in terms of these relationships. Knowledge arising from this study may allow for the development of effective prevention or treatment of stress and an increase in job satisfaction among professional working in the career college sector. In this chapter, I will summarize how the concept of stress and job satisfaction originated and the research and theories related to these concepts. Additionally, in this chapter, I will explore the research conducted on stress and job satisfaction within the criminal justice field, within higher education, amongst department heads, and lastly within career college institutions. I begin the chapter by providing an overview of my literature search strategy. After doing so, I discuss my theoretical framework. The literature review follows.

Literature Search Strategy

The library databases used to research this phenomenon was primarily located through Walden University's extensive online collection including (a) ProQuest, (b)

ProQuest Central, (c) ProQuest Criminal Justice, (d) SAGE Premier, (e) ERIC, (f)

Education Research Complete, (g) Academic Search Complete, (h) PsycINFO, (i)

PsycARTICLES, (j) PsycTESTS, (k) PsycEXTRA, (l) Emerald Management, and (m)

Taylor and Francis Online. The key search terms used included (a) *stress and/or job*

satisfaction, (b) *stress and/or job satisfaction and career college,* (c) *stress and/or job*

satisfaction and proprietary college, (d) *stress and/or job satisfaction and technical*

college, (e) *stress and/or job satisfaction and vocational college,* (f) *stress and/or job*

satisfaction and university, (g) *stress and/or job satisfaction and college,* (h) *stress*

and/or job satisfaction and higher education, (i) *stress and/or job satisfaction and police,*

(j) *stress and/or job satisfaction and criminal justice,* (k) *stress and/or job satisfaction*

and law enforcement, and (l) *stress and/or job Satisfaction and Corrections*.

Because of the limited amount of research conducted on stress and job satisfaction

amongst department heads in colleges and universities, the literature collected ranged

from the early 1990s to the present. Additionally, a significant majority of the literature

collected was peer-reviewed literature. In relation to the literature collected on career

colleges, in general there was little peer-reviewed and published research available on

career colleges. However, I found other doctoral dissertations conducted on career

colleges, the findings of which will also be presented in this literature review.

Theoretical Framework

Evolution of Stress: Hans Selye's General Adaptation Syndrome Theory

The concept of stress is one that is well studied and documented in the field of

psychology. Its origin has been traced back to Hans Selye who first coined this term in

1936 (The American Institute of Stress, 2012). The concept originated out of the idea that organisms respond to various factors, such as infections, traumas, strain, and fatigue in a stereotypical manner that all place the body in a state of systematic stress. Research referencing stress as a pathogenic disease argued that everyday exposure to stress can result in a person becoming prematurely developing senility (Selye, 1955). The social psychological nature of stress has also been studied to assess the relationship between the social environmental factors of stress and mental illness (Dohrenwend, 1961). These studies also examined the physical and chemical changes that occur as a reaction to a stressful event, as well as, mediating internal and external factors that can impact an individual's response to stress (Selye, 1955). Stress has also transitioned from not just being a psychological concern but to also a medical issue that can trigger a wide array of acute and chronic medical disorders. Some of the most well documented medical disorders that can be triggered by prolonged stress include high blood pressure, which can lead to atherosclerosis, stroke, or coronary occlusion (Goldstein & Kopin, 2007). Stress not only negatively impacts an employee's physical and mental health, but that it can also have a negative financial impact on the employer. According to the Health and Safety Executive (2015), approximately 35% of work-related illness is related to stress, while approximately 43% percent of sickness absence is stress-related. Thus, costing an employer an average of approximately $1,000 per employee per year in sick pay. Additionally, there are other employer afforded costs that can result as a result of workplace stress, including employee turnover, workplace conflict, poor employee relations, reduced employee productivity, higher rates of accidents and injuries, and

increased insurance premiums. Those who worked in the health, teaching, business, media, and public service showed higher levels of stress than all other job fields (Health and Safety Executive, 2015).

Kumasey, Delle, and Ofei (2014) investigated whether gender and managerial status had any effect on the amount of occupational stress and organizational commitment amongst employees within the Ghanian banking sector. The findings of this study indicated that there was a significant difference in organizational commitment between male and female employees with male employees exhibiting higher levels of organizational commitment than female employees. However, there was no significant difference in the amount of stress experienced by male and female employees, as well as, no significant difference the amount of stress or organizational commitment experienced by managers in comparison to non-managers.

Because of the wide experience of stress regardless of occupation or career choice, it is no wonder that the exploration of stress within various occupational settings has continued to grow amongst researchers. Johnson et al. (2005) conducted a study that examined work-related stress across 26 different occupations. The stress-related variables explored during the course of this study included physical health, psychological wellbeing, and job satisfaction. The findings of this study identified six occupations as being the most stress occupations with the lowest levels of job satisfaction. The occupations identified as being the most stressful were ambulance workers, teachers,

social services workers, call center customer service representatives, prison officers and police officers.

Development of Job Satisfaction- Paul Spector's Job Satisfaction Theory

Job satisfaction is a concept explored by researchers in an attempt to measure an individual's satisfaction with their employment. The term job satisfaction was first systematically examined by Hoppock (1935). Since this time many researchers have continued to explore this concept in hopes of understanding this phenomenon within various occupational fields. One of the most well known researchers of job satisfaction is Paul Spector (1985), who developed the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) to measure levels of job satisfaction. The JSS has been widely used to measure job satisfaction in a wide array of professions, especially human service and non-profit related occupations (Spector, 1994). Spector (2003) defined job satisfaction in simple terms as being "the extent to which people like their jobs" (p. 210).

Job satisfaction has often been examined by researchers in the criminal justice field, especially in correlation with stress, job burnout, and job turnover rates. This particular theory was chosen as an assessment tool for this study due to the ability of this scale to efficiently assess job satisfaction amongst those professionals who provide service sought to improve the quality of life of other individuals in both the private and public sector. Criminal justice professionals and those in the education field are not only selfless in their work performance, but their dedication and commitment to serving others is what separates them apart from some other professions. Additionally, this particular

theory focuses on nine facets that have been found to greatly influence an employee's job satisfaction. These facets are Pay, Promotion, Supervision, Fringe Benefits, Contingent Rewards, Operating Procedures, Coworkers, Nature of Work, and Communication (Spector, 1994).

Stress and Job Satisfaction in Criminal Justice Field

Bond (2104) noted that stress is seemingly recognized as a part of many jobs within the criminal justice field due to inherent nature of the work involved and the environment in which much of the work is conducted. Subsequently, stress has not always been recognized as an issue within this field, in particular within the police culture. However, over the years research has indicated that stress, when unmanaged, can contribute to various psychological conditions and disorders, such as anxiety, depression, and post-traumatic stress disorder. When untreated, many of these conditions can have long-term effects, including chronic fatigue that can lead to poor decision-making and other cognitive difficulties. This fatigue can negatively affect the performance of a police officer (Bond, 2014). Ghosh, S., Debbarma, Bhattacharjee, and Ghosh, E. (2016) also acknowledged that the policing field is not only psychologically stressful, but also dangerous, demanding, and equivocal. Moreover, this profession is highly likely to be exposed to human misery and death. As a result, police officers are likely to experience a high amount of stress in their work, which could impact their quality of life. The findings of this study showed that one-fourth of the constables reported being stressed, while two-thirds of police officers were significantly stressed. Additionally, there was a positively linear correlation between age and stress amongst

police officers. Overall, officers were found to be more stressed than constables. There were no significant correlations between education and stress levels. In terms of quality of life, constables were found to have a higher quality of life than officers (Ghosh, S., Debbarma, Bhattacharjee, & Ghosh, E., 2016).

Basinska and Wiciak (2012) conducted research on fatigue and burnout in police officers and firefighters. Their study found that officers who suffered from fatigue were more likely to use more sick time, experience more accidental injuries while on duty, and have a higher risk of being seriously injured or killed due to lack of focus while on the job. These police officers were also found to have difficulty managing successful personal relationships, make more mistakes on departmental and court paperwork, and have trouble managing their time and reporting to duty on time. Additionally, fatigued officers were less prepared when it came to testifying in court cases, had trouble communicating with their superiors, and generated a higher number of citizen complaints in regards to their conduct in the field. Lastly, officers who suffered from fatigue were more likely to sleep while on duty, which could be contributed to them working rotating shifts that impacted their ability to get a sufficient amount of rest and were more likely to retire earlier due to burnout. Basinska, Wiciak, and Daderman (2014) conducted a follow-up study fatigue and burnout in police officers to assess for mediating influence of emotions. The findings indicated that fatigue in police officers was more likely to be associated with exhaustion versus disengagement. Additionally, police officers who exhibited high-arousal emotions were likely to attribute these emotions to changes in

work motivation, while those who exhibited low-arousal emotions displayed a reduced amount of energetic ability to work (Basinska, Wiciak, & Daderman, 2014).

Jaramillo, Nixon, and Sams (2005) studied the effects of stress amongst law enforcement officers to determine what factors impacted organizational commitment levels. Job satisfaction, support from a supervisor, group cohesiveness, and promotion opportunities were all found to be predictors of organizational commitment amongst law enforcement officers. Thus, suggesting that there is a significant relationship between organizational commitment and retention in law enforcement agencies (Jaramillo et al., 2005). Roy and Avdija (2012) explored whether differing prison security levels (medium versus maximum) influenced job satisfaction and job burnout amongst prison workers in the United Stated. The findings of this study indicated that there was no significant difference in the amount of job satisfaction experienced by prison employees regardless of the security level of the prison in which they are employed. There was, however, a partial effect found indicating that prison levels did impact job burnout amongst the prison employees with those worked in medium level security prisons reporting having more control over their work-related activities than those who worked in maximum security prisons. Additionally, job satisfaction was found to be inversely related to job burnout with there being a decrease in job burnout when job satisfaction was high. In terms of emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment, the findings of this study suggested that prison security level did not have any significance (Roy & Avdija, 2012).

The perception of job satisfaction experienced by metropolitan police officers, within small police department agencies, was explored by Julseth, Ruiz, and Hummer (2011). They argued that there has been a steady decline in the retention of police officers in metropolitan areas resulting from various police factors, including fatigue, stress, and workload. Consequently, these factors contribute to high turnover rates within these agencies. The results of their study indicated that there is an apparent relationship between stress and overall job satisfaction. The factors found to be most influential in one's job satisfaction were reports of higher stress levels, faster rotating shifts, and officers' perception of department morale. This suggests that the officers reported lower levels of job satisfaction the more frequently that they rotated work shifts, when their job-related stress levels increased, and when there was low morale within their department (Julseth, Ruiz, & Hummer, 2011). Instead of focusing solely on individual officer demographic characteristics in relation to job satisfaction, Johnson (2012) also examined how an officer's job task characteristics influenced their job satisfaction. The findings of this study showed that officers' job tasks were a major source of job satisfaction. Furthermore, while organizational environmental characteristics were important, these characteristics had a lesser role in influencing job satisfaction amongst police officers. Shim, Jo, and Hoover (2015) examined the relationship between occupational strain and turnover intention. Additionally, they investigated how one's negative emotions mediated the relationship between occupational strain and the intention to resign. And lastly, the explored the buffering effect of social support on one's experience of strain, negative emotions, and turnover intention. Their findings revealed that the strain experienced from

one's expected versus one's actual outcomes is significantly related to turnover intention. Also, the relationship between strain and turnover intention was found to be significantly mediated by two negative emotions: frustration and depression. However, the negative emotion of anxiety was not fond to mediate the relationship between strain and turnover intention. In terms of the impact of one's social support, it was determined that social support does have a partial positive influence on strain, one's negative emotions, and turnover intention (Shim, Jo, & Hoover, 2015). Similar to the impact of strain on turnover intention is the exploration of how stress impacts burnout amongst criminal justice professionals.

Ivie and Garland (2011) examined whether prior military experience influenced the impact or stress and burnout amongst police officers. The resulted showed that there was no significant difference in the levels of work-related stress or burnout experienced by police officers with prior military experience when compared with police officers who did have prior military experience. Specifically, negative exposure was found to have a significant effect on the stress experienced by those police officers with no prior military experience. This signified that police officers with military experience were less affected by the negative situations that they were exposed to as a part of their job when compared to police officers without military experience. However, negative exposure was a significant predictor of burnout for police officer with and without prior military experience. Gender was found to be a significant predictor of stress amongst police officer with no prior military experience with female police officers reporting higher levels of stress than male police officers. However, no such gender finding was

significant amongst male and female officers with prior military experience. In term of coping strategies, such strategies had a partial influence on stress amongst police officers. Police officers who utilized destructive coping strategies, such as increased smoking and alcohol consumption reported experiencing higher levels of stress than police officers with more healthy coping mechanisms, such as constructive coping (i.e., talking with a spouse, friend, or relative, exercising, making an action plan and following it). Coping strategies were also found to be predictors of burnout amongst both military and non-military police officers (Ivie & Garland, 2011).

Another study conducted by Paoline III and Lambert (2012) explored employee job stress, job satisfaction and organizational commitment within the American jail system in Orlando, Florida. Their study argued that staff perceptions of jail professionalism, detainee control, and support from administrative staff significantly impacted the amount of job stress, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment reported by employees. Specifically, employees who served as supervisors reported lower levels of stress in comparison to nonsupervisory jail staff. While those who worked in a custody positions (ex. correctional officer) within the jail reported higher levels of job stress in comparison to those who worked in noncustodial positions (ex. medical staff). Additionally, as an employee's tenure increased their reported levels of job stress also increased. However, the higher the amount of perceived professionalism reported in the jail by an employee the lower the amount of reported job stress. Perceptions regarding detainee control and administrative support revealed a negative correlation with job stress. In terms of job satisfaction, personal characteristics such as race, age, and

supervisory status all had a significant correlation with job satisfaction. White jail staff

reported having greater amounts of job satisfaction in comparison to non-white staff.

Similarly, jail supervisors reported higher amounts of job satisfaction than other

nonsupervisory jail employees. Age also had a positive correlation with job satisfaction.

Moreover, the findings showed that professionalism, detainee control, and administrative

support all also had a positive correlation with job satisfaction. And lastly, in regards to

organizational commitment supervisory status, position, tenure, professionalism, detainee

control, and administrative support were all found to be positively correlated (Paoline III

& Lambert, 2012).

Hartley, Davilla, Marquart, and Mullings (2013) researched stress and job

satisfaction amongst correctional officers by examining the influence of individual and

work-level factors. Specifically, this study sought to explore how fear of contacting an

infectious disease while at work impacted stress and job satisfaction level among

correctional officers. The findings showed that correctional officers did fear contacting an

infectious disease from their work environment, and that this fear was positively

correlated with stress and inadvertently correlated with job satisfaction. However, there

were no significant findings in terms of stress and job satisfaction in relation to being

exposed to infectious diseases. Additionally, when examining demographic differences,

younger correctional officers and non-minority correctional officers reported

experiencing higher levels of stress. Furthermore, correctional officers who did report

having high amounts of fear of contacting infectious diseases along with higher levels of

perceived dangerousness in their work and higher levels of exposure to infectious

diseases also reported higher levels of job-related stress. When examining job satisfaction, older correctional officers and minority correctional officers reported having higher levels of job satisfaction. Correctional officers who earned higher incomes also reported higher levels of job satisfaction. And lastly, those correctional officers who reported having high levels of support from their supervisors, lower levels of fear in terms of contracting infectious diseases, and low levels of danger in their work also reported having higher levels of job satisfaction (Hartley, Davilla, Marquart, & Mullings, 2013).   Finney, Stergiopoulos, Hensel, Bonato, and Dewa (2013) looked at specific organizational stressors that were associated with job stress and burnout amongst correctional officers from 8 different studies. Their review indicated there were five common categories of organizational stressors for correctional officers, including stressors that were intrinsic to the job, the role of the organization, rewards at work, relationships with supervisors, and the organizational structure and environment. The structure and environment of the organization was found to have the most significant relationship with stress and burnout amongst correctional officers.

Kuo (2014) also examined occupational stress, job satisfaction, and affective commitment to policing in Taiwan. Their study found that an officer's relationship with their peers and supervisors along with their perceptions regarding their department's promotional system consistently influenced job satisfaction and occupational commitment amongst this population. The more harmonious the work relationships were between police officers and their peers and supervisors the more likely the police officer was to report being both satisfied and committed to their job. Subsequently, if the

promotion system was viewed as judicious police officers were also more likely to report high levels of job satisfaction and affective commitment to their employer. Personal problems in a police officer's private life, as well as, the equipment available at work, were not found to have any significant influence on job satisfaction or affective commitment in this population. In terms of mediating factors of career commitment to policing, job satisfaction was found to be strong predictor of affective commitment. Job satisfaction was also found to have a partial mediating effect on the stress associated with colleagues and supervisor relationships, as well as, the promotion system and occupational affective commitment amongst this group of professionals. More senior police officers disclosed more dedication to their police work in comparison to police officers with shorter lengths of police service. However, there was little difference in the level of job satisfaction reported amongst newer and more senior police officers (Kuo, 2014). Adebayo and Ogunsina (2011) assessed the possible influence that supervisory behavior and job-induced stress had on job satisfaction and turnover intention in police officers in Nigeria. The results indicated that supervisory behavior had a significant on job satisfaction, as well as, on turnover intention. Moreover, job-induced stress was found to have a significant effect on job satisfaction and turnover intention. However, there was no significant interaction finding indicating that supervisory behavior and job stress impacted job satisfaction or turnover intention (Adebayo & Ogunsina, 2011).

Balgaonkar, Bidkar, and Manganale (2014) explored the coping strategies used by law enforcement to cope with occupational stress. This study noted that law enforcement work has consistently been identified as high stress occupation due to various

unexpecting and potentially dangerous situations that police officers are exposed to on a daily basis. Additionally, because of the stressful nature of police work there are reports indicating that the suicide rate for police officers has increased year after year. Furthermore, police officers are susceptible to engaging in unhealthy coping mechanisms, such as using drugs, smoking and taking alcohol. The findings indicate that overall approximately 69% of police officers utilize one of the following coping strategies:

- *Submissive Coping*: Smoking, Drinking Alcohol, Sleeping More, Writing in a Stress Diary, Complaining, and Quitting the Job.

- *Functional Coping*: Managing Time, Preparing an Action Plan for Work, Setting Daily Goals and Prioritizing the Work

- *Diversion Coping*: Using Entertainment Sources, Engaging in Hobbies

- *Relaxation Coping*: Engaging in Meditation, Yoga, or Physical Exercise

- *Third-Party Support Coping*: Seeking Professional Help, Taking Planned Breaks from Work, Delegating Responsibilities

- *Cognitive Restructuring Coping*: Trying to Look at Things Differently, Talking with Friends or Family

- *Transitory Reinforcement Coping*: Taking Coffee, Tea, etc., Leaving Tensions at Work

Submissive coping, functional coping, and diversion coping were identified as the three primary and most important coping strategies used by this group of professionals. In terms of gender, there was no significant difference in the coping strategies employed by male and female police officers. However, the results showed certain coping strategies

were more characteristic of male officers than female officers, including smoking, drinking alcohol, complaining, sleeping more, and quitting the job. Female police officers were more likely to participate in physical exercise, meditation, and yoga to relax and relieve stress (Balgaonkar, Bidkar, & Manganale, 2014).

Because law enforcement is considered to be a stressful field it is only understandable that these professionals may seek out other career opportunities. Hassell, Archbold, and Stichman (2011) examined the relationship between mentoring programs, stress, job satisfaction, and career change consideration among male and female police officers to determine if any significant differences existed. Their results indicated that police officers that believe that there is a need for employee mentoring programs reported having higher levels of occupational stress. Moreover, officers with higher levels of stress also exhibited lower levels of job satisfaction. There was no significant difference in stress and job satisfaction between male and female police officers (Hassell et al., 2011). In terms of retention, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, comparison of other jobs, and intentions to quit are the best predictors of turnover in employment. Also influencing turnover rates are environmental work factors such as, job content, stress, work group cohesion, autonomy, fair treatment, and promotion advancement opportunities. However, the findings of this study did not show a significant relationship between having a negative workplace experience or reports of high levels of stress as influencing a police officer's decision to seek out other employment opportunities or make a career change, thus signifying that such a decision may entail a much more complex decision making process (Hassell et al., 2011).

Stress and Job Satisfaction in Higher Education

Stress and job satisfaction have both been explored in all sectors of academic education, including higher education. However, much of the research conducted in the higher education field has focused solely on traditional colleges and universities with a significant amount of emphasis on faculty and student stress experiences. Ablanedo-Rosas et al. (2011) conducted an empirical quantitative study where they examined if there were any differences in the level of stress experienced by the academic staff, administrative staff, and students in a public university in the southeast part of the United States. Additionally, this study examined stress level differences across different demographic groups (gender and age), within this particular university to determine if there were any significant differences in the amount of stress reported by those belonging to these different demographic groups. This study also explored the impact of stress in regards to the organizational demands of the institution, as well as, any health-related implications as a result of the stress one experienced in their role within this institution. Lastly, the influence of stress management techniques on one's overall stress was explored to determine if such techniques contributed to a reduction in the amount of stress experienced by the participants. The findings indicated that there was no difference in the amount of stress experienced by the academic staff, administrative staff, or students within the university. However, when examining stress level differences among group pairs, it was determined that there was a significant difference in the amount of stress reported by academic staff in comparison to students. Additionally, there was not a significant difference in the amount of stress experienced by female staff and students in

comparison with male staff and students, as well as, there was no difference in the amount of stress experienced among those of different age groups. This study also did not find a significant relationship between health-related issues and stress among academic staff. However, health issues such as sleeping problems, depression, and irritability was significantly related to stress among students. The study did find that there was a significant amount of stress associated with organizational demands experienced among all participants, with work overload being identified as a significant stressor for academic staff and feelings of being overwhelmed being identified as a significant stress for students. As suspected, having coping techniques for stress reduced the amount of stress experienced by all participants across all roles (Ablanedo-Rosas et al., 2011).

Morris and Laipple (2015) explored the leadership skills, preparedness for administrative role, and job satisfaction of university administrators. The findings indicated that in general most administrators felt well prepared, especially in areas of developing entrepreneurial revenue, document progress, and in the handling of grievances and appeals. Those administrative leaders who had taken at least some courses in business administration, behavioral or industrial-organizational psychology, or human resource leadership reported higher levels of preparedness and job satisfaction than those who had no such educational experience. Female administrators reported lower perceptions of preparedness in comparison to their male counterparts in areas of entrepreneurial revenue, allocation of limited resources, and with managing their unit's finances. However, woman gave themselves higher rating levels in areas of being proactive, providing helpful feedback, effectively using meeting time, and in inspiring

others. Additionally, women were less likely than men to avoid making decisions. In terms of job satisfaction, women were more likely to report feeling overwhelmed and less adequate compensated than men, but more likely to report feeling that they were successful in completing goals. Administrators who were more experienced were more satisfied with their job than first-time administrators. However, over time a majority of these professionals reported that they had become less interested in their job with a small percentage reporting experiencing feelings of burnout at least once per week. The demands of their administrative role also interfered with many of the daily personal functions of these administrators, including interference with family commitments, social relationships, healthy eating, regular exercise, and adequate sleep at night. This type of personal interference was higher in female administrators than male administrators. However, there was no significant difference in the interference experienced by experienced and first-time administrators. In regards to leadership development, women were more likely than men to participate in activities that enhanced their leadership skills, such as reading about administration and leadership and attending seminars (Morris & Laipple, 2015).

Due to many college students experiencing stress during their matriculation researchers have sought to identify the stressors associated with such stress. Kadapatti and Vijayalaxmi (2012) conducted a study aimed at identifying the stressors of academic stress amongst pre-university students. The findings showed that the following stressors: having high aspirations and self-expectations, poor study habits, more study problems, changes in the method of instruction, and being from low socio-economic conditions

were factors that were likely to contribute to academic stress amongst this population. A similar cross-sectional study was conducted by Abdulghani, AlKanhal, Mahmoud, Ponnamperuma, and Alfaris (2011), which sought to examine stress and the effects that it had on medical college students in Saudi Arabia. Their research acknowledged that studying medicine was stressful and that such stress could have a negative impact on the cognitive functioning and learning of medical students. It was hypothesized that such stress may impact the academic performance of this group of students. The findings revealed that the overall prevalence of stress was approximately 63%, while the prevalence of severe stress was around 25%. The prevalence of stress was found to be higher in female students versus male students. Additionally, stress levels decreased as the year of study increased, with the exception of the final year of study. Interestingly, the students' grade point average or regularity of class attendance did not significantly impact stress levels (Abdulghani, AlKanhal, Mahmoud, Ponnamperuma, & Alfaris, 2011). Correspondingly, Archibong, Bassey, and Effiom (2010) sought to identify the sources of stress for university academic staff. The explored stress in relation to four occupation-related areas: interpersonal relationships, research, teaching, and career development. In regards to their interpersonal relationships, research, teaching, and career development academic staff members reported that their interactions with students were their greatest source of stress. Career development was found to be the greatest source of occupational-related stress for academic staff. There were no gender differences found in terms of stress amongst this population. Barkhuizen and Rothmann (2008) investigated the sources of occupational stress experienced by academic staff in South African higher

education institutions, including examining differences in various demographic groups. Additionally, their study sought to investigate whether employee commitment to the organization reduced the impact of occupational stress on health-related illness. The findings here argued that those in academics reported higher levels of stress, which were primarily attributed to pay and benefits, work relationships, work overload, and work-life balance. Job security, control, and job characteristic variables were all perceived to be low sources of stress for academic employees. Furthermore, their findings indicated that the more the academic faculty aged and gained experience the more responsibility they had within the organization. Thus, resulting in reports of higher levels of job demands and stress, especially amongst associate professors. And lastly, in relation to gender differences women reported higher levels of physical illness attributed to work stress when compared to their male counterparts. All academic employees experienced high levels of psychological illness that were considered to be attributed to the stress experienced in their academic employment setting (Barkhuizen &Rothmann, 2008). Sun, Wu, and Wang (2011) also examined occupational stress among university teachers in China. Their study suggested that university teachers in China were expected to suffer from occupational stress as result of growing enrollment with little increase in teacher resources or promotional opportunities. The results found that stress amongst this population was significantly correlated with one's physical functioning, role limitations due to physical problems, mental health, role overload, role insufficiency, self-care, rational and cognitive coping, and social support (Sun et al., 2011).

How stress impacts one's overall mental health and well-being has also been researched in the higher education sector. A study on occupational stress was conducted on university teachers in Japan. The findings of this study also indicated that university teachers were mentally unhealthy and likely to suffer from mental health problems, which were impacted by additional factors such as gender, professional position, conditions regulating the use of paid leave, job satisfaction, job control, social support, and coping skills. More specifically, women were found to have poorer mental well-being in comparison to male teachers. Lecturers, in comparison to professors, scored higher on somatic symptoms associated with mental health issues. This finding was also true of younger professionals, which implies that lecturers and younger teacher professionals are risk factors that cause stress and thus make one more likely to suffer from somatic symptoms. Higher levels of job satisfaction and job control resulted in healthier mental well-being. Furthermore, the ability to freely use paid leave at one's discretion was correlated to more health well-being levels. While teachers who had a more proactive use of coping strategies also tended to be more mentally and physically healthy (Kataoka, Ozawa, Tomotake, Tanioka, & King, 2014). Lorenz (2014) conducted another study surrounding how stress impacts the overall well-being of academic leaders. This study noted that as the pace, workload, and individual stress levels of administrators within the higher education sector increase so does the potential for one's health, job satisfaction, and longevity to be negatively affected. Because of this potential impact it is necessary for academic leaders to learn how to achieve and maintain a healthy sense of wellness.

The examination of links between job satisfaction and job-related stress has also

been a popular topic of stress-related research. Such research efforts, even those

conducted in other countries such as Pakistan, have typically shown that there are

significant correlations between stress and work-related indicators, including relationship

with coworkers, responsibilities, and income. Revelations have indicated that a high

percentage of faculty within higher educational institutions are not satisfied with their

salary, which was directly correlated with their reportedly lower levels of job satisfaction.

Furthermore, job-related stress was shown to negatively impact employee health. Thus,

leading there to be a significantly negative correlation between job stress and job

satisfaction (Bhatti et al., 2011). A comparable study was conducted on teachers at a

university in Romania, which investigated the relationship between stress and job

satisfaction (Necsoi, 2011). The findings of this study also revealed a negative correlation

between stress and job satisfaction. Additionally, there was a statistically significant

difference in reports of stress and job satisfaction between men and women with women

reporting higher levels of anxiety and depression and lower levels of job satisfaction than

their male counterparts. In terms of tenure, teachers with tenure reported having

substantially more job satisfaction than teachers without tenure. However, there was no

significant difference found amongst faculty with different titles in relation to stress and

job satisfaction (Necsoi, 2011).

Tinu, and Adeniji (2015) examined the influence of gender on job satisfaction and

job commitment amongst college lecturers. Their findings indicated that there was no

significant difference in the amount of job satisfaction experienced by male and female

lecturers. Similarly, gender had no significant impact on the job commitment of lecturers. Bataineh (2014) assessed the level of job satisfaction amongst educational faculty at universities in Jordan. The findings indicated that faculty members reported having moderate level of job satisfaction overall. Male faculty members reported higher levels of job satisfaction when compared to their female counterparts. However, this finding could be attributed to the fact that there are fewer female professors at Jordanian universities. Furthermore, older professors, those with more teaching experience, and those with higher ranks reported higher levels of job satisfaction. Lastly, the type of university impacted job satisfaction levels amongst professors in Jordan with those who worked at Mu'tah University reporting higher levels of job satisfaction when compared to the faculty at Jordan University, Yarmouk University, and Hashemite University. This difference was attributed to the notion that the social relationships among the faculty at Mu'tah university are solid and strong due to the amount of time colleagues spend together due to the location of the university and the job security the that the university has provided (Bataineh, 2014).

Maji and Ali (2013) also conducted an empirical study on the link between job satisfaction and stress amongst para-teachers in public higher education institutions in West Bengal, India. Their findings confirmed previous studies that suggested that there was a significant negative correlation between job satisfaction and stress. Thus, suggesting that the degree of stress increases, as individuals become less satisfied with their employment. Additionally, their findings showed that male teachers and teachers with more qualifications experienced more stress than female teachers and teachers with

fewer credentials and qualifications. There were no significant findings in relation to age and one's perception of stress or job satisfaction (Maji & Ali, 2013). Dutta, Barman, and Behera (2014) conducted a similar study that assessed the level of job satisfaction of part-time college teachers in the Hooghly district of West Bengal, India. They examined job satisfaction in relation to seven factors, including: working conditions, salary status, understanding between colleagues, recognition by others, workload, availability of powers, and status and promotion opportunities. The findings showed that the overall satisfaction of part-time college teachers in this district was neither significantly satisfied nor unsatisfied, but rather moderate. Subsequently, demographic variables such as gender, age, locality, stream, educational qualifications, teaching experience, and income did not have any significant impact on the job satisfaction of this population (Dutta, Barman, & Behera, 2014). Bozeman and Gaughan (2011) tested the effects of individual attributes, institutional work contexts, and faculty work characteristics on job satisfaction amongst university faculty members. Overall, the findings showed that faculty members were quite satisfied with their jobs, with tenured faculty having a higher job satisfaction rating than non-tenured faculty. Additionally, male faculty members reported higher levels of job satisfaction in comparison to female faculty members. In terms of individual characteristics that could influence job satisfaction, there were no significant findings regarding race or discipline in terms of job satisfaction. There were also no significant findings indicating that an increase in the amount of time spent on research increased job satisfaction, nor did writing grant proposal and teaching undergraduates reduce job satisfaction. There was support indicating that pay perceptions influenced job

satisfaction, specifically whether participants felt that they were being paid a fair market value salary seemed to influence their level of job satisfaction (Bozeman & Gaughan, 2011).

In direct relation to job satisfaction is job performance and how stress directly impacts job performance. El Shikieri and Musa (2012) explored factors associated with occupational stress amongst university employees at a Sudanese University. The study was conducted to determine how such factors impact organizational performance within this academic setting. The findings of this study suggested that on average most of the employees reported experiencing high levels of job stress. Furthermore, these stressors tended to negatively affect their overall general health, their job satisfaction, their performance at work, and their commitment to the organization (El Shikieri & Musa, 2012). Also supporting these findings was a study conducted by Mohammadi (2011) at the University of Tehran in Iran that examined occupational stress and organizational performance. The findings of this study also indicated a majority of the university's employees experienced high levels of job-related stress. Some of the factors found to be most influential in impacting high stress levels amongst university employees were role conflict and role ambiguity, lack of promotional opportunities and feedback regarding employee productivity, and lack of participation in the decision making. Additional factors affecting job stress included unsatisfactory working conditions, workload, and interpersonal relationships. These factors were found to negatively impact the general physical health of the university's employees, as well as, their job satisfaction, job performance, and commitment to the organization (Mohammadi, 2011). Jacobs,

Tytherleigh, Webb, and Cooper (2007) conducted a study that explored employee-productivity as it related to stress within a university setting. Their study examined how stress impacted an employee's organizational commitment, health, and work performance. Their findings suggested that work-related stressors had a linear and negative relationship with self-evaluated work productivity, which indicated that as one's work-related stress increased one's productivity decreased. Eagan Jr. and Garvey (2015) examined the connection between race, gender, and stress as it related to faculty productivity. Their findings showed that stress, as a result of discrimination, negatively impact on faculty of color. However, stress due to family obligations was found to have a significantly positive impact on the faculty adopting a more student-centered approach to teaching, and encouraged participation on civic-minded activities (Eagan Jr. & Garvey, 2015).

Gillespie et al. (2001) conducted a longitudinal study on stress within the Australian university sector. Their study focused on gaining an in-depth understanding on the stress experienced by those who worked within higher education universities by conducting multiple focus groups. Their findings indicated that both general and academic staff reported an increase in the amounts of stress they had experienced within the previous five years. Moreover, they identified five major sources of their stress, which included: having insufficient funding and resources available, work overload, poor management practices, a lack of job security, and a lack of special recognition and reward. The participants of the study also reported that the work-related stress that they experienced had a significant impact on their professional work performance, as well as,

their personal welfare. Having appropriate coping strategies and a positive work environment seemed to help those working in this setting deal with and minimize their stress (Gillespie et al., 2001). Abbas, Roger, and Asadullah (2012) explored how various organizational role stressors impact stress and burnout amongst faculty employees at a public university in Pakistan. The findings of their study showed that role ambiguity was one of the biggest organizational role stressors impacting the dimensions of stress and burnout amongst faculty members. Role stagnation, inter-role distance, self-role distance, resource inadequacy, role conflict, and role overload were also found to be factors that influenced stress and burnout amongst this population. A similar finding was revealed in a study conducted by Idris (2011), who found that role overload and role ambiguity predicted a change in the amount of strain experienced over time. However, role conflict was not found to have a significant impact on strain over time. Khan, Saleem, and Shahid (2012) explored the concept of locus of control in relation to stress among college level faculty in Bahawalpur. The findings indicated that teachers with internal locus of control tended to report lower levels of stress in comparison with teachers with an external locus of control. These results further confirmed the notion that individuals with high levels of internal locus of control have higher coping and mediating abilities when it comes to dealing with stress, while teachers with external locus of control tended to be more prone to experiencing stress.

Necsoi and Porumbu (2011) further examined occupational stress in universities by studying the perceived causes and coping strategies associated with being a university teacher. The findings of this study indicated that the most pressing sources of stress were

the abundance and variety of faculty-related tasks, the low salary compensation, the difficulty associated with earning a promotion, and conflict between balancing one's work and family life. Additional stressors included the conflict between research and didactic activity, and time pressures associated with unrealistic deadlines. In comparing the use of coping strategies of teachers with those in other occupations, teachers were found to utilize more coping strategies than those in other professions. Moreover, female teachers tended to experience higher levels of overall stress in comparison to male teachers. However, females also tended to employ more social support as a way to better cope with the demands associated with their academic position (Necsoi & Porumbu, 2011). Salami (2011) investigated the relationship between stress and burnout amongst college lecturers, as well as, the extent to which personality and social supports buffer the negative effects of stress in terms of burnout. The results revealed that job stress, personality dimensions, and social support, collectively and separately, impacted burnout. The sources of stress identified in this study included workloads, time pressures, working conditions, inadequacy of facilities, and the misbehavior of the students. In terms of the impact of personality, those with Type A personality were found to work harder, put forth greater amounts of effort, and have a greater commitment to their jobs in an effort to accomplish more in their work, despite the potential negative impact on their health. Additionally, lecturers who had higher levels of social supports were found to be less burned out. These professionals were found to be able to better cope with the negative stresses of their work due to the social support from their families, friends, and colleagues (Salami, 2011).

The impact of stress and job satisfaction in higher education has also been the focus of studies exploring more administrative roles, such as the role of associate deans. White (2014) conducted a qualitative study that explored the first year experience of those who transitioned into associate dean positions at higher education institutions. The results revealed that the transition into the associate dean role was a difficult and stressful transition for many of the participants. Additionally, the first year for many of the participants was one filled with a great amount of on-the-job skill acquisition and learning how to navigate the organizations broader environment. This transition also required the newly appointed associate deans to learn to deal with the significant changes surrounding their previous relationships and interactions with their colleagues that they now manage at these institutions. This particular transition was found to be associated with a sense of loneliness, as these professionals now have to identify with and establish a new peer group. Yet, despite all of the challenges associated with this type of position most of the participants reported high amounts of job satisfaction and a desire to remain in administration in the future (White, 2014).

The emotional intelligence and work-related stress of the faculty at a private medical and engineering college located in Uttar, Pradesh was also explored. The researchers chose to explore stress within this particular institution due to previous indications that the medical and engineering fields are not only stressful fields, but that they also tend to have more employees that experience higher levels of stress in comparison to other occupations (Singh & Jha, 2012). Kavitha (2012) conducted a study that also assessed the role of faculty stress in another private college with a focused

discipline in engineering, which was located in the district of Coimbatore. The findings indicated that there were several stressors reportedly experienced by the faculty who worked in this institution, which included having lacking authority, work overload, position stagnation, and attrition. Chung et al. (2010) explored the predictors of job satisfaction between instructional and clinical faculty at the University of Michigan Medical School to determine any differences or similarities. The findings indicated that clinical faculty members were less satisfied with how they were mentored. Additionally, fewer clinical faculty reported understanding the process for promotional advancement. However, there was no overall significant difference in the amount of job satisfaction reported between clinical and instructional faculty members. Factors that were found to be significant predictors of job satisfaction amongst this group of professionals, included areas of autonomy, meeting career expectations, having a work-life balance, and departmental leadership. For clinical instructors, additional predictors of job satisfaction also included compensation and career advancement opportunities (Chung et al., 2010).

Job satisfaction within the criminal justice academic field has been explored by researchers, such as Gabbidon and Higgins (2012) whose study argued that faculty who work within Criminology and Criminal Justice departments at major colleges and universities across the country reported higher rates of job satisfaction when they devoted more time to their friends and family. Similarly, these same professionals had more experience with published journal articles, which also impacted their high level of job satisfaction. When exploring demographic regions, those employed and living in the south reported lower amounts of job satisfaction when compared with Criminology and

Criminal Justice faculty who lived in other parts of the country (Gabbidon & Higgens, 2012). Bernat and Holschuh (2015) conducted a study that aimed to explore senior female faculty members who taught in criminology and criminal justice programs. The findings of this study indicated that most senior female faculty members were satisfied with their workplace environment. However, there was a significant difference in the level of job satisfaction reported by full-time female full professors and associate professors. Full-time professors expressed feeling more successful than associate professors. Full-time professors were also less pessimistic about their work environment when compared to associate professors. Associate professors reported feeling like their service load interfered with their scholarship more than full-time professors, and that their service load was too heavy. Additionally, associate professors did not feel as though they were given the same amount of respect or received as many rewards as full-time faculty members (Bernat & Holschuh, 2015). In the Philippines, some colleges have employed the use of co-teachers to enhance the teaching performance of criminal justice educators and assist with administrative responsibilities of these educators (Villarmia, 2015). A study on this practice revealed that educators in colleges that employ the use of co-teachers reported having a moderate stress level. When examining teaching performance, educators employing the use of a co-teacher were said to have a high level or very satisfactory level of teaching performance.

Stress and Job Satisfaction among Department Heads

Department heads are an essential link between administration, faculty, and students. This particular group of professionals must have a diverse skillset that includes

developing faculty members, managing diverse groups of individuals, lead the agendas of their department, and continue to make scholarly contributions to their academic fields (Rodriguez et al., 2016). Rodriguez et al. (2016) conducted a study to identify the profile of department chairs in U.S. and Canadian dental schools. The findings showed that over 37% of the participants had a doctoral degree. Additionally, most department chairs were Caucasian and male. On average, this group of department chairs reported that they worked approximately 51 hours a week, with most of their time being spent administrative tasks, such as reading and responding to emails and memorandums. Department chairs reported spending the least amount of time building partnerships and scheduling of classes. In terms of responsibilities and how these differed from their expectations, participants reported that they did not anticipate spending as much time addressing emails as they actually do, as well as, the amount of paperwork that they would have to complete as a part of their position. This finding was interesting since this particular task is not viewed as a priority of a department chair. In terms of stressors associated with their position, participants reported that their primary source of stress was attributed to their workload, which many felt was too heavy. Additionally, the amount of meetings that they had to attend and the interference with their personal time were stressors for this population. When asked to identify their single greatest challenge with their role, many of the department heads reported being able to handle their workload, recruiting and retaining faculty, budgeting and fiscal concerns, and managing and developing faculty as their primary challenge. In terms of job satisfaction, respondents reported approximately 80% of department chairs reported that they were highly to very

highly satisfied with their position. Contributors to high job satisfaction were identified as being able to work with students, having the opportunity to teach, and working with faculty members (Rodriguez et al., 2016).

The examination of stress and job satisfaction amongst department chairs has been studied in the past; however, more recent literature regarding this phenomenon is scarce. Gmelch (1991) suggested that while there are thousands of department chairs that this is also accompanied with a high turnover rate. These retention issues seem to be a result of the unexpected requirements and sacrifices associated with taking on such a position of leadership. Department chairs often times experience a drastic shift in the amount of time that they spend on professional activities, such as research, keeping current in their discipline, and teaching and instead spend more time focusing on administrative tasks. The responsibilities associated with being a department chair also negatively impact the amount of time that these professionals have to spend with family and friends, as well as, reducing the amount of leisure time they have to themselves. This loss of personal time resulted in decreased levels of job satisfaction. Additionally, department chairs reported experiencing high levels of stress associated with the increasing pressures and demands associated with performing as an administrator, as well as, as a productive faculty member. This study found that department chair not only experienced the same most serious stressors as faculty members, but also reported experiencing more excessive stress in comparison to faculty member, as well as, additional stressor associated with their role as a department chair. Some of the additional stressors related to their management position, included dealing with confrontations with

colleagues, new time demands, and institutional constraints (Gmelch, 1991). De Oliveira

et al. (2011) examined burnout in Anesthesiology department chairs, and found that the

primary stress factors for these professionals were budgetary issues and faculty retention.

Lazaridou, Athanasoula-Reppa, and Fris (2008) conducted a qualitative study that

explored how the roles and responsibilities of university administrators have changed

over previous decades causing a significant amount of ambiguity, conflict, and stress in

those who are employed in these roles. Additionally, this ambiguity and subsequent stress

challenges the effectiveness of the management provided by administrators in this setting.

The study addressed how the role of a department chair has become more formalized and

the responsibilities have increased to include not only servicing students, but also making

approximately 80% of the operational decisions of the department they are tasked with

managing. Specifically, their study sought to find out what specific tasks, duties, and

work-setting factors contributed to the personal stress experienced by those who served

as department chairs in Greek and Cypriot public universities. The findings of the study

found that, on average, department chairs' satisfaction with their current role was a little

less than fully satisfied with a high number of Greek participants desiring to obtain a

higher position within the education field, while many of the Cypriot participants

expressed a desire to be demoted back to a faculty position. In terms of overall stress

experienced by the participants, approximately 43% of the participants rated the stress

they have experienced as a department chair as being a "4 out of 5" on a Likert scale,

where 1= very little and 5= very much. Additionally, when asked what specific tasks as a

department chair were stressful the participants rated trying to gain financial support for

their department, participating in work-related events outside of regular working hours, and balancing leadership with their scholarly responsibilities as the top three stressors. Other top stressors identified by this study included: attending long meetings, having insufficient time to stay current in their respective fields, meeting deadlines, and completing the required paperwork associated with the position (Lazaridou, Athanasoula-Reppa, and Fris, 2008). Similarly, Carroll and Gmelch (1992) investigated the roles, attitudes, and behaviors of department chairs within the higher education sector of academia. Their study found that most department chairs viewed their most important role as being one of a scholar, despite their position leaving very little time for research. Furthermore, those who were effective leaders were also effective in their role as a department chairs (Carroll & Gmelch, 1992). Coetzee, Basson, and Potgieter (2011) also recognized that there have been changes in and demands made on higher education institutions, which have impacted the roles and responsibilities of department heads. These changes have resulted in an increase in the amount of emphasis placed on the managerial development of these professionals. The findings revealed that department heads viewed leadership, financial management, and project management as the most important functions of being effective in their roles (Coetzee, Basson, & Potgieter, 2011).

Gmelch and Burns (1994) provided insight on the sources of stress for those work are employed as department chairs in public universities. The findings suggested that conflict-mediating factors, such as negotiating rules and regulations, gaining program approvals, and disputes between faculty members caused the greatest amount of stress. Tasked-based factors and professional identity were also found to be sources of stress for

faculty members. Task-based factors included attending meetings, having heavy workloads, keeping current in their academic discipline, dealing with interruptions, and balancing personal and professional time. This study also examined the perception of stress across academic disciplines, and found that there was some significant difference in the amount of perceived stress amongst some of the academic disciplines examined. Department chairs in hard-pure-life disciplines, such as biology where significantly more stressed on personal identity factors in comparison to department chairs in soft disciplines, such as history, fine arts, educational administration, and economics. Their findings also indicated that in terms of retention that a slight majority of the department chairs would serve another term despite the stress associated with their position (Gmelch & Burns, 1994).

Gonzales and Rincones (2013) conducted a qualitative study that explored the emotional labor associated with being a department chair in higher education. The findings of their study revealed some common word trends used to describe the experience of a department chair within the higher education sector, including the words "frustration", "tired", and "stressed". This supported the notion that the tense role of a department chair can result in high levels of stress. Additionally, their study disclosed the struggle experienced by the participant of this study in balancing the expectations of his department colleagues with the demands of the upper administration and his own personal commitment to academic freedom and integrity. There were also joyful moments disclosed by the participant of the study, especially related to positive student comments regarding the positive influence of the department chair. Similarly, the

participant in this study documented emotions of openness, empathy, vulnerability, and passion. These emotions combined summarized and accounted for the heart of what the participant wanted his role as a department chair to be (Gonzales & Rincones, 2013).

A qualitative study was conducted by Garipağaoğlu & Vatanartıran (2013) that investigated the experiences and challenges of department chairs working at a private, non-profit university in Turkey. Some of the challenges noted by the participants included challenges working with upper level management and administration, building relationships and working cohesively with other department chairs, being fair and just in the delegation of workloads to their faculty, and the general responsibilities that come with being a middle-level manager. More specifically, some of the prominent challenges viewed as stressful by the department chairs included, working in a harmonious fashion with the dean, adapting to the dean's leadership style, dealing with frequent changes due to turnover in the dean position, and the need and struggle to gain permissions for department related requests. Additionally, in terms of working with other department chairs, many of the participants disclosed the need to effectively work with other department chairs on organizational related tasks. Any conflict between department chairs can make such an effort challenging, especially when there is a lack of strong coordination and cooperation between department chairs or when other department chairs social loaf and fail to contribute effectively to group efforts and responsibilities (Garipağaoğlu & Vatanartıran, 2013). A similar study in Turkey examined stress and anxiety levels in female administrators who worked in universities. Various female administrators were surveyed, including deans, directors, and department heads. The

findings indicated that female administrators had low levels of anxiety, but experienced moderate levels of stress. Non-married, young participants who held lower managerial positions expressed having higher anxiety levels. Likewise, younger participants who held lower managerial positions and academic titles reported experiencing higher amounts of stress. The primary source of stress for female administrators was the requirement to complete various job duties within short timeframes (Akin et al., 2014). The most notable role of the department chair expressed by the participants centered around mediating conflicts between parties, whether the conflicts were student-based, faculty-based, or involving upper-level management. Likewise, department chairs were often faced with the challenged of being just and fair in handling such conflicts, as well as, in handling day to day responsibilities like the delegating of faculty workloads. The last challenged discussed during the course of this study focused on the actual role of the department chair as a middle-level manager. While this position is often viewed as the backbone of an institution, the participants revealed that they are often held to high standards with very little authority. Some of the department chairs divulged being under severe stress due to the excessive responsibilities associated with the position with little appreciation or recognition from those they manage or from upper management. Other challenges unveiled during the course of this study, included challenges with respect, especially if a department chair is female or younger than other managers. As well as, challenges with feeling alienated, exhausted, and having inadequate resources to effectively do their job (Garipağaoğlu & Vatanartıran, 2013).

Just as stress can impact the mental health and well-being of university faculty it can also have an impact on psychological functioning and well-being of department chairs. Cilliers and Pienaar (2014) explored the psychological profile of department chairs. The study revealed that initially academic department chairs started this role with a great deal of passion. However, participants also indicated that while they had academic expertise and research output that they had little to management training or interpersonal competence when it came to their role as a department chair. Additionally, these professionals reported being provided with vague job descriptions and no formal mentoring or training, which contributed to high levels of uncertainty in one's tasks, authority boundaries, placement within the university system, and performance standards. Participants disclosed feelings of being overwhelmed by the administrative responsibility associated with the position, as well as, feelings of disappointment of the lack of support provided by the institution. Furthermore, participants reported feeling lonely and ostracized and having a great amount of emotional pain. Department chairs viewed the university's management and administration as being distant, impersonal, confusing, frustrating, non-supportive, and ineffective. While relationships with colleagues were often times described as being conflicted in nature and frustrating. In terms of stress, participants reported experiencing work fatigue, having a lack of work-life balance, suffering from irregular sleep patterns, and experiencing emotional exhaustion related to their experiences and constant involvement in work-related conflicts. Additionally, some participants reported suffering from feelings of paranoia, hopelessness, and helplessness. Overall, findings revealed that academic department chairs did not cope well

psychologically, and as a result their work performance was negatively impacted (Cilliers & Pienaar, 2014).

A great deal of research regarding department chairs has been devoted to exploring the training, leadership characteristics, and effectiveness for those holding such a position. Bozeman, Fay, and Gaughan (2013) explored the decision autonomy and strategic priorities of department heads in higher education. They found that the most powerful department chairs are those who preside over large doctoral programs. Additionally, department chairs that were hired from outside of the institution were found to have more power than those who were promoted from within the institution. Females were also found to be less powerful in comparison to their male counterparts. Department chair's decision autonomy was found to be a predictor of their strategic departmental priorities, when examining diversity, student, research and new faculty lines. However, power was not found to have a significant impact on a department chair's commitment to the diversity or being student-focused, as it relates to priorities. There was a negative relationship found between power and the priority of increasing faculty lines within the department (Bozeman et al., 2013).

Rashed and Daud (2013) investigated the effects of transformational leadership on the organizational commitment of academic staff in universities, including department heads. Their findings suggested that there is both a direct and indirect link between the use of transformational leadership skills and the organizational commitment of academic staff. Transformational leaders tend to search for new opportunities that will transform

their current status, have extensive thinking ideas and think in terms of the future, and be supportive in helping foster and improve the skills and abilities of others. Additionally, transformational leaders have clear values and beliefs, as well as, serve as encouragers and motivators to the efforts, performance, and efficiency of the human workforce. When such a leadership model is implemented the academic staff tend to be more committed to the success of the organization as a whole, which reduces turnover rates. This finding is similar to the finding in a study conducted by Pihie, Sadeghi, and Elias (2011) that found that successful department heads were mostly found to utilize a transformational leadership style versus a transactional style, which was only used sometimes and a laissez-fair leadership style that which was rarely used. The findings of this study also suggested that job satisfaction amongst department heads was positively correlated with the use of a transformational or transactional leadership style, while job satisfaction was negatively correlated with a laissez-fair leadership style. Thus, department heads were encouraged to use a transformational leadership style due to its significant link to job satisfaction (Pihie, Sadeghi, & Elias, 2011).

Bakar, Mahmood, and Lucky (2015) also examined leadership styles in academic leaders to determine how various leadership styles impact the performance of these professionals. The findings indicated that it was essential for academic leaders to be entrepreneurially orientated at work, while also exhibiting transformational and transactional leadership skills to enhance work performance. Ibrahim et al. (2012) conducted a study to determine if department heads in Malaysian colleges use of multi-dimensional leadership skills impacts the commitment of their lecturers, as well as, their

perceived effectiveness by their lecturers. The results showed that department chairs in

Malaysia did in fact practice multi-dimensional leadership. They primarily utilized the

human resource framework, in which department chairs focused their attention on human

needs with the assumption that organizations that meet the basic needs of their employees

will be more efficient and productive. Department chairs using this framework also

tended to be supportive and valued their relationships with their colleagues. Additionally,

there was a significant relationship between the human resource framework, cultural

framework, and lecturer commitment. Lecturers' perception of the effectiveness of their

department head also mediated the relationship between the department head's multi-

dimensional leadership and the commitment of the lecturers (Ibrahim et al., 2012).

Similarly, a study conducted by May-Washington (2014) sought to identify the self-

perceived roles and characteristics of department chairs of English departments.

Moreover, this study examined the extent to which English department chairs use the

knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSA) that they felt were important to be an effective

leader. The results showed that there were differences between how department chairs

with a democratic leadership style versus those with a transformational leadership style

used their knowledge, skills, and abilities to lead their departments. Furthermore, there

were no significant differences in the leadership responsibilities of English department

chairs based on gender, school size, or school type. The findings did show that there was

a significant difference in observed and expected frequency that department chairs had to

engage in conflict resolution activities within their department. Department chairs who

worked in the public sector had to facilitate conflict resolution less than they expected,

while department chairs in the private sector had to facilitate conflict resolution more than expected. Finally, English department chairs were found to employ a democratic leadership style and tended to engage in more collaborative practices to meet the requirements of their position (May-Washington, 2014).

The department chair positions in community college institutions are often times viewed as being vital to the overall success of the institution. Craig (2005) examined the effectiveness the department chair position within community colleges. These professionals often times serve as mediators and facilitators as they work to bridge the gap between the faculty and students and upper-level administration. Furthermore, department chairs are often tasked with defusing tensions or conflicts that may arise within their specific department amongst students or faculty. There are various traits deemed as necessary for a department chair to be effective in their role. These characteristics include: fostering good teaching, maintaining faculty morale, effectively recruiting and selecting faculty, having good communication with upper level management, and updating curriculum and program based on student needs. Additionally, department chair should have good interpersonal skills, have the ability to identify and resolve problems in a timely and efficient manner, be able adaptable to various leadership styles, and set goals and work toward achieving such goals. Overall, department chairs must have a professional demeanor that guides their daily communication and collaboration with the faculty, students, and institution in which they serve (Craig, 2005). Sirkis (2011) conducted a comparable study that assessed the development of leadership skills in department chairs that worked at community colleges.

This study recognized that the role of the department chair is not always clearly defined, and as a result the job can at times be viewed more as a burden than an honor. Furthermore, the department chair position is often times filled internally by faculty members. The faculty members often times selected for the department chair position by default without having actual management or leadership skills. Thus, it is imperative for the success of an academic department that these professional receive the necessary training and development to efficiently handle the managerial tasks, along with the leadership responsibilities of positively influencing the culture and quality of the department. Additionally, department chairs must learn how to resolve both faculty and student issues (Sirkis, 2011). Albashiry, Voogt, and Pieters (2015) assessed the effects of professional development for middle managers at technical vocational community colleges in relation to enhancing the quality of their educational programs by improving the development of curriculum. Their study revealed that while middle managers gained substantial knowledge regarding the development of curriculum that they their post-PDA curriculum development improvement initiatives were minimum due to the lack of support from senior level management, unfavorable work conditions, and the high rate of middle manager attrition (Albashiry, Voogt, & Pieters, 2015).

A phenomenological research study was conducted by McManus (2013) that aimed at investigating the experiences of community college deans in California who had made the transition from faculty member to an academic deanship role. The study revealed that the leadership expectations of the participants were not parallel with the leadership training opportunities available. Additionally, much of the training and

leadership development provided for the academic dean position was informal. However, mentoring was found to be significantly important, along with one's motivation to be successful in the role (McManus, 2013). A qualitative study conducted by Riley and Russell (2013) explored the perceived duties and tasks of department chairs, as well as, the perceived importance of the duties and functions of department chairs. Also, this study sought to identify areas in which department chairs felt training would be beneficial to their success in their current role. Being an effective leader was identified as being the most important quality of an effective manager. While the evaluation of faculty performance and developing procedures to recognize faculty accomplishments and progress toward tenure and promotions were perceived as being the most important duty of a department chair. In terms of the development of department chairs, the findings suggested that more professional development is needed for those faculty members who transition to the role of department chair. Specifically, such development should focus on effectively hiring, mentoring, and evaluating faculty members (Riley & Russell, 2013).

Gabbe, et al. (2008) assessed the impact of mentoring on burnout in new department chairs within the obstetrics and gynecology department. Financial issues related to budget deficiencies were identified as being one of the primary stressors for department chairs. However, despite the stresses associated with the position a majority of the department chairs expressed satisfaction with their job. In terms of managing work-related stress, the participants indicated that they managed their stress by spending time with family and friends, reading, watching television or movies, exercising and participating is sport activities, traveling and taking vacations, spending time on a hobby,

and engaging in prayer or reflection. Additionally, mentoring on human resources, finances, and building relationships with school leaders were identified as being areas in great need of mentoring for new department chairs. Participants suggested that establishing relationships with mentors were difficult, but that local mentors were more effective than long-distance mentors. In terms of the effect of mentoring on reducing burnout in new department chairs there was no significant evidence to support that mentoring reduced or prevented burnout. Furthermore, mentoring was not perceived as a necessity by new department chairs (Gabbe et al, 2008).

Wolverton, M., Gmelch, Wolverton, M.L., and Sarros (1999) conducted a cross-cultural study that examined the categorization of the roles and influences of the department chair position in U.S. and Australian universities. Overall, the findings indicated that department chairs in the U.S. and Australia view, categorize, and understand their roles and responsibilities similarly, in terms of administrative tasks, resource management, leadership, personal scholarship, faculty development, and generating external resources. However, there were some subtle differences in how department chairs in the U.S. categorized certain short-term and long-term tasks, such as ongoing versus occasional duties, and managing their personal scholarship. Australian department chairs were found to better able to balance their administrative and scholarly duties than U.S. department chairs. While U.S. department chairs were better able to delegate leadership activities from simply a managerial tasks to one that involved the entire department and promoted stimulation and productivity amongst the department. And lastly, the populations that U.S. and Australian department chairs served comparable

diverse populations. Institutions within these two countries also faced similar public funding instability and high demands for quality assurance and fiscal accountability (Wolverton, et al., 1999).

McPhillips, Stanton, Zuckerman, and Statleton (2007) examined the relationship between satisfaction and burnout amongst pediatric department chairs. Overall, the majority of the department chairs reported being highly satisfied with their job and position. Areas of dissatisfaction noted by the department chairs included fundraising, academic writing, and balancing work and family. Department chairs with less than five years of experience reported experiencing burnout more frequently than department chairs with more than five years of experience. Factors that were found to influence the likelihood of one experiencing burnout were years of experience, working more than one night per week, high workloads, and a lack of a supportive work environment. Department chairs who met the criteria for burnout were found to be significantly less likely to report being satisfied with their role as a department chair. These same participants were also less satisfied with their work and personal life balance, and were more likely to report that they would step down from their position as a department chair. Additionally, chairs who met the criteria for burnout were more likely to report experiencing sleep issues and were also less likely to have established relationships with close friends outside of their work environment. Lastly, department chairs who found certain aspects of their job stressful (i.e. recruiting faculty, meeting the expectations of the dean and hospital administration, and balancing family commitments with work

commitments) were more likely to be actively experiencing burnout (McPhillips, Stanton, Zuckerman, & Stapleton, 2007).

Because working with faculty is one of the primary responsibilities of department chairs, relationships between department chairs and their faculty can have an impact on the stress and job satisfaction of a department chair. Czech and Forward (2010) assessed faculty perceptions of their department chair. The findings revealed that department chairs who used more supportive forms of communication were viewed as being more effective leaders, as well as, having higher levels of faculty-chair relationship satisfaction. Additionally, department chairs who exhibited more supportive forms of communication were also more likely to have a more transformational leadership style, where they emphasized goals and values that progress their faculty and themselves to higher levels of motivation and morality.

A more discipline specific study was conducted on academic medicine department chairs at a Canadian University by Lieff et al. (2013). This study explored the needs of the department chairs within the medicine discipline in an effort to gain insight on how to best support these professionals. The results of this study suggested that many of these professionals are insufficiently prepared for the demands associated with being a department chair within this academic discipline. A similar study conducted by Mintz-Binder and Sanders (2012) explored the overall well-being of academic program directors of nursing programs in the United States. Specifically, this study examined the work demands of nursing program directors in relation to a variety of factors that

contribute to job satisfaction. The results revealed that high levels of quantitative and

emotional work demands, associated with their leadership position, contributed to this

group of professionals reporting high levels of stress, burnout, sleep problems, and a

decrease in their overall physical health. Participants reported that the overwhelming time

demands associated with the program director position caused not only dissatisfaction

with their job, but also a high amount of work-related stress. Furthermore, the demanding

workload of program directors was also correlated to high burnout and a decrease in

one's physical well-being. Thus, resulting in only a few qualified faculty wanting to

transition to such an administrative position (Mintz-Binder & Sanders, 2012).

Wee, Weiss, Wichman, Sukotjo, and Brundo (2016) conducted a study that was

aimed at identifying characteristics that would make for a successful department

chairperson within restorative dentistry, general dentistry, prosthodontics, and operative

dentistry departments at U.S. dental schools. The findings indicated that the chairpersons

surveyed felt that leadership, vision, work ethic, integrity, communication, and

organization were the most essential characteristics of a successful chairperson.

Additionally, these respondents also felt that leadership characteristics, as a whole, were

significantly more important than management characteristics, in terms of being a

successful chairperson (Wee, Weiss, Wichman, Sukotjo, & Brundo, 2016). Reddy (2016)

suggested that department chairs should be a triple threat in terms of their performance.

This triple threat talent of a department chair should convey to the priorities, people, and

purpose of the department and institution. Moreover, the success of an academic

department is essentially based on the ability of the department chair to lead not only the

faculty and staff, but also nurture and develop them while providing idealistic direction that encourages them to meet the goals of the institution. Similar to previous studies, Reddy (2016) also suggested that the department chair's ability to lead is much more important and effective than their ability to manage. A department chair that is able to lead more than manage is thought to be able to better handle their workload and find their work more rewarding.

Stress among Criminology and Criminal Justice department chairs was explored by Gabbidon (2005), and found that those managing these specific departments within a university setting experienced similar stressors as those experienced by department chairs of other disciplines. Additionally, this study found that after serving as a department chair within the Criminology and Criminal Justice discipline that many sought to return to a faculty position in the future. Furthermore, many of the stressors experienced by these particular managers are similar to those experienced by department managers in all disciplines, including increased amount of time mentoring, hiring faculty, attending lengthy meetings, and completing administrative tasks (Gabbidon, 2005). Although, the previous study found that after serving as a department chair that many department chairs planned to return to faculty positions Smith, D., Rollins, and Smith, L. (2012) found that this transition is not always easy. The findings showed that the primary concern of department chairs that planned to return to faculty positions was being able to reconstruct research agendas with very little support from the institution.

For those department chairs that are able to successfully maintain their position as a department chair through the end of their professional career, retirement concerns may arise and serve as a stressor. Dodds, Cruz, and Israel (2013) explored the perceptions and ideas surrounding the preparation and planning of retirement amongst department chairs of ophthalmology academic departments. Their study revealed that most department chairs anticipated retiring around the age of 70. However, only 9% of the department chairs reported looking forward to retirement, while others considered retirement as a source of stress. Some of the noted stressors of retirement were being able to maintain current lifestyle, income and insurance benefits, and keeping active with the primary concern being able to finance their retirement. These same stressors also served as reasons why most of the participants considered delaying their retirement. Furthermore, approximately 40% of the participants felt that their decision to retire would be based on age or health, while only 20% anticipated that they would retire as a result of burnout or fatigue. This finding was interesting given the stress that is associated with department chair position (Dodds, Cruz, & Israel, 2013).

Career Colleges

For many years the student enrollment at career colleges, also often times referred to as for-profit colleges or proprietary colleges, consistently outnumbered the student enrollment growth at traditional public and private colleges and universities. Students enrolling in classes offered by career colleges typically pursue careers that only require certificate diplomas or associate degrees, which is especially true in the allied health field (Educational Marketer, 2009). Rose (2012) described non-traditional students as being

"second chance" students that who did not follow the traditional path of going straight from high school to a four-year college or university. These non-traditional students, according to Rose, are becoming the norm in the American higher education system. As a result, community colleges are becoming of more importance. However, despite the important role that community colleges play in the education of non-traditional students, these institutions struggle to balance fostering knowledge and teaching practical skills. To help bridge this gap, Rose suggested that liberal subjects be integrated with vocational instruction (Rose, 2012). This concept is similar to the foundation and teachings of career college institutions, which serve the same non-traditional students.

Deming, Goldin, and Katz (2013) explored the types of students who attend for-profit proprietary colleges, the reasons why these students choose to attend this type of institution, and the student outcomes of those who do choose to attend this type of college. They concluded that for-profit colleges tended to enroll a disproportionately higher number of disadvantaged and minority students, as well as, individuals who may not be academically strong enough to attend a more traditional type of higher educational institution. This was despite community colleges providing equal or better education at a lower cost than for-profit colleges. However, for-profit colleges tended to offer short well-defined programs that provided students with a clear pathway to a specific occupation. In terms of gainful employment, the outcomes of for-profit colleges are easier to regulate because their objectives are more clearly defined than the objectives of community colleges. Nevertheless, graduates of for-profits colleges who do not find gainful employment are more likely to encounter financial difficulty associated with the

cost of the education in comparison to those who attended community colleges. And finally, in terms of performance measure outcomes the completion rates, default rates, and labor market outcomes for those attending for-profit colleges were poorer in comparison to those who graduated from community colleges (Deming, Golden, & Katz, 2013). Chung (2012) investigated whether students who attend for-profit colleges self-select to go this type of institution, or whether they do so accidentally or for external reasons. The results showed that students self-selectively attend for-profit colleges. Students who attend these types of institutions are more likely to have lower parental involvement, in terms of the student's schooling. Furthermore, these students are more likely to have become parents while in high school and have high levels of absenteeism (Chung, 2012).

Hertzman and Maas (2012) conducted a study that evaluated the educational costs, job placement outcomes, and satisfaction of associate degree level chefs. This study noted that the cost of culinary arts program varies depending on the type of institution one chooses to attend. Tuition at private institutions, both nonprofit and for-profit, tend to cost anywhere from 7 to 10 times more than tuition at public colleges and universities. This brings about questions regarding the value of attending private colleges, especially when considering the rising tuition costs, reduced government funding, and the increasing amount of student debt and default student loans. The findings of their study indicated that, as expected, costs were much lower for those students who attended public community colleges and technical schools. Furthermore, the findings suggested that although students attending private for-profit colleges paid more

for their education that there was no significant difference in their first place of employment, nor in their first job title or first salary. Additionally, graduates of private for-profit schools were significantly less satisfied with the value of their education than those who attended public or private nonprofit institutions and reported lower current salaries in comparison to their counterparts (Hertzman & Maas, 2012). This is similar to a finding by Cellini and Golden (2012) who found that the tuition at for-profit colleges is about 78% higher than the tuition charged at comparable institutions.

Schilling (2013) argued that for-profit colleges are often times viewed by community college administrators and faculty as being imperfect institutions. The imperfections often referenced by those who work at community colleges included notions that for-profit colleges tend to rely too heavily on skill-based training instead of offering students a more well-rounded academic experience. Other areas of for-profit college that are often criticized include notions that these institutions prey and entice individuals from the lowest income bracket to take on large amounts of debt, while also relying on federal funding in order to achieve a profit. However, despite these criticisms, it was reported that community colleges may benefit from some of the models used by for-profit colleges that enhance the student learning experience. The model most effectively used by for-profit proprietary institutions is the customer service model. In this model, the employers and students of proprietary institutions are treated more like customers. For-profit colleges and universities work diligently to ensure that the needs of their students are being met, which makes attending such an institution more appealing to potential customers. Additionally, students attending this type of institution reported that

they were enticed by the more career-focused training, smaller class sizes, practical teaching methodology, and convenience and ease of starting and completing courses quickly. Furthermore, students enjoyed that all of the details surrounding their education (i.e. registration, financial aid, textbooks ordering, job placement) were facilitated by staff members. The author noted that the model of for-profit institutions have several strengths that could prove to be useful for community colleges. Some of the strengths mentioned included continuously updating the curriculum, streamlining the admissions process, and utilization of employer advisory boards. Additionally, community colleges were recommended to audit their programs annually, as well as, develop strategic partnerships and instill a sense of accountability amongst their student population (Schilling, 2013).

Career colleges have the ability to address the educational needs of those races and ethnicities that are often times underrepresented in traditional colleges and universities. Heitner and Sherman (2013) explored the role of career colleges in serving racial and ethnic minority students. The findings indicated more students from racial and ethnic minorities graduated from career colleges than from other more traditional colleges and universities. Career colleges were also found to be more effective in enrolling and retaining students, as well as, in graduating students of minority ethnicities and races than other colleges and universities. This type of success also becomes visible to others of the same ethnic and racial backgrounds, which in turn can encourage them to strive to achieve the same type of success. This study also revealed that career colleges in the West and Southwest enrolled the highest proportion of Hispanic and Latino students,

while career colleges in the Mid-Atlantic and South enrolled the highest number of African American students. The student population of career colleges were found to consist of majority female students and students under the age of 25. In terms of program enrollments, health-related programs tended to have the highest amount of enrollments, followed by business and management programs. Additionally, majority of student enrolled in career colleges attended school on a full-time basis. Overall, these findings suggest that career colleges are more effective in educating and graduating those from populations that are viewed as at-risk or low-income, including African American and Hispanic minorities (Heitner & Sherman, 2013).

Wood and Vasquez Urias (2012) contended that community colleges and proprietary schools are have similar missions and serve similar student populations, including minorities and those from low-income households. Proprietary schools were more likely to enroll fewer Caucasian students, while enrolling higher numbers of African American and Hispanic students in comparison to community colleges. Female students were significantly more likely to attend proprietary college than males. However, in terms of racial and ethnic demographics community colleges and proprietary colleges tended to serve approximately the same proportion of male students who were African American and Hispanic. Thus, this study sought to compare student satisfaction outcomes in minority males who attended community colleges versus those who attended proprietary colleges. Factors investigated included students' satisfaction with their major or course of study, the quality of the education they received, and cost-effectiveness of their education. The findings revealed that minority males who attended community

colleges reported significantly higher levels of satisfaction with their major or course of study, as well as, with the quality of their education and the cost-effectiveness of their education than those minority males who attended proprietary colleges (Wood & Vasquez Urias, 2012). Another study was conducted by Vasquez Urias and Wood (2014) that examined graduation rates amongst Black male students at higher educational associate-degree granting institutions. The findings of this study indicated that private for-profit colleges had the highest graduation rate of Black males in comparison to graduation rates amongst this same population in community colleges and public two-year colleges. Thus, revealing that while proprietary colleges were more likely to graduate higher amounts of minority males that these same students were also less likely to be satisfied with their educational experience at this type of institution.

Taube and Taube (1991) explored the academic achievement and dropout probabilities of students who attended proprietary technical colleges in the South. Their study revealed that entrance exams scores, gender, age, race, high school GPA, and performance expectations were all initial predictors of academic achievement. Whereas, marital status, work hours, prior academic achievement, absences, and enrichment from student-faculty interactions were all found to be predictors of dropout. Surprisingly, age, race, gender, and children had no significant or direct effect on dropout probability. Specific findings indicated that females, whites, and older students were more likely to have higher GPAs during their first quarter. Also, student GPA during their last two years of high school was found to be a good predictor of academic achievement in college. In terms of marital status, married students were less likely to drop out of school when

compared to single students. Students who worked longer hours outside of school were found to be less likely to drop out of college. And lastly, students with greater perception of enrichment and goal commitment were less likely to drop out of school (Taube, S. & Taube, P., 1991). Plumlee (2012) explored motivating factors for students attending proprietary institutions to achieve academic success. The findings showed that having positive student-faculty and peer relationships created a sense of belonging for students, and thus increased their institutional commitment. Also, obtaining tangible forms of recognition while in school was said to have a positive impact on student perseverance. Family support, as well as, having some sort of personal motivating factor, such as children increased the likelihood of program completion (Plumlee, 2012). Cellini and Chaudhary (2014) found that students who enrolled in associate degree programs at for-profit colleges were estimated to earn about 10% more than high school graduates with no college degree. However, this increase was conditional on the ability of the student to obtain employment. Recent studies have explored the value of postsecondary degrees from for-profit educational institutions in the labor market. Deming, Yuchtman, Abulafi, Golden, and Katz (2014) conducted a field experiment on employer perceptions of the value of postsecondary degrees. Their findings revealed that resumes with business bachelor degrees from for-profit colleges were 22% less likely to receive a call back from potential employers than resumes that listed bachelor degrees from public universities. In health-related jobs, for-profit credentials were also found to receive fewer callbacks, unless the job required an occupational certification or licensure.

Faculty and staff who work at career colleges are not exempt from political and public scrutiny, which can cause a great deal of stress and impact the daily functioning of the organization. Field (2011) found that faculty at a specific for-profit college felt pressured to falsify attendance records, raise grades, and inflate job placement numbers in order to remain employed. Chang and Tseng (2009) explored the work-related stress experienced by department heads of technical universities in Taiwanese. They noted that often times vocational and technical colleges and universities put a great deal of focus on student recruitment due to the competiveness of the educational field, as well as, the decreasing available population pool. Thus, to remain competitive these types of institutions must constantly strive to increase the quality of their faculty, research production, and administrative performance. The findings of their study revealed that often time department heads experience high levels of stress associated with their position. This stress was linked to a lack of work experience and frustration with their administrative responsibilities. Additionally, younger department heads reported having more stress than senior department heads. Often this struggle was associated with younger department heads not knowing how to effectively manage and balance their teaching responsibilities with their administrative responsibilities. The greatest source of stress identified by department heads involved internal conflict revolving around confidence in one's ability to successfully handle all aspects of their position (Chang & Tseng, 2009).

Summary and Conclusions

After reviewing the literature presented on stress and job satisfaction amongst Criminal Justice department heads, it is clear that there is little research on this particular population. Specifically, one of the primary researchers to study this particular group of professionals was Shaun L. Gabbidon, who explored the stress and job satisfaction of Criminal Justice department heads who worked in public universities (Gabbidon, 2005). Additionally, while there seems to be a recent increase in the research conducted on career colleges, this research is also minimal compared to the research conducted on the professionals working in more traditional public and private colleges and universities. The more recent research conducted on career colleges has focused more of the viability, success outcomes, costs, and student demographics of these institutions (Taube, S., & Taube, P., 1991; Wood & Vasquez Urias, 2012; Hertzman & Maas, 2012; Deming, Golden, & Katz, 2013; Heitner & Sherman, 2013). In terms of the stress and job satisfaction of the department heads that work at career colleges, only one study was located (Chang & Tseng, 2009). However, this particular was conducted outside of the United States and did not focus on program specific department heads. There is still no research available about stress and job satisfaction in relation to specific department heads that work within career colleges. More specifically, there is no research conducted on Criminal Justice department heads who work in career college institutions. Thus, this study will seek to address this gap in literature by providing information regarding the stress and job satisfaction experienced by this unique group of professionals in relation to their administrative position within this particular type of institution. By examining this

issue career colleges may be encouraged to re-evaluate their institutional practices and

possibly develop employee intervention programs aimed at helping their employees,

especially their managers, positively cope with stress in the work environment.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative research study was to examine whether there is a significant relationship between stress, job satisfaction, and being employed as a criminal justice department head within a career college institution and compare whether heads of other departments within career college institutions differ in terms of these relationships. The programs I compared included criminal justice, medical assisting, medical billing and coding, dental assisting, pharmacy technician, and massage therapy. Participants for this study were recruited from various career college institutions, all of which have multiple campus locations.

This chapter highlights the research design used in the study, as well as the rationale for why this particular design was chosen. Additionally, the complete methodology to be used in this study is discussed, including the targeted population, sampling procedures, recruitment procedures, and instrumentation and operationalization of constructs. Threats to the external and internal validity to the study are also presented in this chapter. This chapter concludes with a discussion of the ethical procedures used in the study and a summary of the key points.

Research Design and Rationale

The independent variables (IV) for this study were criminal justice department heads and other academic department heads who work at career college institutions. The dependent variables (DVs) were stress and job satisfaction. The covariates that were

assessed during the course of this study included age, gender, ethnicity, education level, years of prior work experience, and years of experience in current role.

I used a quantitative nonexperimental survey design approach (specifically, involving use of questionnaires) to examine stress and job satisfaction amongst criminal justice department heads employed at career college institutions. Using this research design allowed me to examine the potential relationships between stress and job satisfaction as it relates to the specific population of criminal justice department heads. This design was most appropriate given that the purpose of the study was to examine if there is a significant relationship between the variables of stress, job satisfaction, and holding a department head position within the criminal justice department at a career college institution compared to heads of other types of career college departments. The use of various other experimental strategies would not have been appropriate or beneficial for this study, because there was no treatment or intervention implemented.

The survey method is a quantitative strategy that consists of collecting data using either questionnaire or interview tactics (Trochim, 2006). Researchers choosing to use questionnaires as their primary source of data collection can choose between more traditional means of sending out mail questionnaires, conducting group administered questionnaires, or fielding household drop-off surveys (Trochim, 2006). There are many advantages to administering questionnaires, including that these methods tend to be more cost and time effective in comparison to other data collection methods such as interviews or experiments (Trochim, 2006). Additionally, use of questionnaires helps to reduce researcher bias because the process is more impersonal as the researcher does not

necessarily have to have direct contact with the participants and all participants are administered the same questionnaire instrument (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2015). There are also disadvantages that researchers must consider when deciding to use survey methods. Some of the disadvantages of using questionnaires include the potentially low response rate and lack of probability of obtaining detailed written information (Trochim, 2006). These disadvantages can make it challenging to obtain a sufficient number of survey responses within the amount of time allotted to collect this data, as well as.

In an effort to minimize some of the potential negatives of using the questionnaire strategy, I administered the questionnaire for this study via the Internet using SurveyMonkey. SurveyMonkey is a secured online survey programing site that allows researchers to create surveys, select a targeted audience, confidentially email out the link to the survey, and then quickly gather respondent information that can then be analyzed in statistical programs, such as SPSS (SurveyMonkey, 2014). I choose this method because it allows me to maintain the anonymity of the participants; to offer the participants a quick, easy, convenient, and confidential method of submitting responses, and to quickly input and analyze data results within statistical databases. Additionally, in a generation of elevated Internet, media, and electronic device use (see Lenhart, Purcell, Smith, & Zickuhr, 2010), this electronic survey method is likely to be the most feasible way of reaching a sizable number of potential participants, potentially increasing the response rate while being both cost and time effective for the researcher (Ahern, 2005).

Mrayyan (2009) conducted a similar comparison study regarding stress differences in medical professionals, specifically nurses, working in the intensive care unit (ICU) versus those professionals working in medical wards in the country of Jordan. Mrayyan chose a quantitative research design utilizing the survey method and was, thus, able to compare the stressors and social supports reported by the participant nurses. Mrayyan's study demonstrated that although two professionals may have the same job title within the same profession that the stress experienced by both professionals may be different depending on their responsibilities and work environment. Mrayyan found that nurses who worked in the ICU reported higher levels of stress than those nurses who worked within the hospital ward. Furthermore, the nurses who worked in the ICU expressed needing more social supports than nurses who worked in the hospital ward. Because of her design choice, Mrayyan was able to easily account for and compare gender, environmental, and responsibility differences between the two groups without implementing any treatment condition. Although Mrayyan's study focused on professionals in the medical field, the focus of Mrayyan's study is similar to that of my research, in regards to examining departmental differences in stress and job satisfaction within the academic field.

Methodology

Population

The target population surveyed includes criminal justice department heads from various career colleges across the United States. Additionally, department heads from other departments (medical assisting, medical billing and coding, dental assisting,

pharmacy technician, and massage therapy) were also be surveyed as comparison groups. Potential participants were selected utilizing a closed population sample. This sampling strategy is beneficial when the researcher seeks to target a specific population within an organization (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2015). Use of this sampling strategy seemed appropriate for this study, as the targeted population of participants work within various career college institutions. Focusing on this specific group of participants allows for the researcher to feasibly identify e-mail contact information that can then be used to send out links to the survey and request participant participation (Schonlau, Fricker, & Elliot, 2002). The estimated anticipated target population size was a total of 216 participants with approximately 36 representatives from each of the surveyed departments.

Sampling and Sampling Procedures

I sought to determine if there is a relationship between stress, job satisfaction, and holding a department head position within the criminal justice department at a career college compared to heads of other types of career college departments. To determine the appropriate sampling design and size, it was important to have an understanding of the population being examined. There were over 2,400 career colleges in the United States as of 2012 (U.S. Department of Education, 2014). These colleges typically offer a variety of diploma certifications and degree programs. One of the many programs often offered at these types of institutions is a criminal justice program. These programs are often managed by those who have had direct experience in the field and who seek to provide their expertise to a group of eager learners desiring to enter into this particular workforce.

The sampling strategy chosen for this study was a nonprobability convenience sample. Use of a convenience sampling design allows the researcher to select a sample from a pool of conveniently available and willing participants. This sampling strategy was selected because criminal justice and other education department at local career colleges often have only one or two managers. Thus, the chosen population is significantly smaller than other studied populations, making use of other sampling strategies ineffective or difficult to employ. While use of a convenience sampling strategy is convenient, it also has its limitations, which include the fact that this sampling strategy is unable to truly estimate how representative the sample is of the larger population (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2015).

In terms of inclusion criteria, participants must be currently employed as a department head at a career college within one of the following departments: criminal justice, medical assisting, medical billing and coding, dental assisting, pharmacy technician, or massage therapy. Individuals who do not have Internet access to complete the administered survey will be excluded from the study. A G*power analysis was run to determine the appropriate sample size. Based on the discriminant analysis test, the G*Power analysis calculated an appropriate sample size of 216 with an alpha level of .05, .80 power, and a medium expected effect size of .3 (Faul, 2012).

Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection

The participant recruitment process began by using the convenience sampling strategy, where the researcher researched the currently employed department heads, from

the chosen departments (criminal justice, medical assisting, medical billing and coding, dental assisting, pharmacy technician, and massage therapy), at various career college institutions and obtained their current email address. Participants for this study were recruited from a total of 14 career college institutions, all of which had multiple campus locations and offered the same educational programs being examined. Every located department chair was then sent an email, which contained a hyperlink to complete a confidential survey to be administered using SurveyMonkey. The invitation email also contained a formal description of the survey. Upon completion of the survey, participants received a thank notification that included information for obtaining professional assistance for stress in their area (see Appendix A). Results were returned directly to this researcher via notification from the SurveyMonkey site and then analyzed using the SPSS program. Demographic information, including ethnicity, gender, and age range were asked at the beginning of the survey to identify any potential trends amongst these demographics. Additionally, participants were provided an informed consent acknowledgement on the welcome screen of the survey site, prior to beginning the survey. Upon completion of the survey, participants received notification on the SurveyMonkey site of their completion of the survey, as well as received debriefing information. The debriefing message thanked the participants for their participation in the study, explained the purpose of the study, and contact information for the researcher, IRB, and national counseling resources should the participants had have any follow-up questions or concerns (see Appendix A).

Instrumentation and Operationalization of Constructs

Two instruments were used to collect the data necessary to examine stress and job

satisfaction levels amongst the participants of the study. The first instrument used during

the course of this study was the Administrative Stress Index (ASI). The ASI was

developed by Tung (1980a) and used to assess work-related stress amongst school

administrators. This survey instrument was found to be most appropriate given that the

nature of this study also involves assessing stress levels in school administrators. This

survey instrument is available to be used without obtaining permission from the

developer, as long as it is being used for non-commercial research and educational

purposes (see Appendix B). Thus, no permission for use was requested. This survey

instrument was initially used by Tung (1980b) to compare the occupational stress profiles

of male and female administrators. The purpose of the Tung study was to determine if

females and males were equally good candidates for administrative positions that were

often associated with high levels of job-related stress. The findings of the study indicated

that females experienced lower levels of self-perceived occupational stress when

compared to their male counterparts.

Gmelch, in particular, is a noted researcher of job stress amongst college

administrators, and more specifically criminal justice educators and administrators in

college settings (Gmelch & Burns, 1994). Koch, Tung, Gmelch, and Sweat (1982)

examined job stress in school administrators using the ASI. Their study sought to

investigate the relationship between various personal characteristics and perceived stress

associated with one's work. Four factors were examined, including role-based stress,

conflict-mediating stress, task-based stress, and boundary-spanning stress. The findings

indicated that each of the four factors examined had differential effects on participants,

depending on the participants' age, years of administrative experience, and position

within the organization.

For this research study, the variable of stress will be assessed based on the 25-

item Administrative Stress Index (see Appendix C). Furthermore, this scale will measure

stress using four subscales: role-based stress, task-based stress, boundary-spanning stress,

and conflict-mediating stress. The response scale for these questions will based measured

on a 5-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (*rarely or never bothers me*) to (3)

occasionally bothers me to (5) *frequently bothers me*. There are no items on this scale

that require reverse scoring. Items 1-7 will assess role-based stress, items 8-17 will

measure task-based stress, items 18-20 will assess conflict mediating stress, and items 21-

25 will measure boundary-spanning stress. Each variable is scored using a mean

composite. Thus, the possible mean composite score for each variable is 1 to 5. Low

scores indicate that a particular task is not or is rarely bothersome to the participant, while

high scores indicate that a task was considered to be frequently bothersome. The

Cronbach's alpha for each of the dimensions were found to have .70 or higher reliability

(Tung, 1980a).

The second instrument to be used to collect data for this research is the Job

Satisfaction Survey (JSS). The JSS was developed by Paul Spector (1985) and used to

assess nine dimensions of job satisfaction as it relates to one's overall satisfaction. This

particular scale is well established in assessing job satisfaction, which is appropriate for

this study given that this research also seeks to examine job satisfaction levels of

department heads in career college institutions. This scale is copyrighted, but is also

available for use as long as it is used for non-commercial or educational purposes in

return that the results are shared with the developer. A written request to use the scale

will be submitted to Paul Spector via his email address at pspector@usf.edu. The

reliability and validity of this scale has been tested repeatedly, and the findings have

indicated that the nine sub-scales relate moderately to well between each other with an

internal consistency average of .70 (Spector, 1994). This particular instrument has been

used in a variety of studies aimed at assessing job satisfaction in a variety of occupational

settings. Spector (1985) initially used this scale to examine job satisfaction amongst

employees working in the human service, public, and nonprofit organizations. However,

since then this scale has continued to be used as an assessment tool for various

occupations (Cheng, 2000).

The variable of job satisfaction will be examined using the 36-item Job

Satisfaction Survey (see Appendix D). This scale will measure stress using nine

subscales: pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating

procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication. The response scale for these

questions will based measured on a 6-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly*

disagree) to (6) *strongly agree.* There are 19 items on this scale that require reverse

scoring. Items 1, 10, 19, and 28 will assess pay; items 2, 11, 20, and 33 will measure job

satisfaction as it relates to promotion; items 3, 12, 21, and 30 will assess supervision;

items 4, 13, 22, and 29 will measure fringe benefits; items 5, 14, 23, and 32 will consider

contingent rewards; items 6, 15, 24, and 31 will assess operating procedures; items 7, 16,

25, and 34 will evaluate job satisfaction as it relates to one's coworkers; items 8, 17, 27,

and 35 will examine one's nature of work; and items 9, 18, 26, and 36 will assess

communication. Each variable is scored using a sum composite. Thus, the possible sum

composite score for each variable can range from 1 to 6 and each subscale can have a

score ranging from 4 to 24, while the sum of all 36 items can range from 36 to 216. High

scores indicate job satisfaction, while lower scores indicate job dissatisfaction. The

Cronbach's alpha for the entire scale was found to have a reliability of .91 (Spector,

1994).

Several categorical variables will also be assessed during the course of this study,

including sex, ethnicity, and education level. Sex will be measured as two levels 0 (*male)*

or 1 (*female*). Ethnicity will be a collapsed measurement with two analysis levels 0

(*majority)* or 1 (*minority)* with all measured levels other than Caucasian being collapsed

into the minority analysis level. Education level will be measured at five levels: 0 (*No*

Post-Secondary Degree), 1 (*Associate's Degree*), 2 (*Bachelor's Degree*), 3 (*Master's*

Degree), or 4 (*Doctoral Degree*). Additionally, participants will be asked to report their

current age, years of prior work experience, and years of experience in their current role.

Threats to Validity

Threats to both external and internal validity of the research were considered.

Potential external and internal threats to validity include the selection of the participants.

Since participants for the study are being selected based on specific criteria (i.e., being a criminal justice, medical assisting, medical billing and coding, dental assisting, pharmacy technician, or massage therapy department head) the very nature of their personal characteristics and history may make them more likely to be predisposed to stress or stressful environmental exposure. Additionally, because different institutions may operate under different rules and regulations that impact the responsibilities of the department head, the amount of work-related stress experienced by department heads across different institutions may not be consistent. Thus, generalizations regarding the findings cannot be concluded outside of different institutions.

Research Questions, Hypotheses, and Analysis Plan

This study will examine the potential relationship between stress and job satisfaction, as it applies to working as a criminal justice department head within a career college institution and compare these relationships to the stress and job satisfaction amongst those working as department heads in other departments (criminal justice, medical assisting, medical billing and coding, dental assisting, pharmacy technician, and massage therapy) within career college institutions. The department head positions to be explored during the course of this study include those professionals who work as program deans, department chairs, or lead instructors within career colleges. The research questions addressed during this study were

RQ1: Is there a significant difference between any of the four stress subscales or the overall score and holding a criminal justice department head position as compared to other departments at a career college institution?

The five null hypotheses related to RQ1 were

Null 1a: Department heads will not differ on overall stress score.

Null 1b: Department heads will not differ on role-based stress subscale score.

Null 1c: Department heads will not differ on task-based stress subscale score.

Null 1d: Department heads will not differ on boundary-spanning stress subscale score.

Null 1e: Department heads will not differ on conflict-mediating stress subscale score.

Each null hypothesis was tested using a oneway ANOVA. Posthoc tests of pairwise differences were conducted as warranted.

RQ2: Is there a significant difference between any of the nine job satisfaction subscales or the overall score and holding a criminal justice department head position as compared to other departments at a career college institution?

The 10 null hypothesis related to RQ2 were

Null 2a: Department heads will not differ on overall job satisfaction score.

Null 2b: Department heads will not differ on pay satisfaction subscale score.

Null 2c: Department heads will not differ on promotion satisfaction subscale score.

Null 2d: Department heads will not differ on supervision satisfaction subscale score.

Null 2e: Department heads will not differ on fringe benefit satisfaction subscale score.

Null 2f: Department heads will not differ on contingent reward satisfaction score.

Null 2g: Department heads will not differ on coworker satisfaction subscale score.

Null 2h: Department heads will not differ on nature of work satisfaction subscale score.

Null 2i: Department heads will not differ on communication satisfaction subscale score.

Null 2j: Department heads will not differ on operating procedures satisfaction subscale score.

Each null hypothesis was using an oneway ANOVA. Posthoc tests of pairwise differences were conducted as warranted.

RQ3: What multivariate profiles distinguish department heads across the four stress subscales, nine job satisfaction subscales, and any significant demographics?

I screened demographic covariates for statistically significant differences across department heads. I performed ANOVAs to test for differences in age, education level, years of experience, and years in current role. Chi squares were computed to test independence for sex and ethnicity. Any significant variable was included along with the four stress subscale scores and nine job satisfaction subscale scores in a discriminant analysis.

Nature of the Study: Quantitative

The nature of this study will be quantitative using a non-experimental design approach. This method is the most appropriate given that the purpose of the study is to explore potential differences between stress and job satisfaction, as it relates to holding

department head positions within the academic discipline of criminal justice. These academic management positions are often times extremely demanding and are subject to a high amount public and political scrutiny (Zagier, 2011). Moreover, because there is no treatment or intervention being implemented during the course of the study the various experimental strategies would not be appropriate or beneficial (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). The survey method is a quantitative strategy that consists of collecting data using either questionnaire or interview tactics. Researchers choosing to use questionnaires as their primary source of data collection can choose between more traditional means of sending out mail questionnaires, conducting group administered questionnaires, or household drop-off surveys. There are many advantages to administering questionnaires, including that these methods tend to be more cost and time effective in comparison to other data collection methods, such interviews or experimental designs (Trochim, 2006). Additionally, questionnaires reduce researcher bias because the process is more impersonal since the researcher has no direct contact with the participants and all participants are administered the exact same questionnaire instrument (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2015).

The variable of stress will be measured using the Administrative Stress Index (ASI). Additionally, the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), which was initially developed in 1985 by Paul E. Spector, will be used to supplement the ASI to determine if such stress impacts one's job satisfaction. Stress, as defined within the context of this study, is defined as specific and nonspecific responses to a stimulus or event that impact an individual's ability to cope in a positive manner (Gerrig & Zimbardo, 2013). This type of

methodology is consistent with pinpointing the potential effects of the stress and job satisfaction that comes with holding a department head position within a career college, whether it be within the criminal justice department or other program departments, such dental assisting, medical assisting, medical billing and coding, pharmacy technician, or massage therapy, which is the primary concentration of this dissertation. Results will be analyzed using a discriminant analysis in SPSS.

Discriminant analysis tests are often used to discover any profile or variable differences between two or more naturally occurring groups. This type of analysis allows the researcher to learn which variables are the best predictors of a certain behavior, as well as, predict group membership based on the presence of certain variables (Stockburger, 2016). In this study, the discriminant analysis test will be used to assess for differences in the types of tasks or activities that contribute to the level of stress and job satisfaction reportedly experienced by criminal justice department heads that work in the career college sector and compare those findings to department chairs in other academic disciplines within the career college sector. This analysis will first differentiate any statistically significant differences amongst the department head groups on different stress subscales (role-based stress, task-based stress, boundary-spanning stress, and conflict-mediating stress). A discriminant analysis will then be conducted amongst the same department head groups on different job satisfaction subscales (pay satisfaction, promotion satisfaction, supervision satisfaction, fringe benefit satisfaction, contingent reward satisfaction, coworker satisfaction, nature of work satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and operating procedures satisfaction). And lastly, multivariate profiles will

be analyzed using discriminant analysis to determine any demographic differences amongst the department head groups. By reviewing the data set using a discriminant analysis, it will allow for a better understanding of which group of department chairs are more likely to experience high amounts of stress and low amounts of job satisfaction based on departmental disciplines and work-related experiences.

Ethical Procedures

Several measures will be taken to ensure that participant rights are not violated in any manner. All participants will receive notification of informed consent policy and procedure, including information outlining the research process (see Appendix G). Additionally, participants will be provided an opportunity to ask the researcher questions regarding the specific of the study, if they so desire. The participants will be advised that they have the right to withdraw from the research with no penalty, and that their participation is completely voluntary. Completed surveys will be anonymous and results will be presented in aggregate. Furthermore, completed surveys will be stored in secure area, so that data cannot be reviewed by anyone other than the researcher. IRB permissions, as well as, any institutional permissions will be requested, prior to the issuance of the survey or collection of the data.

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Summary

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The presented design and methodology will allow information regarding the occupational stress and job satisfaction of criminal justice department heads to be efficiently assessed and then compared to the occupational stress and job satisfaction

experienced by their colleagues in other departments within the same institutions. By

utilizing the survey method, it will allow for this researcher to gather the desired

information in an unobtrusive and convenient manner for the participants. Additionally,

this methodology significantly reduces or eliminates many of the external and internal

threats to validity that are present when using other research designs and methods.

Furthermore, ethical considerations were heavily considered and ensuring that the

participants' rights are protected during the entire research process has been addressed.

The following chapter will implement the design and methodology discussed above. The

data collection process will be further outlined, along with the statistical results.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

In this chapter, I present and interpret the findings of the study. I examined if there was a significant relationship between stress, job satisfaction, and being employed as a criminal justice department head within a career college institution. Additionally, the relationship between stress and job satisfaction were further compared with those who served as department heads and instructors in other academic departments within the same career college institutions to determine if any departmental differences existed between the two academic groups in relation to stress and job satisfaction. The programs examined in this study included criminal justice, medical assisting, medical billing and coding, dental assisting, pharmacy technician, and massage therapy. The three research questions addressed during the course of this study were

RQ1: Was there a significant difference between any of the four stress subscales of the Administrative Stress Index (ASI) or the overall score and holding a criminal justice department head or instructor position as compared to other departments at a career college institution?

RQ2: Was there a significant difference between any of the nine job satisfaction subscales of the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) or the overall score and holding a criminal justice department head or instructor position as compared to other departments at a career college institution?

RQ3: Were there any multivariate profiles that distinguished the department heads and instructors across the four stress subscales of the ASI, the nine job satisfaction

subscales of the JSS, or any significant demographic differences, as tested using a

discriminant analysis?

This chapter also includes the time frame of the data collection process, the recruitment

and response rates, and information on whether the data collection process differed from

that which was originally planned. Descriptive statistics are provides, along with an

overview of how the statistical analysis findings related to the research questions and

hypotheses.

Data Collection

Over a 12-week recruitment period, surveys was sent directly to 79 department

heads, as well as to 18 academic deans, for distribution to additional potential participants

within their institutions who met the criteria being examined in this study. A total of 40

responses was received from the initial distribution of the survey. Of the surveys

received, four were determined to be unusable due to substantially missing data. Of the

remaining 36 survey responses, eight were identified as department heads within the

criminal justice academic discipline while the remaining 28 survey responses were

identified as being department heads from the comparison academic disciplines being

examined. Due to the low response rate and small population size, it was decided that the

target population would be expanded to include instructors who worked at career college

institutions, and that the five comparison groups would be collapsed into one comparison

group representing all other academic departments. This requested change was submitted

for review to Walden University's Institutional Review Board (IRB), which subsequently

approved this change in targeted population.

Expanding the target population in this manner still satisfied the focus of the study, as career college instructors have been reported to face similar concerns and challenges as their supervisors, which may impact their stress and job satisfaction levels. These professionals have been held accountable not only for being successful within their classroom setting, but also for the success of the program and institution within which they taught (Barkhuizen & Rothmann, 2008; Gillespie et al., 2001; Maji & Ali, 2013). The instructors who were targeted to participate in the study were required to meet the same criteria as the original targeted population (career college department heads), in that they must have held an instructor position at a career college institution. As a result of the expansion in the study's target population, an additional 204 surveys were sent to faculty members in the academic disciplines being studied over the course of a 5-week time period. A total of 37 additional responses to the survey were received. Out of these 37, one response was eliminated from the data due to substantially missing data. Thus, a total of 77 individuals completed the survey, of which five of the surveys were eliminated from further analysis due to substantially missing data, leaving a final valid sample size of 72.

Demographics of Participants

Of the 72 participants in the study, 21 identified as being department heads or instructors in a criminal justice department (29.2%) while the remaining 51 participants were identified as being department heads or instructors from other academic departments within career college institutions (70.8%). Additionally, there were 26 male participants (36.1%) and 46 female participants (63.9%). Thirty-nine participants

identified their ethnicity as being in the majority (54.2%), which represented individuals

who identified themselves as being Caucasian. While the remaining 33 participants

classified their ethnicity as being in the minority (45.8%), which consisted of any

ethnicity other than Caucasian. In terms of education level, one of the 72 participants held

no postsecondary degree (1.4%), 13 participants held an associate's degree (18.1%), 20

participants held a bachelor's degree (27.8%), 26 participants held a master's degree

(36.1%), and 12 held a doctoral degree (16.7%). The mean age of the participants was

46.47 while the average years of prior work experience was 18.79 years. The average

years of experience in participants' current role as a department head or instructor was

5.96 years. However, years of experience in the current role were not normally

distributed with a substantially positive skew. As a result, a log 10 transformation was

conducted and used for further analyses, as this analysis created a more normal

distribution. Descriptive statistics of participant demographics are presented in Table 1

and Table 2.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics of Participant Demographics: Department, Sex, Ethnicity, and Education Level

Demographic variables	Frequency	Percent
Department		
Other department	51	70.8
CJ department	21	29.2
Sex		
Male	26	36.1
Female	46	63.9
Ethnicity		
Majority	39	54.2
Minority	33	45.8
Education level		

No post-secondary degree	1	1.4
Associates degree	13	18.1
Bachelors degree	20	27.8
Masters degree	26	36.1
Doctorate degree	12	16.7

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics of Participant Demographics: Age and Work Experience

Demographic variable	*M*	Min.	Max.
Age	46.47	27	74
Years of prior in-field work experience	18.79	0	45
Years of experience in current role	5.96	0	40

Data Analysis

Reliability tests was conducted on the overall stress composite and each of the

four subscale composites of the ASI, as well as on the overall job satisfaction composite

and each of the nine subscale composites of the JSS to determine the internal consistency

across both of these scales. On the stress scale, there were 69 responses with no missing

data, two responses that had missing data on one item, and one response that had missing

data on six items. On the job satisfaction scale, there were 66 responses with no missing

data, four responses that had missing data on one item, one response that had missing

data on three items, and one response that had missing data on four items. For the

responses that had missing data on an item, the subscale mean was substituted for the

missing information. An analysis of the descriptive statistics for all scales is provided in

Table 3.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics for the Stress Composite and Subscale Composites of the Administrative Stress Index and for the Job Satisfaction Composite and Subscale Composite of the Job Satisfaction Survey

Scale	*M*	*SD*	Median	Min.	Max.	# items	Cronbach's α
Stress							
Overall	2.13	0.56	2.14	1.00	3.20	25	.89
Role-based	2.63	0.85	2.57	1.00	5.00	7	.84
Task-based	2.09	0.70	2.10	1.00	3.70	10	.84
Boundary-spanning	1.54	0.53	1.40	1.00	3.20	5	.63
Conflict-mediating	2.05	0.80	2.00	1.00	4.00	3	.65
Satisfaction							
Overall	3.91	0.74	3.81	2.22	5.58	36	.93
Pay	2.81	1.13	2.63	1.00	5.75	4	.74
Promotion	2.88	1.19	2.63	1.00	6.00	4	.84
Supervision	5.09	1.16	5.50	1.00	6.00	4	.90
Fringe benefits	3.07	1.19	3.00	1.00	6.00	4	.77
Contingent rewards	3.63	1.20	3.50	1.00	6.00	4	.81
Operating procedure	3.69	1.13	3.67	1.00	6.00	3	.70
Coworker	5.00	0.81	5.00	2.50	6.00	4	.64
Nature of work	5.30	0.71	5.50	3.25	6.00	4	.69
Communication	3.83	1.30	3.75	1.00	6.00	4	.84

Stress Scales from the Administrative Stress Index

The overall stress composite scale from the ASI consisted of 25 items. This composite scale had a Cronbach's alpha of .89 (α = .89), which indicated that the scale reliability reached conventional standards. The inter-item correlations were evaluated and showed that the reliability of the scale would not have been substantially improved if an item were deleted. The role-based stress subscale composite of the ASI consisted of seven items, and had a Cronbach's alpha of .84, which also indicated that the scale reliability achieved conventional standards of acceptance. The inter-item correlation analysis further showed that the alpha coefficient would not have been substantially improved if an item were deleted. Additionally, the task-based stress subscale composite of the ASI, which consisted of 10 items, was examined and showed Cronbach's alpha of

.84, which too signified that the scale's reliability meet the conventional standards of

acceptance. The inter-item correlation analysis also did not show that this alpha

coefficient would have been substantially improved if an item were removed. The

boundary-spanning stress subscale composite of the ASI, which consisted of five items,

had a Cronbach's alpha of .63. While this scale reliability was found to be weaker, the

overall reliability of this scale was still satisfactory based on conventional standards. An

inspection of the inter-item correlations indicated that the alpha coefficient would not

have been substantially improved if an item were deleted. The Cronbach's alpha for the

conflict-mediating subscale composite of the ASI, which consisted of three items, was

.65 indicating a weaker, yet still satisfactory, reliability amongst this scale. Inter-item

analysis showed that the alpha coefficient for this scale would not have been substantially

improved if an item were deleted.

Job Satisfaction Scales from the Job Satisfaction Survey

The overall job satisfaction composite scale, from the Job Satisfaction Survey,

consisted of 36 items, and included 19 negatively worded items that required reverse

scoring. The overall job satisfaction scale of the JSS had a Cronbach's alpha of .93 ($\alpha =$

.93), which indicated that the scale reliability reached conventional standards of

acceptance. The inter-item correlations were evaluated and showed that the reliability of

the scale would not have been substantially improved if an item were deleted. The pay

satisfaction subscale composite of the JSS consisted of four items, and had a Cronbach's

alpha of .74, which also indicated that the scale reliability achieved conventional

standards of acceptance. Again, the inter-item correlation analysis further showed that the

alpha coefficient would not have been substantially improved if an item were deleted. In relation to promotion satisfaction, the JSS subscale consisted of four items and had a Cronbach's alpha of .84, which also reached conventional standards of acceptance. An examination of the inter-item correlation indicated that the alpha coefficient would not have been substantially improved if an item were deleted. The supervision satisfaction subscale of the JSS composite comprised of a total of four items, and had a Cronbach's alpha of .90, which indicated that the scale was reliable based on conventional standards. Furthermore, an inter-item analysis indicated that the subscale composite would not have been greatly improved if an item were deleted. The fringe-benefits satisfaction subscale of the JSS composite consisted of four items and had a Cronbach's alpha of .77. An inter-item correlation analysis showed that the Cronbach's alpha would not have been substantially improved if an item were deleted. The contingent reward satisfaction subscale of the JSS composited included four items and had a Cronbach's alpha of .81, which signified that this scale was reliable based on conventional standards of acceptance. Further inter-item analysis showed that the scale would not have been substantially improved if an item were deleted. In analyzing the operating procedure satisfaction subscale of the JSS, which consisted of four items, it was found to have very poor reliability. However, an inter-item correlation analysis indicated that the reliability could be substantially improved if item 15 were eliminated from the scale. Thus, item 15 was eliminated from the analysis and the revised operating procedure satisfaction subscale of the JSS composite consisted of three items, and had a Cronbach's alpha of .70, which improved the reliability of this subscale, significantly. The coworker

satisfaction subscale composite of the JSS consisted of four items. The Cronbach's alpha

for this subscale composite was .64, while this alpha coefficient was slightly weaker than

other scales; it still had a satisfactory level of reliability based on conventional standards.

Additionally, the inter-item analysis showed that the alpha coefficient would not have

been substantially improved if an item were deleted. The nature of work satisfaction

subscale composite of the JSS, which consisted of four items, had a Cronbach's alpha of

.69. This finding signified that this subscale is reliable based on conventional standards of

acceptance. An inter-item analysis showed that the scale's alpha coefficient would not

have been substantially improved if an item were deleted. And lastly, the communication

satisfaction subscale composite of the JSS consisted of four items. This subscale had a

Cronbach's alpha of .84, which indicated that this scale is reliable based on conventional

standards. Furthermore, the inter-item correlation analysis showed that alpha coefficient

would not have been substantially improved if an item were deleted.

Screening of Demographics on Independent and Dependent Variables

An independent *t* test was conducted to evaluate the relationship of certain

demographic variables with the IVs: Criminal Justice Department and Other Academic

Departments. Additionally, further evaluation using an independent *t* test was conducted

to determine if there was any significance in relation to certain demographic variables

with each of the DVs: Stress and Job Satisfaction. Because of the small sample size, the

alpha was adjusted from .05 to .10 in order to minimize any Type II errors.

In reference to the relationship between the demographic variables on the

independent variables, the findings indicated that there were significant differences in

age, $t(70) = -2.39$, $p = .02$; education level, $t(70) = -2.88$, $p = .01$; and years of prior in-field work experience, $t(70) = -1.65$, $p = .10$, between the criminal justice group and those from other academic departments. Those in the criminal justice group tended to be older ($M = 51.38$, $SD = 11.99$), have more education ($M = 4.00$, $SD = .71$), and have more years of prior in-field work experience ($M = 21.95$, $SD = 9.46$) (see Table 4). A two-way contingency table was conducted in order to evaluate whether department heads and instructors in the criminal justice department group and the department heads and instructors in the other academics group were more likely to be female or male. Gender was found to be significantly related to the two independent variables: criminal justice department and other academic department, Pearson χ^2 (2, $N = 72$) = 20.64, $p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .54$. This finding showed that there were a disproportionate number of males in the criminal justice group than females.

Table 4

Results of t-tests and Descriptive Statistics for Demographic Variables by Academic Department

| | Academic department | | | | | | |
| | Criminal Justice | | Other | | | | |
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	90% CI mean difference	*t*	*p*
Age	51.38	11.99	44.45	10.84	[-11.76, -2.10]	-2.39	.020
Education level	4.00	0.71	3.27	1.06	[-1.15, -0.31]	-2.88	.005
Years prior in-field work experience	21.95	9.46	17.49	10.80	[-8.97, 0.05]	-1.65	.103
Years experience current role (log10)	0.72	0.47	0.65	0.33	[-.23, 0.10]	-0.66	.515

However, there were no significant differences in the distribution of ethnicity, Pearson χ^2 (2, $N = 72$) = .11, p = .75, Cramer's V = .04, or years of experience in current role between the two groups, $t(68)$ = -.66, p = .52 (see Figure 1.).
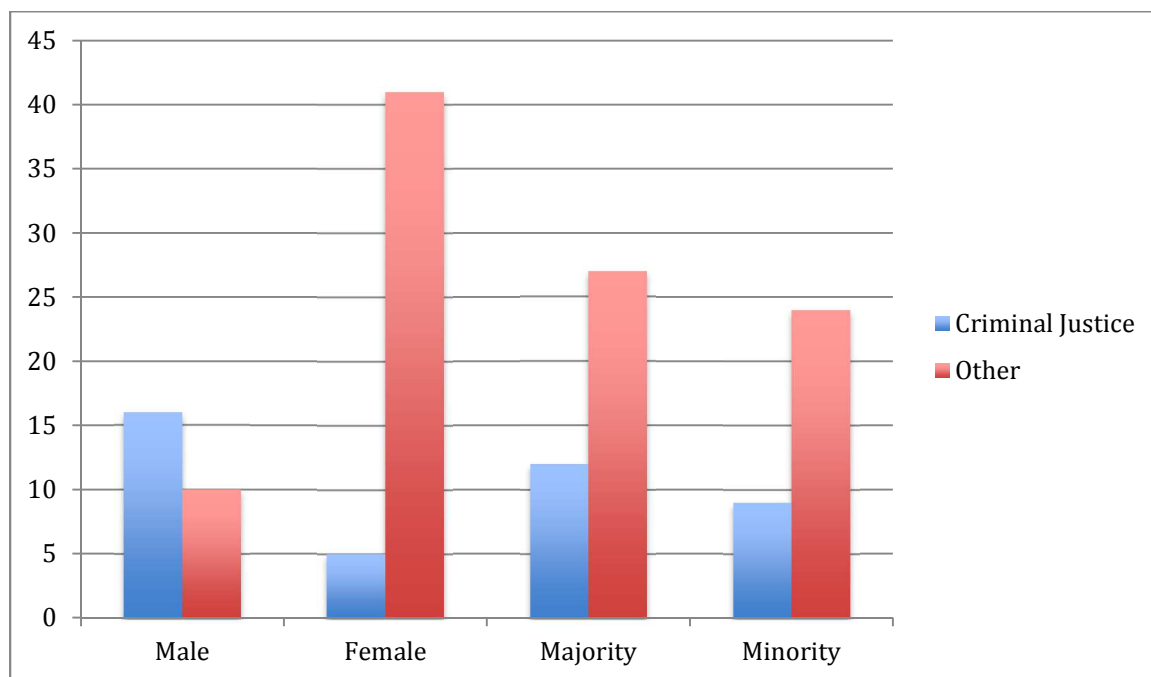
Figure 1. Sex and ethnicity by academic department.

In relation to the relationship between the demographic variables on the dependent variables, the findings suggested that the demographic variable of sex was not significantly related to any dependent variable scale or subscale (see Table 5). However, ethnicity was found to have a significant relationship with role-based stress, $t(70)$ = 1.71, p = .09, promotion satisfaction, $t(70)$ = -2.53, p = .01, and communication satisfaction, $t(70)$ = -2.15, p = .04. As a result, ethnicity was included as an additional independent variable for these three dependent variables (see Table 6). Correlation coefficients were computed to determine if education level, current age, years of prior in-field work

experience, and years of experience in current role correlated near a *p*-value of .15 with any of the dependent variables of stress and job satisfaction. Education level was found to have a significant correlation with several dependent variables, including: overall stress, $r(70) = -.18$, $p = .138$; role-based stress, $r(70) = -.18$, $p = .135$; task-based stress, $r(70) = -.19$, $p = .102$; overall job satisfaction, $r(70) = .19$, $p = .107$; pay satisfaction, $r(70) = .18$, $p = .123$; and communication satisfaction, $r(70) = .19$, $p = .111$. Current age was found to be correlated with fringe benefits satisfaction, $r(70) = .25$, $p = .032$; and operating procedures satisfaction, $r(70) = -.18$, $p = .129$. Furthermore, years of prior in-field work experience had a significant correlation with fringe benefits satisfaction, $r(70) = .19$, $p = .120$; and contingent rewards satisfaction, $r(70) = -.17$, $p = .156$. While, years of experience in current role were found to have a significant correlation with coworker satisfaction, $r(70) = .23$, p .061; and communication satisfaction, $r(70) = .18$, $p = .131$. As a result of these significant correlations, current age, education level, and years of prior in-field work experience variables were used as covariates for future analysis.

Table 5

Results of t-tests and Descriptive Statistics for Stress and Job Satisfaction by Sex

Variable	Male		Female		90% CI mean difference	t	p
	M	SD	M	SD			
Stress							
Overall	2.02	0.59	2.18	0.54	[-.39, .07]	-1.19	.240
Role-based	2.44	0.81	2.73	0.86	[-.63, .06]	-1.40	.167
Task-based	2.01	0.70	2.13	0.71	[-.41, .17]	-0.70	.484
Boundary-spanning	1.53	0.52	1.55	0.53	[-.24, .20]	-0.16	.873
Conflict-mediating	1.90	0.77	2.14	0.81	[-.57, .09]	-1.23	.222
Satisfaction							
Overall	4.02	0.68	3.85	0.78	[-.14, .47]	0.89	.377
Pay	2.89	0.87	2.77	1.27	[-.35, .58]	0.40	.688
Promotion	3.02	1.16	2.80	1.21	[-.27, .71]	0.75	.453
Supervision	5.31	0.68	4.97	1.35	[-.06, .74]	1.19	.163
Fringe benefits	3.33	1.31	2.92	1.11	[-.08, .89]	1.41	.164
Contingent rewards	3.73	0.95	3.59	1.33	[-.31, .59]	0.49	.595
Operating procedures	3.69	1.04	3.70	1.20	[-.42, .40]	-0.01	.991
Coworker	5.19	0.66	4.90	0.87	[-.03, .62]	1.50	.137
Nature of work	5.11	0.82	5.41	0.62	[-.61, .01]	-1.78	.108
Communication	3.99	1.15	3.73	1.37	[-.27, .79]	0.81	.423

Table 6

Results of t-tests and Descriptive Statistics for Stress and Job Satisfaction by Ethnicity

| | Ethnicity | | | | | | |
| | Majority | | Minority | | | | |
Variable	M	SD	M	SD	90% CI mean difference	t	p
Stress							
Overall	2.21	0.47	2.02	0.65	[-0.04, 0.41]	1.41	.176
Role-based	2.78	0.83	2.44	0.85	[-0.01, 0.67]	1.71	.091
Task-based	2.15	0.66	2.02	0.76	[-0.15, 0.40]	0.75	.458
Boundary-spanning	1.63	0.44	1.44	0.60	[-0.01, 0.40]	1.56	.124
Conflict-mediating	2.06	0.73	2.04	0.89	[-0.30, 0.34]	0.10	.919
Satisfaction							
Overall	3.80	0.73	4.05	0.75	[-0.54, 0.04]	-1.43	.159
Pay	2.71	1.07	2.93	1.21	[-0.67, 0.23]	-0.82	.415
Promotion	2.56	1.01	3.25	1.29	[-1.14, -0.23]	-2.53	.014
Supervision	5.02	1.23	5.17	1.08	[-0.61, 0.31]	-0.55	.581
Fringe benefits	3.12	1.14	3.00	1.27	[-0.35, 0.59]	0.43	.669
Contingent rewards	3.50	1.11	3.80	1.30	[-0.77, 0.17]	-1.07	.288
Operating procedures	3.61	1.07	3.80	1.21	[-0.54, 0.24]	-0.71	.514
Coworker	4.97	0.84	5.04	0.79	[-0.38, 0.26]	-0.33	.742
Nature of work	5.24	0.74	5.37	0.67	[-0.42, 0.14]	-0.82	.418
Communication	3.53	1.37	4.17	1.12	[-1.14, -0.14]	-2.15	.035

Research Question 1

A one-way analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted to evaluate the relationship between stress and being employed at a career college institution as department head or instructor within the criminal justice department in comparison to being employed as a department head or instructor within a different academic department within this same type of institution, while adjusting for differences on the covariates: current age, education level, and years of prior in-field work experience. The independent variables included two categories: criminal justice department and other department. The academic disciplines included in the other department category included: medical assisting, medical billing and coding, dental assisting, pharmacy technician, and massage therapy. The dependent variable of stress was examined using the Administrative Stress Index, which was comprised of five different composite and subscale composites: overall stress, role-based stress, task-based stress, boundary-spanning stress, and conflict-mediating stress. Current age, education level, and years of prior in-field work experience were examined as covariates based on previous findings. The results of the analysis indicated that the null hypothesis should be accepted, $F(1, 67) = 1.16$, $p = .30$, as there were no differences found between the two groups in relation to the amount of stress experienced, as a result of their work-related tasks. Additionally, there were no significant covariate differences in terms of the level of overall stress, role-based stress, task-based stress, or boundary-spanning stress experienced by professionals in both groups. However, there was a significantly negative correlation found between the covariate of current age and conflict-mediating stress, $F(1, 70) = 2.82$, $p = .098$. This

significant finding indicated that younger professionals were more likely to experience higher levels of stress associated with conflict-mediating tasks at work, while older professionals were more likely to experience lower levels of stress associated conflict-mediating work tasks.

Research Question 2

A one-way analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was again conducted to evaluate the relationship between job satisfaction and being employed at a career college institution as department head or instructor within the criminal justice department in comparison to being employed as a department head or instructor within a different academic department in this same type of institution, while adjusting for differences on the covariates: current age, education level, and years of prior in-field work experience. The independent variable again included two categories: criminal justice department and other department. The academic disciplines included in the other department category were: medical assisting, medical billing and coding, dental assisting, pharmacy technician, and massage therapy. The dependent variable of job satisfaction was examined using the Job Satisfaction Survey, which was comprised of ten different composite scale and subscale composites: overall job satisfaction, promotion satisfaction, supervision satisfaction, fringe benefits satisfaction, contingent reward satisfaction, coworker satisfaction, nature of work satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and operating procedures satisfaction. Current age, education level, and years of prior in-field work experience were examined as covariates based on previous findings. The results of the analysis indicated that the null hypothesis regarding overall job satisfaction should be

accepted, $F(1, 67) = 2.66$, $p = .11$, as there was no difference found between the two groups in relation to the amount of overall job satisfaction experienced, as a result of their work-related tasks. While this finding was not significant, the results did approach significant levels, which indicated that professionals in the Criminal Justice department had a higher level of job satisfaction when compared to those professionals in other academic departments.

In terms of job satisfaction related to pay, department heads and instructors in the criminal justice department had significantly higher pay-related job satisfaction than department heads and instructors in other academic departments, $F(1, 70) = 3.09$, $p = .083$. Furthermore, there was a significant negative correlation found between the covariate current age and pay satisfaction, $F(1, 70) = 6.22$, $p = .015$. This finding suggested that as one's age increased, that their satisfaction with their pay decreased, while younger department heads and instructors were more likely to report higher levels of pay satisfaction (see Figure 2.).
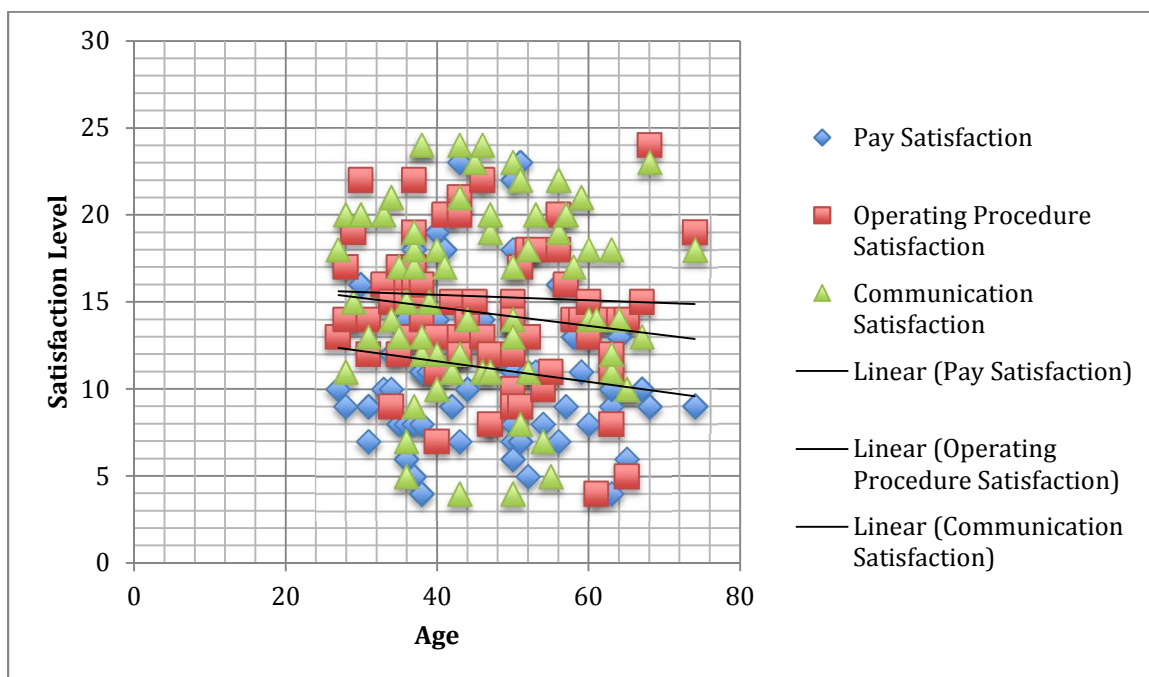
Figure 2. Satisfaction trends by age

In regards to promotion satisfaction, the results indicated that there was a significant difference between the two independent groups, $F(3, 68) = 4.67$ $p = .034$. Moreover, when examining promotion satisfaction there was also a significant difference found in regards to ethnicity $F(3, 68) = 11.44$, $p = .001$. This finding indicated that those who work in the criminal justice department had a higher covariate adjusted level of promotion satisfaction than those who worked in other academic departments. Minorities also were found to have higher covariate adjusted promotion satisfaction than those of the majority ethnicity. Furthermore, there was a significant positive correlation found between years of prior in field work experience and promotion satisfaction, $F(3, 67) = 3.63$, $p = .061$. This finding suggested that department heads and instructors with more years of prior in-field work experience were more likely to be satisfied with opportunities

for promotion available at their workplace, while those with less years of prior work

experience were less likely to be satisfied with promotional opportunities within their

place of employment.

There were no significant findings between the two groups when examining

supervision satisfaction, $F(1, 70) = 0.13$, $p = 0.72$, nor were there any significant findings

between the two groups in relation to fringe benefits satisfaction $F(1, 70) = 0.15$ $p = 0.71$

or contingent reward satisfaction, $F(1, 70) = 1.25$, $p = 0.27$. There was, however, a

significant negative correlation found between age and operating procedure satisfaction,

$F(1, 70) = 3.62$, $p = .062$. This finding suggested that older department heads and

instructors were likely to have lower levels of job satisfaction, in relation to operating

procedures; while younger department heads and instructors were more likely to have

high levels of job satisfaction, in relation to the operating procedures of their employer

(see Figure 2.). However, there were no significant findings between the criminal justice

department group and other academic when examining operating procedure satisfaction,

$F(1, 70) = 0.31$, $p = 0.58$. In relation to coworker satisfaction, there was a significant

finding between the criminal justice department group and those in the other academic

department group, $F(1, 68) = 4.31$, $p = .042$. This significant finding showed that those

who worked in the criminal justice department had higher covariate adjusted coworker

satisfaction than their counterparts in other academic departments. Concerning nature of

work satisfaction, there were no significant differences between the two independent

groups, $F(1, 70) = 0.35$, $p = 0.56$. In reference to communication satisfaction, there were

four significant findings in relation to age, $F(3, 66) = 3.89$, $p = .053$; years of prior in-

field work experience, $F(3, 66) = 5.22$, $p = .026$; years of experience in current role, $F(3,$

$66) = 3.39$, $p = .070$; and ethnicity, $F(3, 66) = 3.45$, $p = .068$. However, there were no

significant findings between the criminal justice department group and the other

academic department group when examining communication satisfaction, $F(3, 66) =$

0.14, $p = 0.71$. The significant findings, regarding communication satisfaction, suggested

that there was a negative correlation between age and communication satisfaction where

older department heads and instructors were more likely to report lower levels of

communication satisfaction, while younger department chairs and instructors were more

likely to report higher levels of communication satisfaction (see Figure 2.). Furthermore,

both the more years of prior in-field work experience and experience in current role were

found to have a positive correlation with communication satisfaction, which implied that

the more years of prior in-field work experience and the more years of experience in their

current role the participants had, the more likely they were to report high levels of

communication satisfaction, as examined by the Job Satisfaction Survey, while the fewer

years of prior in-field work experience and fewer years of experience in their current role

held by these professionals was more likely to result in lower levels of communication

satisfaction. And lastly, in terms of ethnicity, minorities were found to have a higher level

of covariate adjusted communication satisfaction than those in the majority ethnicity.

Research Question 3

A discriminant analysis was conducted to determine whether 13 predictors from

the Administrative Stress Index and Job Satisfaction Survey—role based stress, task

based stress, boundary spanning stress, conflict mediating stress, pay satisfaction,

promotion satisfaction, supervision satisfaction, fringe-benefits satisfaction, contingent

reward satisfaction, operating procedure satisfaction, coworker satisfaction, nature of

work satisfaction, and communication satisfaction—could predict differences in stress

and satisfaction between those in the criminal justice department and those in other

academic departments. A univariate and multivariate screening of outliers was conducted,

and found no extreme univariate outliers across the 13 subscales of the ASI and the JSS,

nor any multivariate outliers between the two independent variable groups. The overall

Wilk's lambda was significant, $\Lambda = .72$, $\chi^2(13, N = 70) = 20.59$, $p = .081$, which indicated

that overall the predictors were significantly different among the criminal justice

department group and the other academic department group. Because of this significance,

further analysis was conducted to examine the discriminant functions. In regards to the

discriminant function, department heads and instructors in the criminal justice department

scored high on function, while the department heads and instructors in other academic

departments scored low, as found by examining the Standardized Canonical Discriminant

Function Coefficients. This indicated that when compared to professionals in other

academic departments, criminal justice department heads and instructors tended to have a

profile pattern of high coworker satisfaction and promotion satisfaction and pay

satisfaction and boundary spanning stress and task based stress and low conflict

mediating stress and nature of work satisfaction and contingent reward satisfaction and

supervision satisfaction. While the department heads and instructors in other academic

departments had a profile pattern of having low coworker satisfaction and promotion

satisfaction and pay satisfaction and boundary spanning stress and task based stress and

high conflict mediating stress and nature of work satisfaction and contingent reward satisfaction and supervision satisfaction. Role-based stress, fringe-benefits satisfaction, operating procedure satisfaction, and communication satisfaction were not found to be important in distinguishing criminal justice department professionals from those professionals in other academic departments.

When trying to predict criminal justice and other academic department group membership, overall we were able to correctly classify 84.7% of the individuals in the sample, with there being a 90.2% correct classification of individuals in other academic departments, and 71.4% correct classification of individuals in the criminal justice department. While these classification findings were good, cross-validation results were not as good, which was expected given the small sample size. Cross-validation classification results showed an overall correct classification of 68.1% of the professionals in both groups, with there being a 82.4% correct classification of professionals in other academic departments and only 33.3% correct classification of professionals in the criminal justice department.

Summary of Results

The results of this study showed that there were no significant relationships found between overall stress, nor any of the 4 stress subscales and holding a criminal justice department head or instructor position when compared to department heads and instructors in other academic departments. However, there was a significantly negative correlation found between age and conflict-mediating stress. This finding suggested that younger department heads and instructors were more likely to report higher levels of

stress associated with conflict mediating work-related tasks, while older department heads and instructors were more likely to experience lower levels of stress when dealing with conflict-mediating tasks at work. In examining job satisfaction, there were no differences in the amount of overall job satisfaction experienced by criminal justice department heads and instructors in comparison with department heads and instructors from other academic departments. However, the analysis of overall job satisfaction did approach significance levels, which suggested that criminal justice department heads and instructors did tend to have higher overall job satisfaction than department heads and instructors in other academic departments. There were significant differences in the level of pay satisfaction experienced by criminal justice department heads and instructors when compared to their counterparts in other academic departments. Furthermore, there were significant correlation findings in relation to age and pay satisfaction that suggested that as participants aged their level of satisfaction with their pay decreased. There were also significant differences revealed between criminal justice department heads and instructors and those in other academic departments when examining promotion satisfaction, with criminal justice department heads and instructors having reported higher levels of promotion satisfaction than their counterparts in other academic departments. Similarly, minorities were also found to report higher levels of promotion satisfaction than those of the majority ethnicity, as well as, department heads and instructors with more years of prior in-field work. Also, in relation to coworker satisfaction, there was a significant difference those who worked in the criminal justice department and those who worked in other academic departments, with criminal justice

department heads and instructors having reported higher levels of coworker satisfaction than their counterparts in other academic departments.

However, there were no significant differences between criminal justice department heads and instructors in comparison to department heads and instructors in other academic department when examining supervision satisfaction, job satisfaction related to fringe benefits, contingent reward satisfaction, nature of work satisfaction, or operating procedure satisfaction. However, there was a significantly negative correlation found between age and operating procedure satisfaction that indicated that older department heads and instructors were likely to have lower levels of operating procedures satisfaction. There were also no significant findings between the criminal justice department group and the other academic department group when examining communication satisfaction. However, there were four significant findings in relation to age, years of prior in-field work experience, years of experience in current role, and ethnicity when communication satisfaction was analyzed. These significant findings included a negative correlation between age and communication satisfaction where older department heads and instructors reported lower levels of communication satisfaction than younger department chairs and instructors. A positive correlation was found between communication satisfaction and years of prior in-field work experience, as well as, years of experience in current role, which implied that the more years of prior in-field work experience and the more years of experience in their current role the participants had the more likely they were to report high levels of communication satisfaction. Finally, in

terms of ethnicity, minorities were found to have a significantly higher level of communication satisfaction.

In terms of multivariate profile differences between criminal justice department heads and instructors and those department heads and instructors in other academic departments, it was determined that there were significant profile differences between the two groups of professionals. Criminal justice department heads and instructors tended to have a profile pattern of high coworker satisfaction and promotion satisfaction and pay satisfaction and boundary spanning stress and task based stress and low conflict mediating stress and nature of work satisfaction and contingent reward satisfaction and supervision satisfaction. While the department heads and instructors in other academic departments were found to have a profile of having low coworker satisfaction and promotion satisfaction and pay satisfaction and boundary spanning stress and task based stress and high conflict mediating stress and nature of work satisfaction and contingent reward satisfaction and supervision satisfaction. Other factors, including role based stress, fringe-benefits satisfaction, operating procedure satisfaction, and communication satisfaction were not found to be important in distinguishing the profiles of criminal justice department professionals from those professionals in other academic departments. These differences, as well as, the conclusions that may be drawn from these results will be further discussed in Chapter 5.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

Stress and job satisfaction have been studied in a wide array of professional disciplines, including the fields of criminal justice and higher education. In the criminal justice field, researchers have primarily focused on how the stress of working in the criminal justice industry negatively impacts the job satisfaction of those who work within this field, especially police and correctional officers (Jaramillo et al., 2005; Roy & Avdija, 2012). Additionally, in the higher education field, research efforts have primarily focused on the public higher education sector, with little to no research being focused on the career college sector of higher education (Ablanedo-Rosas et al., 2011; Barkhuizen & Rothmann, 2008; Bhatti et al., 2011). The career college sector of higher education is of special interest given the political and public scrutiny of these types of institutions, especially regarding their costs, outcomes, and quality of education provided (Schilling, 2013).

In reviewing literature, I found no studies whose authors explored stress and job satisfaction within career colleges, as it relates to department heads or instructors, specifically criminal justice department heads and instructors. Previous researchers studying stress and job satisfaction in criminal justice professionals have instead focused primarily on how these professionals adapt to the high-stress demands associated with their positions, as well as, the job satisfaction of these professionals given the high levels of stress that are often times associated with the criminal justice field (see Balgaonkar et al., 2014; Finney et al., 2013; Hassell et al., 2011; Kuo, 2014). There has only been a

limited amount of research efforts dedicated to criminal justice professionals who choose to work in the academic field (see Gabbidon, 2005; Gabbidon & Higgins, 2012), with no known research efforts dedicated to criminal justice professionals who work in the career college sector of higher education. In conducting this study, I aimed to fill this gap in the literature and provide more insight on the job-related functioning of career college criminal justice department heads by examining the relationship between stress and job satisfaction amongst this populations, while also comparing these relationships to those who serve as department heads and instructors in other academic departments within these same institutions.

Summary of the Findings

The findings of this study showed that there was no significant relationship between stress and holding a criminal justice department head or instructor position within a career college institution. Additionally, there was no significant difference between overall job satisfaction and being employed as a criminal justice department head or instructor when compared to department heads and instructors who worked in other academic departments. However, this finding did approach a level of significance, which suggests that criminal justice department heads and instructors were more inclined to have higher overall job satisfaction than department heads and instructors in other academic departments. Additional findings showed that younger department heads and instructors experienced higher levels of stress associated with conflict mediating work-related tasks, while older department heads and instructors experienced lower levels of communication satisfaction and lower levels of satisfaction with their pay than their

younger counterparts. Furthermore, higher levels of communication satisfaction was associated with more years of prior in-field work experience and more years of experience in their current role as a department head and instructor. When exploring communication satisfaction, racial and ethnic minorities, which included all ethnicities other than Caucasian, was found to have higher levels of job-related communication satisfaction. Similarly, minorities were also found to report higher levels of promotion satisfaction than those of Caucasian ethnicity. Department heads and instructors with more years of prior in-field work experience also reported higher levels of promotion satisfaction. Criminal justice department heads and instructors expressed higher job satisfaction in relation to pay than those in other academic departments. Criminal justice department heads and instructors also had higher levels of promotion satisfaction and coworker satisfaction than their counterparts in other academic departments. This chapter includes further discussion and interpretation of the findings, the limitations of the study, recommendations for future research, and a consideration of the study's implications for social change.

Interpretation of the Findings

The findings of this study expand existing knowledge on stress and job satisfaction in both the criminal justice and higher education fields. Furthermore, this study provides valuable insight to the career college sector by expounding what is known about career colleges and examining the experiences of the faculty and academic managers who work within these types of institutions. I explored stress and job satisfaction within a sector of higher education that has not been extensively researched,

despite criminal justice professionals teaching within this sector of higher education (Gabbidon, 2005). The findings of this study both confirm and disconfirm what has been previously studied in regards to stress and job satisfaction in criminal justice department heads and instructors.

I found no significant difference between the amount of overall stress experienced by criminal justice department heads or instructors at career college institutions when compared to the amount of overall stress of department heads and instructors in other academic disciplines. This finding confirmed those of past researchers such as Gabbidon (2005), who also found that criminal justice department heads experienced similar stressors as those experienced by department chairs in other academic departments. Additionally, in this study, no significant relationship was found between overall job satisfaction and being a department head or instructor within the criminal justice department of a career college institution. However, the results did indicate that this finding approached significance levels with criminal justice department heads and instructors, on average, reporting higher levels of overall job satisfaction than their counterparts in other academic departments. This finding is consistent with Gabbidon and Higgins' (2012) finding that faculty who work within criminology and criminal Justice departments at major colleges and universities across the United States reported higher rates of job satisfaction when they devoted more time to their friends and family. Similarly, a study conducted by Bernat and Holschuh (2015) indicated that most senior female faculty members in the criminology and criminal justice department were satisfied with their workplace environment.

Regarding the relationship between the demographic variables and stress and job satisfaction, there were no significant findings between age and overall stress or overall job satisfaction. This finding was similar to those of Maji and Ali (2013) and Dutta et al. (2014), who similarly found no significant relationship between age and stress or job satisfaction. However, this finding was contrary to that of a study conducted by Barkhuizen and Rothmann (2008). These authors found that the more the academic faculty aged and gained experience the more responsibility they had within their institutions (Barkhuizen & Rothmann, 2008). This aging and increased experience resulted in more stress associated with the demands of their job and increased responsibility (Barkhuizen & Rothmann, 2008). While there was no significant relationship between age and overall stress or overall job satisfaction found in this study, there was a significant relationship between age and being employed as a department head or instructor in the criminal justice department, with the criminal justice department heads and instructors tending to be older than department heads and instructors in other academic departments.

Additionally, in terms of conflict mediating stress, I found that younger department heads and instructors were more likely to experience higher levels of stress associated with conflict-mediating tasks at work than older department heads and instructors. This particular finding was consistent with that of a study conducted by Akin, Baloglu, and Karsh (2014) that found that younger participants who held lower managerial positions and academic titles reported experiencing higher amounts of stress. Likewise, a study conducted by Garipağaoğlu and Vatanartıran (2013) was also

consistent with the findings of this study. Their study found that many department heads expressed stress associated with mediating conflicts between parties, including conflicts that were student-based, faculty-based, and conflicts involving upper-level management (Garipağaoğlu & Vatanartıran, 2013). A study conducted by Gmelch and Burns (1994) provided additional support to the findings of this study, finding that conflict-mediating factors, such as negotiating rules and regulations, gaining program approvals, and disputes between faculty members caused the greatest amount of stress for department chairs in the university setting. However, the findings of this study differed from those of the study conducted by Gmelch and Burns (1994), which further suggested that tasked-based factors and professional identity were also found to be sources of significant stress for department chairs and faculty members, and furthermore that that there was some significant difference in the amount of perceived stress amongst department chairs and faculty in different academic disciplines.

Additional results of this study found that as one's age increased, that their satisfaction with their pay decreased, and that older department heads and instructors were more likely to have lower levels of job satisfaction, in relation to operating procedures and communication satisfaction. This finding supported that of a study conducted by Barkhuizen and Rothmann (2008), which found that high levels of stress were primarily attributed to several factors, including pay, benefits, work relationships, work overload, and work-life balance.

This study did not find any significant relationship between gender and stress, nor gender and job satisfaction. This finding was consistent with similar studies that also found there

to be no significant relationship between gender and stress, or gender and job satisfaction (Archibong, Bassey, & Effiom, 2010; Ablanedo-Rosas et al., 2011; Dutta et al., 2014; Tinu & Adeniji, 2015). However, this finding was contrary to that of other studies, including a studies conducted by Necsoi (2011) and Necsoi and Porumbu (2011), which found a significant difference in reports of stress and job satisfaction between men and women with female faculty reporting higher levels of stress and lower levels of job satisfaction than male faculty. Moreover, this study found that there was a significant relationship between other demographic factors, such as education level, years of prior work experience, and years of experience in current role in relation to stress and job satisfaction. However, again this finding was opposing to that of previous studies that found that demographic variables such as gender, age, locality, stream, educational qualifications, teaching experience, and income did not have any significant impact on stress and job satisfaction (Dutta et al., 2014; Ghosh, S., Debbarma, Bhattacharjee, & Ghosh, E., 2016).

Limitations of the Study

Although this study was able to satisfy its intended purpose, which was to explore the relationship of stress and job satisfaction amongst a specialized group of criminal justice department heads within career college institutions, there were some unavoidable limitations that must be noted. First, because of the unique and specialized sector of higher education that was being explored in this study there were a limited number of available career colleges that were willing to allow this researcher to recruit potential participants for this study, thus significantly reducing the intended sample size

of the targeted population. To overcome this limitation, the targeted population was expanded to include instructors, which did slightly change the focus of this study, which initially sought to just examine stress and job satisfaction amongst criminal justice department heads. Secondly, because of the lack of prior research exploring stress and job satisfaction amongst criminal justice department heads in career colleges there was little guidance on how working in this particular sector influences the day-to-day job tasks that contribute to the feelings of stress and job satisfaction expressed by the participants. Thus, while we were able to make inferences on the targeted population based on the findings of this study, there is still no clear indication that there will be similar findings on other department heads and instructors within comparable institutions. Furthermore, more prestigious and traditional colleges and universities may not yield comparable stress or job satisfaction findings since the job responsibilities, student demographic, and institutional operations may be distinctly different based on their educational goals and serving population. Thirdly, while the assessment instruments used in this study have been widely used to examine stress and job satisfaction in other professional disciplines with good validity and reliability, these assessments were not specifically designed to assess individuals who work in career college institutions. Consequently, these instruments may not be able to fully explore all aspects of the work conducted within this specialized sector of higher education. And lastly, as with all self-reported data, there are external influences that could impact the validity and reliability of data reported by participants, including personal stressors. Hence, the impact of these

personal stressors and their impact on the reported stress and job satisfaction could also not be determined in this study.

Recommendations

Future research on stress and job satisfaction of criminal justice department heads who work in career college institutions could be benefit from focusing on identifying how the career college environment, including organizational structure, job-related tasks, and student demographics contribute to the stress and job satisfaction of the employees within this academic sector. Furthermore, future research efforts should also take time to explore the in-depth experiences of the professionals who work in this particular sector of higher education with the hopes of gaining comprehensive insight to not only their past work experiences, but how these impact their experiences in their current educational role within the career college sector. Finally, future studies may seek to analyze stress and satisfaction from not only a work-stance, but also within the context of personal stressors and external influences that could impact one's perception of stress and job satisfaction in the career college workplace. These recommendations would not only expand to the knowledgebase of what has been discovered in this study, but also create pathway to increased research on this particular sector of higher education.

Implications

Career colleges are a specialized group of institutions within the higher education sector. These types of higher education institutions can provide unique educational opportunities for those individuals desiring a non-traditional type of educational experience, including smaller class sizes, hands-on learning, and more technical

programs. The department heads and instructors, who are assigned to educate and train these students, typically have direct experience in the field that can be transformed into a classroom setting. Furthermore, these professionals strive to provide this specialized group of consumers with a career-focused education where practical knowledge and hands-on education can be quickly transferred into a career in the workforce. Often times, these department chairs and instructors are under a great deal of pressure to produce prime graduates, in a short amount of time, are competitive in the job market (Deming, Golden, & Katz, 2013). Additionally, because of fast-paced educational environment, department heads of career colleges are tasked with running their respective departments in the most efficient manner, while still ensuring that a high quality of education is being provided to students. This includes hiring and managing instructors who not only have the direct field experience, but who can also carry out the goals of the institution and program by providing students with the skillset necessary to obtain employment within their chosen field (Deming, 2012).

Exploring the stress and job satisfaction of criminal justice department heads and instructors who work in career college institutions is only the first step to gaining an understanding of the professionals who work within this particular sector of higher education. Furthermore, examining the work-related experiences of these particular professionals sheds insight into identifying what types of individuals are compelled to move into this type of career, what type of job-related tasks may contribute to increased stress levels, and what aspects of the position may lead to lower levels of job satisfaction amongst this group of professionals. Additionally, comparing these experiences to those

who work in similar positions in other academic departments within career colleges will provide supplementary understanding on any departmental similarities or differences that may exists between these groups of professionals. This insight may provide possible explanations and knowledge regarding any significant differences in the amount of stress and job satisfaction experienced by the various department leaders and faculty members within this type of institutional setting. By examining the stress and job satisfaction of the professionals that serve as the heart of these types of institutions, career colleges may be encouraged to re-evaluate their institutional practices. These practices include reviewing instructor and department head workloads and job-related responsibilities, providing the sufficient support necessary to be successful in their roles, and creating an environment where public and political pressures do not primarily influence the day to day operations of the institution, but rather that the organization's mission drives the purpose of these assigned work tasks. Furthermore, this study provides the opportunity for career college institutions to possibly develop employee intervention programs aimed at helping their employees, especially their managers and their supporting team of faculty members, positively cope with stress in the work environment, including effectively dealing with conflict-mediating stressors. Placing focus on this particular sector of higher education is necessary, as the research in this area appears to be seemingly non-existent despite this being a growing sector of the higher educational system, and one that serves a demographic of students who may not be able to be successful in a traditional college setting. Finally, looking specifically at how criminal justice department heads and instructors differ in comparison to other department heads and instructors within this

same sector of higher education may account for potential differences in the pressure that criminal justice department heads have in preparing their graduates for successful careers within a potentially dangerous and stressful profession. Criminal justice professionals work in various roles within the criminal justice system, such as law enforcement, corrections, security, and courts. Within these professional roles, they are required to interact with individuals who have been involved in criminal behavior, suffer from mental illness, or have substance abuse issues. These interactions inherently heighten the level of danger that these professionals are exposed to, which may not only put their personal safety in jeopardy but can also place them in life or death situations. These subtle differences, as well as others, may account for any potential stress and job satisfaction levels in criminal justice professionals compared to those who work in other departments. However, for this to be better understood, further research efforts must continue to be developed amongst this sector of educators and administrators (Tierney, 2011; Zagier, 2011).

Conclusions

The higher education sector is one that has and will continue to be of great interest for researchers. As education continues to be assessed to determine its value to consumers seeking lucrative career opportunities, researchers will continue to examine the outcomes and quality of education provided by these institutions. It is imperative that researchers, recognize that the career college sector of higher education seeks to provide quality education to students who may not otherwise attempt or be successful in a traditional college or university setting, and that these type of institutions still provide

these individuals with the tools necessary to begin or advance their professional career.

Similarly, within most higher education institutions, the criminal justice discipline is one

that continues to be one of the popular interests to students. This particular professional

discipline offers a wide array of professional opportunities that are not only lucrative, but

that also provide a sense of stability not found in some other professions. The criminal

justice field, while potentially stressful, often provides the professionals within this field

with a sense of satisfaction and personal reward from serving one's community. These

professionals are typically well respected amongst the public because of the heightened

level of danger associated with many positions within this field. Thus, it is essential that

students who are training to enter this field receive not only the textbook knowledge, but

more so the practical job skills to necessary to ensure that their personal safety is not

further endangered, and that they are able to be effectively serve and meet the needs of

their community. While prior research studies on criminal justice professionals who

worked within the higher education system focused solely on the public or university

sector of higher education, there were no known research studies that focused on this

same group of professionals within the career college sector of higher education. This

study filled this gap by examining criminal justice department heads and instructors at

career college institutions to examine the relationship between stress and job satisfaction

amongst these professionals, and comparing these relationships with department heads

and instructors in other academic differences to determine similarities and differences.

Without further in-depth research on the criminal justice professionals who transition

their careers into the higher education sector of career colleges, it will be difficult to gain

a true understanding on what motivates and drives these professionals to work within this sector of higher education, nor the expectations they have when making such a transition. Finally, as with all research, the goal of this study was to ignite awareness to a group of dedicated professionals who seek to inspire the next generation of professionals within their chosen discipline. Additional research in this regard, will not only bring awareness regarding career colleges, but also hopefully garner support from a society and political climate that has typically neglected or frowned upon career college institutions without regard for the dedicated instructors and department heads that passionately devote their efforts to providing knowledge and skills to the next generation of professionals.

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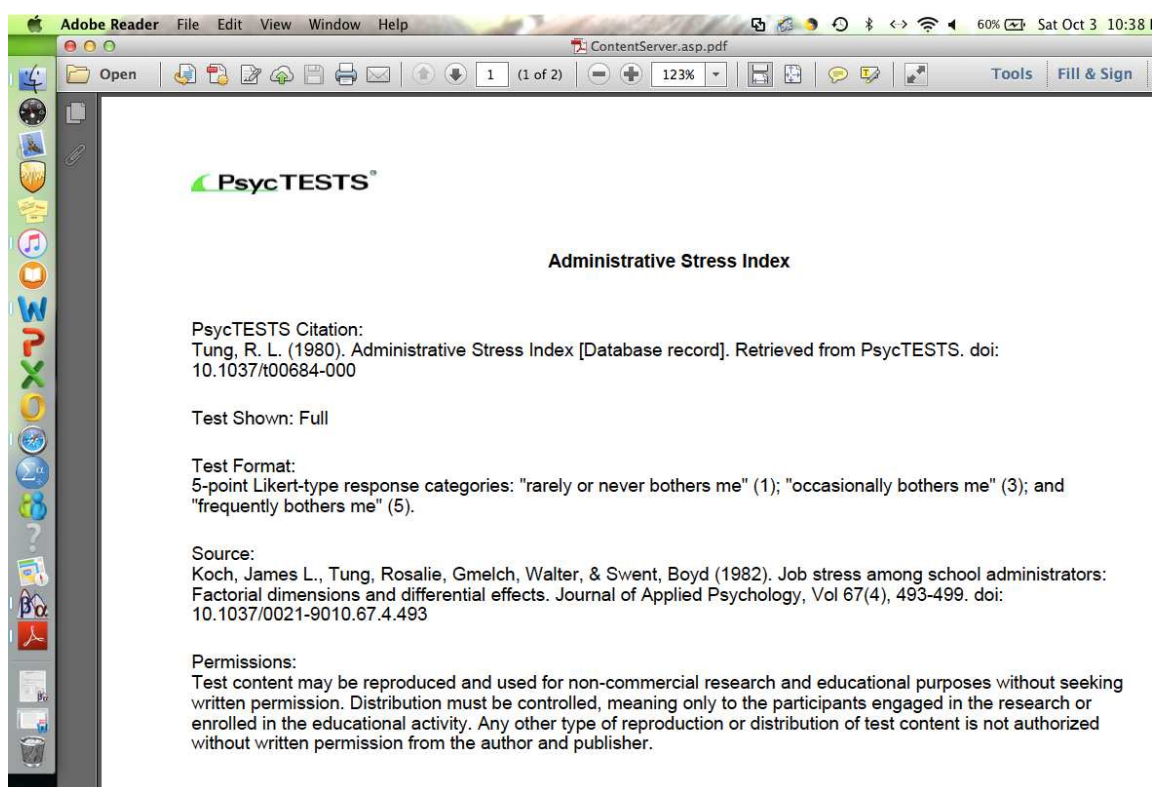
Appendix A: Resources Provided to Participants

Thank you for participating in this research study, your participation is invaluable. In the event that professional assistance dealing with stress is desired, participants are encouraged to visit: www.211.org, or call 2-1-1 using their phone for a listing of local resources in their area.

Appendix B: Permission to Use Administrative Stress Index

PsycTESTS®

Administrative Stress Index

PsycTESTS Citation:
Tung, R. L. (1980). Administrative Stress Index [Database record]. Retrieved from PsycTESTS. doi: 10.1037/t00684-000

Test Shown: Full

Test Format:
5-point Likert-type response categories: "rarely or never bothers me" (1); "occasionally bothers me" (3); and "frequently bothers me" (5).

Source:
Koch, James L., Tung, Rosalie, Gmelch, Walter, & Swent, Boyd (1982). Job stress among school administrators: Factorial dimensions and differential effects. Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol 67(4), 493-499. doi: 10.1037/0021-9010.67.4.493

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Appendix C: Administrative Stress Index

I incorporated questions from Koch et al.'s (1982) Administrative Stress Index in

my survey instrument.

Administrative Stress Index

Items

Role-based Stress
*1. Knowing I can't get information needed to carry out my job properly.
*2. Thinking that I will not be able to satisfy the conflicting demands of those who have authority over me.
3. Trying to resolve differences with my superiors.
*4. Not knowing what my supervisor thinks of me, or how he/she evaluates my performance.
*5. Feeling that I have too little authority to carry out responsibilities assigned to me.
*6. Being unclear on just what the scope and responsibilities of my job are.
*7. Trying to influence my immediate supervisor's actions and decisions that affect me.

Task-based Stress
8. Being interrupted frequently by telephone calls.
9. Supervising and coordinating the tasks of many people.
10. Having my work frequently interrupted by staff members who want to talk.
11. Imposing excessively high expectations on myself.
12. Writing memos, letters, and other communications.
13. Feeling I have to participate in school activities outside of the normal working hours at the expense of my personal time.
*14. Feeling I have too much responsibility delegated to me by my supervisor.
*15. Feeling that I have too heavy a work load, one that I cannot possibly finish during the normal workday.
16. Feeling that meetings take up too much time.
17. Trying to complete reports and other paper work on time.

my personal time.

*14. Feeling I have too much responsibility delegated to me by my supervisor.

*15. Feeling that I have too heavy a work load, one that I cannot possibly finish during the normal workday.

16. Feeling that meetings take up too much time.

17. Trying to complete reports and other paper work on time.

Boundary-spanning Stress

21. Preparing and allocating budget resources.

22. Being involved in the collective bargaining process.

23. Complying with state, federal, and organizational rules and policies.

24. Administering the negotiated contract (grievance, interpretations, etc.).

25. Trying to gain public approval and/or financial support for school programs.

Conflict-mediating Stress

18. Trying to resolve differences between/among students.

19. Trying to resolve parent/school conflicts.

20. Handling student discipline problems.

Asterisks refer to items used on Indik, Seashore, and Slesinger's (1964) index of job-related stress.

PsycTESTS™ is a database of the American Psychological Association

Appendix D: Job Satisfaction Survey

The survey instrument used in this study also included questions from Spector's

(1994) Job Satisfaction Survey.

	JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY Paul E. Spector Department of Psychology University of South Florida Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, All rights reserved.						
	PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.	Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
1	I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	I like the people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	Communications seem good within this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Raises are too few and far between.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	My supervisor is unfair to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations	1	2	3	4	5	6

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	offer.	
14	I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.	1 2 3 4 5 6
15	My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.	1 2 3 4 5 6
16	I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with.	1 2 3 4 5 6
17	I like doing the things I do at work.	1 2 3 4 5 6
18	The goals of this organization are not clear to me.	1 2 3 4 5 6

	PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT. Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, All rights reserved.	Disagree very mcuh	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
19	I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	The benefit package we have is equitable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	There are few rewards for those who work here.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	I have too much to do at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	I enjoy my coworkers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	There are benefits we do not have which we should have.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	I like my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	I have too much paperwork.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33	I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34	There is too much bickering and fighting at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35	My job is enjoyable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36	Work assignments are not fully explained.	1	2	3	4	5	6