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The relationship between job stress and job satisfaction in lower management employees

Rachel L. Jameson

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To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a thesis written by Rachel L. Jameson entitled "The relationship between job stress and job satisfaction in lower management employees." I have examined the final electronic copy of this thesis for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science, with a major in Human Resource Development.

Ernest W. Brewer, Major Professor

We have read this thesis and recommend its acceptance:

Virginia Kupritz, Connie Hollingsworth

Accepted for the Council:

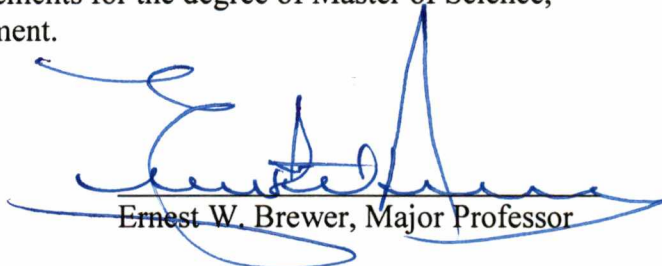
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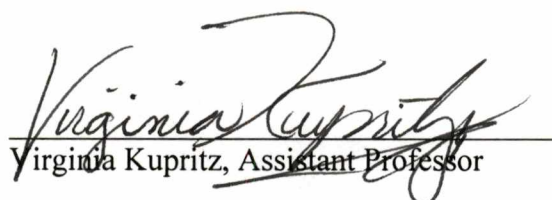
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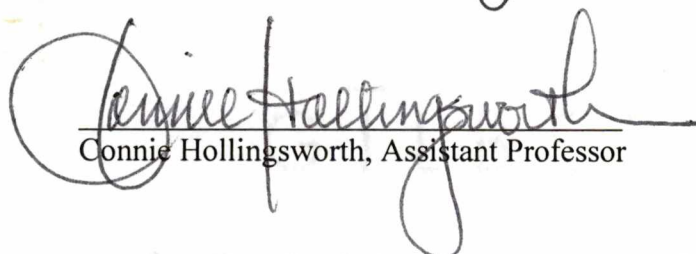


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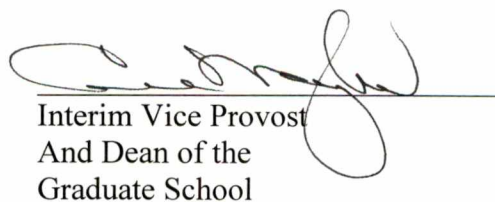


Virginia Kupritz, Assistant Professor



Connie Hollingsworth, Assistant Professor

Accepted for the Council



Interim Vice Provost
And Dean of the
Graduate School

**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB STRESS
AND JOB SATISFACTION IN LOWER
MANAGEMENT EMPLOYEES**

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

Rachel L. Jameson

August, 2001

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would first like to express my deep appreciation for the leadership, advice, and patience given by Dr. Ernest Brewer. I also wish to extend my sincere thanks to the other committee members, Dr. Connie Hollingsworth and Dr. Virginia Kupritz, for their guidance, suggestions, and encouragement through this process.

Thanks also goes to my former boss, whose encouragement and support pushed me to get started in this program, as well as to finish it. Also, without the assistance of numerous other former coworkers whose input formed the basis of this entire study, this project would have been nearly impossible to complete.

I would like to thank my parents, whose understanding, love, and encouragement, as well as generous financial support, helped see me through this project. Lastly, I would like to thank my husband, Steve, for his love and support, and for tolerating the inconveniences and hectic times I imposed on him, and for giving me the strength to finish this project.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to determine whether or not a lower management employee's levels of job satisfaction and job stress could be predictors of one another. Additionally, this study attempted to determine what effects a lower management employee's level of job stress and job satisfaction could have on his or her emotional and physical health. Data was collected from contract managers of a large, nationwide janitorial and maintenance facility.

The Job Satisfaction Survey and the Job Stress Survey were existing instruments chosen to evaluate the levels of job stress and job satisfaction in the respondents. The respondents were also asked to complete a health survey and a demographic questionnaire.

Results of this study indicated that demographic status played a very small role in respondents' levels of job stress. Total job satisfaction was influenced by the number of promotions the respondent had received with the current employer. Significant relationships between job satisfaction and health were found. When compared with all six health variables, total job satisfaction influenced all but absences from work due to illness. Significant relationships existed between all aspects of job stress and total job satisfaction.

Implications and recommendations for further research in this area are discussed. The current trend for present day companies is to continue growing, developing, merging, and downsizing to keep up with global competition. Companies should take a vested interest in the effects these changes have upon their employees.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

“People now work longer hours and more days per year than ever before, leading to an unparalleled rise in employee stress” (Chatterjee, 1999, p. 18). Minter (1999) also found that approximately 7.9 million workers held multiple jobs. Dua (1994) has shown that work stress is associated with susceptibility to illness. Other studies have shown that when workers were highly satisfied with their jobs, productivity increased. Stress can be defined as “the nonspecific response of the body to any demand” (Sharpley, Reynolds, Acosta, & Dua, 1996, p. 73). If these responses increase in intensity or frequency, they could upset the body’s natural equilibrium, resulting in decreased human productivity in the workplace. Additionally, illness and disease have been associated with an over-abundance of stress-responses (Sharpley et al.).

In today’s economic and technological environment, organizational change is inevitable (Marcus, 1996). Marcus found that the drastically changing economy has dictated a need to restructure a company to keep up with global competition. According to Kleiman (1989), a study conducted by the U.S. Bureau of the Census stated there were three major workplace changes happening today:

1. Changes in organizational structure. These were usually mergers, acquisitions, or downsizing (rightsizing).
2. Changes in technology and the way work is done. These changes were often the result of computerization, automation, or both.
3. Changes in the workforce profile. There were more older workers in the current workforce. There was a much more culturally diverse workforce, and there were more combinations of highly educated and illiterate people.

Other researchers found that organizational change could have a negative impact on a company's human resources. Ashford (1988) found that employees generally reacted negatively to the state of uncertainty about organizational change and how it will affect their careers and daily activities. Organizational change causes significant disruption of an individual's work life. Usually, after a change is implemented, production decreases sharply (Kleiman, 1989). Change often triggered fear of the unknown, and employees frequently reacted to any type of organizational restructuring attempts with uncertainty, anxiety, and disruption (Carr, 1989). Productivity and accuracy generally declined drastically during periods of change because people were worried about survival, loss of status, and loss of current position (Kleiman). Absenteeism generally increased due to illness and job hunting. Cooper and Cartwright (1994) found that U.S. industry lost approximately 550 million working days per year due to absenteeism. They further discovered that 54% of these absences were somehow related to stress. Under these conditions, organizations cannot meet financial or product goals and may eventually drop out of the global competition.

In the midst of a growing economy, more than 43 million jobs have been eliminated over the past two decades; and approximately 35% of laid-off workers found equal or better paying jobs (Minter, 1999). An organization must be concerned with the effects that any change implementation process had on its employees. Research pertaining to the psychological effects of restructuring on employees showed that these employees were more likely to have negative reactions towards their employers. They were more likely to feel as though their employers betrayed them in the areas of job

security, input into decision-making, opportunities for advancement, and amount of responsibility than were other workers (Turnley & Feldman, 1998).

Statement of the Problem

Because job satisfaction has been associated with reduced depression and anxiety and improved mental health (Daley & Parfitt, 1996), it is important for employers to recognize sources of employee job stress and of job dissatisfaction. Health implications of employee stress is a problem of significant interest to the entire global economy, as it has great impact on the employee vs. employer relationship and in turn, the company vs. customer relationship. Stress causes employees to suffer mentally and physically, resulting in a reduction in work quality and in work quantity (Dua, 1994).

Numerous studies have investigated the prevalence and causes of stress among school teachers (Gugliemi & Tatrow, 1998). The level of job satisfaction among school teachers also has been considerably researched (Benmansour, 1998). It has been argued that excessive teacher stress could interfere with teachers' performance and, consequently, with the entire educational process (Borg & Riding, 1991). Further evidence has suggested that lower levels of teacher stress are related to improved teaching effectiveness and to higher attainment scores (Borg & Riding).

Researchers attributed a wide range of health effects to work stress, including increased risks of cardiovascular disease, musculoskeletal disorders, psychological disorders, and gastrointestinal disorders (Sharpley et al., 1996). Ashford (1988) found that some employees coped with the stress of organizational change by (a) verbally venting their frustration, (b) smoking, (c) overeating, and (d) acting impulsively. Some

researchers found that workplace stress even contributed to the increased incidence of workplace injuries (Minter, 1999).

Purpose of the Study

Since today's global economy is dictating the need for organizational restructuring to keep up with the global competition (Marcus, 1996), it is important for employers to understand the implications these changes could have for their employees. Symptoms of burnout and of job dissatisfaction included reduced productivity, frequent absenteeism, low morale, and high turnover (Sweeney, 1997).

The purpose of this study was to determine whether or not lower management employee's levels of job stress and of job satisfaction could be predictors of one another. Additionally, this study helped to determine what effects lower management employees' level of job stress and job satisfaction could have had on his or her health and well-being.

A very specific part of the general population was chosen to be represented in this study. Lower management employees were selected for this study because they represent an integral part of their company's structure, and because their job performance has a direct bearing on its survival. Additionally, lower management employees form a "bridge" between the upper level corporate decision makers and manual laborers, whose job performance is the foundation for the company as well as for the entire janitorial industry. The sample used in this study was drawn from a nationwide commercial janitorial and maintenance firm, headquartered in Knoxville, Tennessee.

Objectives of the Study

The objectives of this study were to determine the effects of job stress on lower management employees' job satisfaction. Additionally, this study investigated the effects of job satisfaction on lower management employees' health. The following objectives were addressed in this study:

1. To identify and measure levels of job stress in corporate, lower management employees.
2. To identify and measure levels of job satisfaction in corporate, lower management employees.
3. To identify sources of poor health in corporate, lower management employees.
4. To identify any relationships between job stress and job satisfaction in lower management employees.

Null Hypotheses

This study explored the relationship between job stress, job satisfaction, and health. Measures of job stress, job satisfaction, and health were taken from contract managers employed at a nationwide janitorial company. In addition to the four research objectives, five null hypotheses were developed:

- H₀1: Lower management employees had no difference in employment status, marital status, ethnicity, gender, education level, number of years with employer, number of years as contract manager, and number of promotions as measured by the Job Stress Survey (JSS1).
- H₀2: Lower management employees had no difference in employment status, marital status, ethnicity, gender, education level, number of years with employer, number of years as contract manager, and number of promotions as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS2).
- H₀3: Lower management employees' levels of job stress, as measured by the Job Stress Survey (JSS1), had no effect on their health and well-being.

H₀4: Lower management employees' levels of job satisfaction, as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS2), had no effect on their health and well-being.

H₀5: There was no relationship between lower management employees' levels of job stress, as measured by the Job Stress Survey (JSS1), and job satisfaction, and measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS2).

Research Limitations, Delimitations, and Assumptions

The researcher has outlined the following limitations, delimitations, and assumptions which should be noted when interpreting this study or attempting to duplicate its results.

Limitations

The respondents in this study represented a diverse group of individuals. They differed in their geographical location, educational level, and occupational design. Although valuable information was gained through such a diverse sample, the following limitations of this study that should be recognized when interpreting the results:

1. The study did not address individual differences among the participants, including but not limited to geographic location, gender, varying job duties, or current employment status.
2. Data were limited to information gained through a mailed survey.
3. The information may have been biased by differences between those who chose to respond and those who did not.
4. The information may have been biased by differences between those contract managers who had recently been laid off and those who were still employed.
5. The study did not address other variables that may have had a negative effect on the health of its participants, such as high susceptibility to illness or domestic factors.
6. The low response rate (34%) could have occurred because the population from which the sample was drawn recently experienced a significant

downsizing event. Victims of the lay-off may have been reluctant to respond due to detachment of their occupational loyalties. Additionally, the low response rate may impact the internal validity of the study.

7. The target group for the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS1) is unknown. Therefore, it was possible that some non-respondents may have found the JSS1 too complicated to respond to.

Delimitations

The information contained in this study can be generalized to other similar samples. The respondents in this study were restricted to a specific level of management within a specific company. The delimitations of this study that should be recognized when interpreting the results included the following:

1. The sample in this study was restricted to lower management employees of a large, full-facility maintenance company.
2. The sample in this study was restricted to participants of a corporation that was involved in a company-wide restructuring process.

Assumptions

The researcher's cover letter to the respondents stressed the importance of their individual responses to the survey items. Additionally, the cover letter guaranteed the confidentiality of their responses. Therefore, the following assumptions should be recognized when interpreting the results of this study:

1. The study assumed that all participants answered the surveys truthfully and that all supplied accurate personal information.
2. The study assumed that any negative health effects reported by respondents could have been due to their working environment.

Terms and Definitions

Several terms are utilized in the literature review as well as in the present study.

The following terms and definitions should be recognized and understood when reviewing the following related research, as well as interpreting the results of the present research.

1. **Job Stress:** Refers to an individual's realization that he or she is unable to deal adequately with the demands placed upon him or her by one or more challenging aspect of his or her work environment (Dua, 1994). For purposes of this research, job stress refers to stress that has been built up over a period of time, possibly leading to emotional responses that could affect physical and mental health (Schamer & Jackson, 1996).
2. **Burnout:** Refers to a person's inability to adapt or cope effectively with a buildup of job stress (Schamer & Jackson, 1996). Burnout also refers to a reaction to chronic stress that involves negative interactions between environmental and personal characteristics (Hendrix, Acevedo, & Hebert, 2000). The burnout phenomenon is most common among professionals who work in human services fields (Schamer & Jackson).
3. **Job Satisfaction:** Sense of affective well-being that results from ability to achieve valued goals at work (Kelloway & Barling, 1991); degree of positive affect toward the overall job or its components (Weisman, Alexander, & Chase, 1980).
4. **Organizational Change:** Redesign of a company's hierarchical structure, including mergers, acquisitions, and downsizing (Kleiman, 1989).
5. **Health:** Warr (1990) proposes a definition of mental health consisting of five major components: affective well-being, competence, autonomy, aspiration, and integrated functioning" (Kelloway & Barling, 1991). Although there is a lack of a precise definition of this term, most researchers believe the nature of its interpretation is multi-faceted. For purposes of this study, the researcher was mainly concerned with affective well-being and integrated functioning as a definition of one's overall state of health.
6. **Contract Managers:** Contract Managers represented members of "lower management." In the corporate structure from which the sample was taken, Contract Managers designated the fifth level in the chain of command. Above them in ascending order was as follows: Group Managers, Senior Group

Managers, Vice-Presidents, and Executive Officers. Below them, in various capacities, were as follows: Site Supervisors, Technical Skilled Laborers, General Laborers, Electricians, Refrigeration and Air Conditioning Technicians, and Hospital Patient Aides.

7. Demographics: Descriptive variables used to provide personal information about the respondents' in the following areas: (a) employment, (b) marital status, (c) age, (d) ethnicity, (e) gender, (f) gender, and (g) educational background.

Research Methodology Overview

In this study, the researcher attempted to determine whether or not there was any correlational relationship between lower management employees' levels of job satisfaction and their levels of job stress. Additionally, this study attempted to determine whether or not any negative health implications suffered could have been contingent upon the lower management employees' levels of job satisfaction or job stress.

The sample was randomly selected from a population of contract managers from a nationwide, commercial janitorial and maintenance company. Respondents were asked to complete two surveys: the Job Stress Survey (JSS1) and the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS2). Questions pertaining to the individual's health were added to the end of the Job Satisfaction Survey. The researcher tallied the scores and the results were analyzed to determine whether or not any correlational relationships existed.

Instrumentation

The researcher chose two previously developed instruments for this study. The Job Stress Survey (JSS1) was a simple, self-reporting questionnaire, designed to determine the source of stress suffered by employees, as well as the severity and frequency of stressful occurrences. The second instrument was the Job Satisfaction

Survey (JSS2). This self-reporting questionnaire was designed to measure employees' feelings pertaining to specific situations in their work environment. The researcher also added several questions to the end of the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS2) to determine frequency of stress-related health symptoms possibly suffered by the respondents.

Data Collection and Analysis

The data were collected from a random sampling of contract managers from a large, nationwide, commercial janitorial, and maintenance facility. Each respondent received a packet of information containing a letter from the researcher regarding the study, the above-mentioned survey forms, and a self-addressed, stamped envelope in which to return the completed surveys. Approximately three weeks later, non-respondents were sent a reminder letter to encourage their participation in the study.

The data from all returned surveys were tallied by the researcher. The information was analyzed to determine whether or not any relationship existed between job stress and job satisfaction. Additionally, these variables were analyzed to determine whether or not any other correlations existed with the self-reported health condition of the employees.

Summary of Introduction

A study by Marcus (1996) found that many present-day companies were constantly changing their organizational structures to become better suited for global competition. Marcus also concluded that the economy was responsible for this change. Kleiman (1989) found that the implementation of technology played a part in dictating this need for change. Kleiman also found that today's workforce included more elderly workers and diversity; and the education gap between workers has been widening.

Unfortunately for these companies, restructuring processes could be taking their toll on the health of their employees (Sharpley et al., 1996).

The present research studied the effects of organizational change on a sample of lower management employees of a large janitorial and maintenance firm. The purpose of this research was to determine the relationship between lower management employees' levels of job stress, job satisfaction, and health. Employees were sent questionnaires designed to measure levels of job stress, job satisfaction, and health during organizational downsizing. Four research objectives and five null hypotheses were addressed. Although the researcher presumed the respondents job duties to be similar and their data to be accurate, several limitations, delimitations, and assumptions were disclosed. The researcher also defined several terms which should be recognized and understood when attempting to interpret or duplicate this research.

The sample for this research was drawn from a population of contract managers, which represented the lower management structure of a large janitorial company. Respondents were asked to complete a Job Stress Survey and a Job Satisfaction Survey. They were then asked to provide additional information regarding their demographic status and perceived health status. The data were collected and analyzed by the researcher.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The following related literature focused on current changing workplace trends dictated by the changing economy. Past research done in the areas of job satisfaction, job stress, and their implications on the health of employees were described. The following literature includes documentation on employee job stress, job satisfaction, and health implications in various occupational settings, including (a) human service professions, (b) educational professions, and (c) industrial professions. Several theoretical models have been proposed by past researchers in an attempt to understand the effects of job stress and job satisfaction on employees. Those models are described in greater detail in the following sections.

Theoretical Framework

Emotional exhaustion (feeling drained by client contact), depersonalization (feeling negative about or alienated from clients), and a sense of low personal accomplishment (a lack of work-related fulfillment or esteem) together represent the burnout phenomenon (Leiter, 1988). Iverson, Olekalns, and Erwin (1998) studied role stress, workload, autonomy, social support, and job satisfaction and how these factors influenced affectivity and absenteeism. Their research showed that a negative attitude resulted from increased workload, greater depersonalization, low social support, and low job satisfaction. Iverson et al. also found that a decreased workload, more personal relationships with coworkers or clients, high social support, and increased job satisfaction resulted in positive attitudes.

Unemployment levels have been at record lows (Minter, 1999). However, with a prosperous, global economy, a growing body of evidence has suggested job stress among employees has been at its highest (Chatterjee, 1999). Work stress has imposed enormous consequences on workers' well being, as well as on corporate profitability. Factors such as excessive workload, conflicting or uncertain job responsibilities, and job insecurity were main job stressors across many organizations. Minter found that job stress could be reduced through smart, strategic planning on working conditions and demands placed on workers.

Warr (1990) conducted a study of mental health and its relationship to behavioral transactions with the environment. He examined two major behavioral components: competence and aspiration. An individual who was competent was defined as one who has adequate psychological resources to deal with experienced difficulties. An aspiring person often was viewed as having interest in and engaging with the environment (Warr). This type of person exhibited motivating behavior in establishing goals and in making active efforts to attain them. Such a person also enthusiastically met new challenges that he or she found personally significant. Warr found that intrinsic job characteristics, such as skill use and personal control, were associated with reduced stimulation, while perceived workload could be associated with anxiety, rather than with depression.

During the past few decades, the notion that work and family were separate has been replaced by a recognition that work and family systems are in constant interplay (Swanson, 1999). This is due to the fact that there has been increasing numbers of women entering the workplace. Balancing the combined demands of work life and home life

provided a major challenge for both female and male workers. Swanson suggested that there has been an epidemic of stress-related disorders in the workplace that related to economic and demographic changes.

Proposed Theoretical Models

Over the past several years, several theoretical models have been proposed to address how and why job stress could lead to physiological or psychological strain. The *Person-Environment Fit Model*, developed at the University of Michigan in the mid 1970s, suggested that job stress resulted from a mismatch between the requirements of a job and the person's real or perceived ability to meet those demands (Guglielmi & Tatrow, 1998). Additionally, Kelloway and Barling (1991) suggested that individual perceptions of organizational characteristics have given rise to job-related affective well-being and perceptions of competence at work. Another model, the *Demand-Control Model*, suggested that job stress was caused by an unequal balance of job demands and decision latitude (Guglielmi & Tatrow). Kelloway and Barling found that job redesign, including increased control, resulted in increased psychological well-being. A third model, the *Effort-Reward Model* was similar to the Demand-Control Model in that when the amount of effort required and expended exceeded the occupational rewards attained, the individual experienced stress and suffered health problems (Guglielmi & Tatrow).

Past research has demonstrated that the presence or absence of certain job characteristics could lead to attitudinal and behavioral reactions, including job satisfaction, exhaustion, health complaints, illness, and disability (Kelloway & Barling, 1991). Karasek's (1979) *Job Demand-Control (JD-C) Model* assumed that the primary

sources of job stress were positioned within two basic characteristics of the job itself: psychological job demands and job decision latitude. Job decision latitude pertained to the amount of potential control an individual had over his tasks and conduct during the work day (Karasek). De Jonge, Van Breukelen, Landerweerd, and Nijhuis (1999) conducted a study using the JD-C Model and determined that individual assessments of job characteristics were important in predicating employee health. They also found that a redesign of work conditions to improve job satisfaction and work motivation could be beneficial to an entire organization as well as to individual employees.

Kahn and Byosiere (1992) reviewed McGrath's (1976) paradigm for analysis of the stress cycle. McGrath's model outlined a four-step sequence which began with an external situation and ended with an observation of the behavior of individuals. These four processes were: (a) appraisal, (b) decision making, (c) performance, and (d) outcome. These outcomes, in turn, affected the external situation.

Lazarus's (1981) model of theoretical schematization of the stress process was reviewed by Kahn and Byosiere (1992). The basis of this model focused on daily hassles as stressors, their relationship with cognitive factors that intervened between the external events, and their short term effects on emotions and behavior. This model was a result of a troubled relationship between person and environment, when the demands of the environment exceeded the person's perception of his or her resources to deal effectively with them.

A third model of organizational stress, Marshall and Cooper's (1979) model, was reviewed by Kahn and Byosiere (1992). This model outlined stressors that were

generated at work, five of which arose from the job design itself. These stressors included: (a) relationships with superiors and coworkers, (b) working conditions, (c) role in the organization, (d) organizational structure and climate, and (e) opportunities for career development. This model defined personality as a moderator between a job stressor and its effects on physical and mental health and organizational symptoms.

Job Stress and Health

Previous research has established a relatively consistent link between perceived role stress, satisfaction, and psychological well-being. A study by Tetrick and LaRocco (1987) proposed that understanding, predicting, and controlling work situations would have a profound effect on organizational life. They also proposed that perceived role stress would influence job satisfaction, which in turn would affect psychological well-being and that perceived role stress would directly influence psychological well-being. Tetrick and LaRocco found that perceived understanding and control of job characteristics appeared to moderate relationships involving other job characteristics and attitudes such as job satisfaction. Additionally, they inferred that the psychologically important aspects of one's role in the work environment could be understanding and control. Prediction was not found to moderate this relationship (Tetrick & LaRocco). Based on the results, it appeared that understanding of events, predictability of events, and control over outcomes in the work environment could serve as antidotes to occupational stress (Tetrick & LaRocco).

Ben-Ari (2000) studied the relationship of hours worked and stress-related health problems. This investigation found that the factors that reflected what reduced work

hours actually meant to an individual were significantly associated with job-stress related mental health outcomes and quality of life outcomes. In some cases, it was suggested that to decrease stress levels in some positions, fundamental changes in workplace culture may be required, rather than simply reducing work hours (Ben-Ari).

“Employees suffering from job burnout or job-related stress tend to have higher absenteeism rates, produce inferior work, and make costly mistakes” (Smith, 1999, p. 31). However, when compared with organizations of employees reporting less stress in their jobs, similar characteristics were found:

1. They provided recognition for good job performance.
2. They presented opportunities for career development.
3. Their management actions were consistent with organizational values.
4. They foster an organization culture that values individual workers (Smith).

Job factors that have contributed to employee stress have included role in organizations, lack of career development, poor relationships at work, and organizational culture (Dua, 1994). Daley and Parfitt (1996) believed that stress lowered emotional health. This is displayed as psychological distress, depression, or anxiety. Stress also had implications for physical health, which could be manifested as heart disease, insomnia, headaches, and lowered resistance to infections and viruses. This could strain the employer-customer relationships as well. Low job satisfaction has been associated with increased reports of depression and anxiety and an overall decline in mental health (Daley & Parfitt). Employee stress also had ramifications for the employer, such as job dissatisfaction, absenteeism, lower productivity, and poor work quality.

Smith (1999) found that workplace stress had several health ramifications, including an increased risk for cardiovascular disease, psychological disorders, and workplace injury. Early warning signs of job stress included headaches, sleep disturbances, difficulty concentrating, job dissatisfaction, and low morale.

Burnout is characterized by physical, emotional, and mental exhaustion, absence of job involvement, dehumanization, and lowered accomplishment (Freudenberger, 1974). The physical exhaustion component of burnout is evidenced by low energy, chronic, fatigue, weakness, and weariness. Burnout displayed itself through accident proneness, vulnerability to illness, frequent headaches, nausea, pains in various parts of the body, and changes in eating habits and weight. Emotional exhaustion is characterized by feelings of depression, helplessness, and a feeling of being trapped. In extreme cases, emotional exhaustion could lead to thoughts of suicide. Mental exhaustion involved the development of negative attitudes towards oneself, one's work, and one's life. Feelings of inadequacy, inferiority, and incompetence are evidenced in one's work. Mentally exhausted employees had a tendency to dehumanize clients, arrive late for work and leave early, extend breaks, or avoid work entirely (Weisberg & Sagie, 1999). Individuals suffering from burnout were no longer able to tolerate occupational pressures and felt completely overwhelmed with work stress. Eventually, they reached a breaking point. A researcher focusing on the impact of burnout among female teachers in Israel studied the intention to leave current jobs. Weisberg and Sagie categorized burnout variables as physical, emotional, or mental. They correlated these factors with intention to leave

teaching and found that intent to leave teaching was significantly correlated to elements of physical and mental exhaustion, but not to emotional exhaustion.

Some employers believed that job-related stress was a lame excuse used by poor performers who tried to exonerate themselves from blame and instead displaced it upon their employers. However, science has proven otherwise beyond a reasonable doubt (Shain, 1999). It has established an important relationship between employee stress of certain kinds, and health, safety, performance at work, and organizational efficiency (Shain). "The kind of stress that has been implicated in serious harm to employee health is not simply cumulative worries, annoyances, and concerns; rather, it is a specific set of conditions that are produced by the way work is organized and designed" (Shain, p. 40). If an organization could address these causes, employee stress could be reduced along with incidences of negative consequences, including increased illness, injuries, and absence from work. Additionally, there would be payoffs in increased morale, creativity, and productivity. Shain found that the health outcomes attributed to high-effort with low-reward conditions were similar to those attributed to high-demand with low-control conditions. Specifically, those health problems included: (a) doubled or tripled rate of heart and cardiovascular problems; (b) significantly higher rates of anxiety, depression, and demoralization; (c) significantly higher levels of alcohol consumption and prescription or over-the-counter drug use; (d) significantly higher susceptibility to a wide range of infectious diseases; (e) higher incidence of back pain; and (f) higher incidence of repetitive strain injuries (Shain). A combination of high-demand and low-control and high-effort and low-reward conditions could also contribute to the development of

colorectal cancer. Shain also found that people experiencing such adverse conditions had over five times the rate of colorectal cancer than did individuals experiencing low-demand with high control and low-effort with high reward type jobs (Shain).

Job Satisfaction and Health

Job satisfaction is related to success, creativity, pride in one's work, overcoming challenges, and accomplishing something useful (Dehaas, 1999). Job dissatisfaction resulted from being responsible for the outcome, but having little or no authority to change the process. Dissatisfied employees could be detrimental to an organization's operations by causing declines in morale, productivity, quality, commitment, and energy (Dehaas). In extreme cases, some burnt out employees have sabotaged equipment or their work (Smith, 1999).

Job satisfaction is the most frequently studied aspect of job-related affective well-being (Kelloway & Barling, 1991). Watson, Pennebaker, and Folger (1986) found that factors producing job satisfaction and dissatisfaction were distinct and independent. For example, "motivators", such as achievement, responsibility, and nature of work, produce job satisfaction, while "hygienes", such as benefits, working conditions, and interpersonal relations, generated job dissatisfaction. However, Watson et al. also suggested that one's perception of job stress and job satisfaction is influenced by his or her negative or positive attitude. Their research is unclear as to what extent the specific job factors affect one's negative or positive attitude.

The impact of work and work environment on individual health and well-being has been widely documented in psychological literature, and numerous researchers have

attempted to determine the relationship between organizational characteristics and job dissatisfaction (Kelloway & Barling, 1991). Kelloway and Barling attempted to determine the causal factors between specific job characteristics and job-related well-being. They proposed a model of job-related mental health based on these particular characteristics and their effects on one's physical and mental health. Kelloway and Barling hypothesized that both work satisfaction and personal accomplishments could be predicted by specific job characteristics. The job characteristics included in Kelloway and Barling's model were: (a) autonomy, (b) task variety, (c) task identity, (d) feedback from job, and (d) feedback from coworkers. They also hypothesized that specific role stressors, such as role ambiguity and role conflict, would be predictors of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and work satisfaction (Kelloway & Barling). Kelloway and Barling's study on approximately 2,300 Canadian hospital employees showed that emotional exhaustion was predicated on role ambiguity and role conflict, and that work satisfaction was caused by both task characteristics and role stressors. Additionally, Kelloway and Barling's results suggested that one's perceptions of task characteristics give rise to job-related, affective well-being and one's imagined competence. These variables were predictors of one's mental health. Kelloway and Barling proposed that these results supported a need for job redesign to improve mental health.

Job satisfaction has been associated with reductions in depression and anxiety and improvements in overall mental health (Daley & Parfitt, 1996). Daley and Parfitt found that moderately active clerical workers in an insurance company reported significantly lower levels of anxiety and depression than seldomly active and inactive subjects.

Edwards and Harrison (1993) replicated an earlier study in which they found that job dissatisfaction, work-load dissatisfaction, boredom, and depression increased as role ambiguity increased. Additionally, too little responsibility for persons was related to increased dissatisfaction and boredom, while excess responsibility for others was associated with increased work-load dissatisfaction and anxiety (Edwards & Harrison).

In a study of adult men in full-time employment, Pearson (1998) found that job satisfaction and leisure satisfaction were significant positive predictors of psychological health. Pearson measured job satisfaction in five areas: work, pay, promotions, supervision, and coworkers. Although job satisfaction was the more significant predictor of psychological health, leisure satisfaction also was important. Adding validity to the results of previous studies, Pearson found a significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and psychological health, that supported the assumption that people experience higher levels of psychological health when they are satisfied with their jobs, especially when they are satisfied with their leisure time as well.

One indication of life satisfaction was a high level of psychological health (Petrovski & Gleeson, 1997). In a study examining the relationship between job satisfaction and psychological health in people with intellectual disabilities, researchers sought to test the "spillover" effect. The hypothesis stated that job satisfaction was a predictor of life satisfaction (Petrovski & Gleeson). Results of this study showed a significant negative correlation between job satisfaction and low self-esteem. Additionally, there was a moderate significant correlation between job satisfaction and

loneliness, with females perceiving significantly greater loneliness at work than males (Petrovski & Gleeson).

Job Stress and Job Satisfaction in Human Service Fields

High levels of perceived stress and burnout have been reported in a variety of professions. It can have a particularly profound effect on those working in human service and other helping professions. In a recent study of athletic trainers, Hendrix, Acevedo, and Hebert (2000) found that high frequency and intensity levels of burnout were associated with role conflict, role ambiguity, a greater number of athletes to care for, a decreased resource base, and a greater number of hours needed to provide for the athletes. Additional stressors included high athlete to athletic trainer ratio, minimal financial support, and dual role responsibilities. Relationships to athletes, parents, coaches, administrators, and physicians also affected the stress levels in athletic trainers. Hendrix et al. also found perceived stress to be a significant predictor of emotional exhaustion. Additionally, older individuals and females reported higher levels of emotional exhaustion than did younger individuals or men, most likely because they tended to be more nurturing towards those with whom they work. On the other hand, men tended to report slightly higher scores on depersonalization than did women (Hendrix et al.).

A recent study by Geurts, Schaufeli, and De Jonge (1998) investigated burnout and intention to leave a job through a social psychological perspective. Burnout is recognized as a chronic and extensive problem in the human services field; and it is evidenced by high turnover rates, sometimes exceeding 60% (Geurts et al.). Emotional exhaustion, generally considered to be key to burnout syndrome, is thought to trigger two

types of withdrawal reactions: “psychological” withdrawal, or depersonalization, and “behavioral” withdrawal, the intention to leave the organization (Geurts et al.). Geurts et al. found that thoughts about leaving an organization are directly triggered by negative discussions concerning management and that repeated negative discussions strengthened this phenomenon. These feelings had a tendency to develop when individual workers perceived a lack of reciprocity in their employment relationship and when they received information from their colleagues that was consistent with their perceptions. “When work demands begin to take their toll, human service employees reacted by distancing themselves from the source of stress” (Geurts et al., p. 346). Past research has indicated that burnout could affect the most caring and involved of workers because they were the ones for whom a discrepancy between experience and expectation mattered most.

A study on job satisfaction of social workers by Marriott et al. (1994) revealed that staffing costs were high in the health care industry, due to the amount spent on personnel issues. Freudenberger (1974) proposed the concept of burnout to explain why human service workers lost their effectiveness over time and could choose to exit the profession. Job satisfaction issues were critically important in health care settings, due to the direct relationship between satisfaction and performance in human services work. Low job satisfaction and high work stress were correlated with high job turnover, high absenteeism, and decreased patient progress (Marriott et al.).

In a study of healthcare professionals from a large naval medical hospital, Tetric and LaRocco (1987) found that a direct relationship existed between job satisfaction and one’s ability to control events in the workplace. Their research showed that when their

subjects were able to understand and control their own working conditions, a positive relationship developed between perceived role stress and psychological well-being.

Job Stress and Job Satisfaction in Blue-Collar Industries

Numerous studies also have been conducted on job stress in industrial type settings and past research as indicated that blue-collar workers were especially at high risk for negative stress (Clegg, Wall, & Kemp, 1987). This was primarily because in order to remain competitive, manufacturing industries have relied increasingly on technology (Martin & Wall, 1989). These technologies required minimal operator intervention, yet their smooth operation is dependent on their operator's alertness and responses to unexpected difficulties. Although these jobs typically produced boredom, researchers found that the high level of attentional demand and immense responsibility placed on the worker could negatively influence psychological and physiological well-being (Martin & Wall). A study by Cobb and Rose (1973) found that air-traffic controllers suffered from unusually high levels of hypertension and peptic ulcers. This could be attributed to the high attention required for this job, as well as to the high cost of error. Among several different occupations reflecting high levels of somatic complaints, anxiety, and depression, assembly line workers and machine tenders were included. Martin and Wall studied psychological strain on shopfloor workers who were influenced by the high level of attentional demand and cost responsibility. After working in a job with high cost of error coupled with high levels of boredom, employees' reports of job-related anxiety, job-related depression, pressure, worry about damage, and general mental health were significantly worse than they were in all other conditions. Employees could

cope with either the high attentional demand condition *or* the high responsibility condition, but not with both (Martin & Wall).

Clegg, Wall, and Kemp (1987) studied the effects of job satisfaction on absenteeism and mental health of women assembly line workers. They found that assembly line workers experienced lower job satisfaction than did non-assembly line workers, but that there was a significant positive effect of social support. Clegg et al. suggested that low job satisfaction could be because people in highly repetitive jobs experienced low demands in combination with low opportunities for socializing. Additionally, they found a high level of daydreaming to compensate for lack of stimulation.

Past studies on employees of residential facilities revealed that workers in large and small residential facilities reported lower levels of job satisfaction than industrial workers (Buckhalt, Marchetti, & Bearden, 1990). Additionally, Buckhalt et al. found that staff employed by community facilities were generally more satisfied than were those employed by public facilities. Factors affecting job satisfaction were intrinsic (related to use of abilities and skills) rather than extrinsic (compensation and amount of work) (Buckhalt et al.). Buckhalt et al. found that employees in residential facilities tended to have similar dissatisfactions with salary and opportunities for advancement. It is assumed that people who continued to work in these facilities did so for intrinsic rewards.

Job Stress and Job Satisfaction in Educational Settings

Certain professions appeared to be susceptible to stress and its effects more than others were. For instance, teaching has become increasingly thought to be a highly

stressful occupation (Ray & Miller, 1991). Ray and Miller found that symptoms of stress included (a) high absenteeism, (b) lack of commitment, (c) an abnormal desire for vacations, (d) low self-esteem, (e) an inability to take teaching school seriously, and (f) general feelings of personal distress. If the individual's stress levels were not reduced, the person was likely to withdraw from social activities; and both his or her effectiveness as a teacher and his or her health were likely to decline (Ray & Miller).

There has been widespread consideration about occupational stress and low job satisfaction (Dua, 1994). "Work-related stress is of growing concern because it has significant economic implications for organizations through employee dissatisfaction, lowered productivity, and lowered emotional and physical health of the employees" (Dua, p. 59). The general conclusion has been that organizational characteristics influenced both physical and psychological well-being (Kelloway & Barling, 1991). The educational system has become the target of much research regarding difficult working conditions, heightened job pressure, and reduced professional satisfaction, resulting in the growing prevalence of teacher burnout and stress. A 1998 literature review by Guglielmi and Tatrow found that occupational stress and burnout had been found to be associated with poor health in teachers. However, studies of teacher stress and burnout appeared to be still in beginning stages (Guglielmi & Tatrow) and many unsuccessful attempts have been made to identify a causal relationship. This research represented an effort to duplicate previous research on teacher' job satisfaction, job stress, and health implications.

Numerous studies about occupational stress and low job satisfaction have been conducted among teachers in various educational settings throughout the world (Benmansour, 1998; Borg & Riding, 1991; Sharpley et al., 1996). These studies usually reported that a considerable number of teachers rated their jobs as either very stressful or extremely stressful (Benmansour). Investigating the level of job satisfaction among teachers has also attracted considerable attention. For example, Benmansour studied coping strategies among Moroccan high school teachers. That study found that, although 45% of the teachers were satisfied with their jobs, 58% of the teachers reported high levels of stress. Teachers attributed their high levels of job satisfaction to the communication and relationships they established with students, colleagues, and administrative staff, the subjects they taught, and the professional experience they acquired. Additionally, their job satisfaction was negatively impacted by the curriculum, manuals, lack of facilities and resources, their financial situations, and the social status associated with the educational field (Benmansour). Other major sources of stress described by Moroccan high school teachers included the fact that decisions and changes about the curriculum were imposed on them and that they had hardly any influence on what to teach, how to teach, and how much time to spend on teaching the various subjects (Benmansour). Results indicated that there was a significant negative correlation between job satisfaction and occupational stress (Benmansour). Further, job satisfaction correlated positively and significantly with coping strategy. Additional research suggested that employee fitness programs could decrease absenteeism among employees, increase productivity, and decrease health care costs (Daley & Parfitt, 1996).

Borg and Riding (1991) also researched teacher stress and satisfaction, evidencing the cross-cultural nature of this problem. Implications of the problem transcended the concern for the teacher's well-being due to the adverse effects that the prolonged experience of stress could have on his/her mental and physical health. Borg and Riding's study of Maltese secondary school teachers, like previous research, indicated that teachers were experiencing high levels of stress as well as high levels of job satisfaction. Borg and Riding's results also indicated the role that different school contexts and teacher responsibilities may play in the teachers' stress perceptions. Greater stress was reported by teachers with additional responsibilities who taught in boys' schools as compared to girls' schools. Additionally, the intention to leave teaching was greater among teachers in boys' schools as compared to those in girls' schools (Borg & Riding). Borg and Riding also found a significant negative relationship between teacher stress and job satisfaction, with teachers who reported greater stress also reporting lower job satisfaction. They also found positive correlations between teacher stress and frequency of absences and total days absent.

Dua (1994) investigated the nature and effects of stress in a university setting. Emotional health was measured in terms of psychological distress and apparent negative anxiety. Physical health was examined through absences from work, number of doctor visits, and general physical illness. High job stress and high non-work stress were associated with low emotional health, low physical health, and high job dissatisfaction. Dua found that the relationship between job stress, health, and job dissatisfaction remained significant even after controlling for non-work stress factors. Further, both job

stress and non-work stress were associated with high job dissatisfaction, more absences from work, more doctor visits, more illness, low self-reported physical health, high psychological distress, and more anxiety. Similar tests were performed for specific job stress factors. Job stress was associated with low emotional health, low physical health, and high job dissatisfaction. Stress due to workload and university reorganization was not significantly associated with absence from work and doctor visits, but it was associated with other health measures and job dissatisfaction. Dua's research also showed that stress due to work politics and interpersonal dealings at work and working conditions was associated with all the measures of health and job dissatisfaction except doctor visits.

Previous studies in educational settings indicated that at least one major taskforce report found job dissatisfaction and overall unhappiness to be stronger predictors of coronary heart disease than were any of the traditional risk factors, such as blood pressure, cholesterol, and lack of exercise (Sharpley, Reynolds, Acosta, & Dua, 1996). Previous research also indicated that higher levels of job stress are associated with dissatisfaction regarding work, psychological distress, negative affect, anxiety, and poor health, as measured by absences through illness, visits to a medical practitioner, and self-rating of overall physical health (Sharpley et al.). Sharpley et al. found that high job stress was significantly and directly associated with anxiety, daily hassle, days absent, visits to medical practitioners, and injuries, accidents, and illnesses. Similarly, staff members experiencing high job stress rated their own health lower than did staff members with low levels of job stress.

Barnes, Agago, and Coombs (1998) investigated the relationship between job-related stress and faculty intent to leave academia. Five variables were studied: (a) reward satisfaction, (b) institutional or departmental reputation, (c) time commitment, (d) departmental or institutional influence, and (e) student interaction. Past research in this area showed that career, age, gender, organizational decline, campus governance, organizational satisfaction, and career satisfaction had significant effects on faculty intent to leave the institution (Barnes et al.). Researchers found that the two most important predictors of faculty intent to leave academia were a sense of frustration due to time commitments and lack of sense of community at one's institution. Other job factors that contributed to organizational stress included poor working conditions, work overloads, role conflicts and role ambiguities, poor relations and party politics, and lack of opportunity to participate in the decision-making processes.

Cloud (1991) believed that nowhere was the stress level higher than in public colleges and universities. During the last decade, limited resources and declining revenues in higher education have caused reductions in the workforce, frozen salary levels, reduced employee benefits, and increased workloads in many institutions. Additionally, administrative decisions have also brought about deferred building maintenance, reduced funding for equipment and supplies, and program eliminations (Cloud). The average term for a college president has declined from 11 years in 1960 to 7 years in 1983 (Cloud). Furthermore, Cloud found that college administrators were particularly vulnerable to excessive occupational stress because they interacted continually in this people-centered profession.

Hersi (1993) has done extensive research on women in education, particularly in the areas of job stress, work support, and job satisfaction. In her studies, Hersi found that women were particularly vulnerable to stress in the workplace, mainly because when they left work, they still had to run households, raise children, and take care of older relatives. When women attempted to communicate the frustrations of their dual-roles and to request additional support, they often were perceived as complaining, overly emotional, and incompetent (Hersi). Hersi also found that high levels of job dissatisfaction caused low levels of productivity, decreased motivation and morale, and high absenteeism. All these factors contributed to a general feeling of uneasiness within the organization and a lowered level of prestige in female employees (Hersi). The despair suffered by women in higher education also could be because although women now receive equal pay and employment opportunities, their overall status has not progressed significantly over the past two decades (Hersi). Professional respect from others was found to be a predictor of overall job satisfaction (Marriot et al., 1994). General factors contributing to stress among women in the workplace included low pay, work conditions, tight resources, lessened mobility, growth in available part-time positions, and high self-expectations. As a result, Hersi found that women experienced more headaches, depression, and role conflict than did their male colleagues. The extreme influence of stress over time often resulted in premature resignation of top women executives, as well as in the destruction of their mental and physical health, sometimes causing stress-related death.

Stress was thought to be a contributing factor to drug use by adults. Watts and Short (1990) examined the relationship between occupational stress and drug use,

especially in the teaching profession. Teacher burnout was found to be indicated by anger, paranoia, risk-taking, drug use, rigidity, cynicism, and depression (Freudenberger, 1974). Previous studies revealed that depending on personal characteristics, such as flexibility versus rigidity, and social support, individuals would react to job stress factors with varying degrees of strain. Watts and Short found that job dissatisfaction, low self-actualization, job tension, elevated heart rate, and other physiological and attitudinal symptoms were indicators of this reaction. The known consequences of job stress included burnout and health problems, such as higher accident and morbidity rates, heart disease, and smoking (Watts & Short).

Since work-related stress was predicated to be related to drug use among teachers, Watts and Short surveyed a group of teachers in the Texas area. They found that amphetamine and marijuana use among teachers was correlated with job stress variables. Watts and Short further determined that marijuana use was correlated with job overload, while amphetamine use is specifically correlated with stress caused by academic relations and position dissatisfaction. Alcohol use also was found to be associated with job overload. Additionally, older and more experienced teachers were more prone to amphetamine use (Watts & Short) than were younger teachers. Amphetamine users also were more likely to express a desire to quit the teaching profession. Watts and Short found that, while 23% of teachers in their sample were dissatisfied with their present position, over 66% expressed a desire to leave the profession.

One of the few published studies focusing exclusively on burnout in band directors found that a variety of factors contributed to job dissatisfaction, including

student apathy, discipline problems, conflicts with other teachers and with school administrators, concert performances, inadequate equipment and facilities, and insufficient time to accomplish designated tasks (Heston, Dedrick, Raschke, & Whitehead, 1996). Additionally, 79% of the 245 band directors surveyed (Heston et al.) reported using unhealthy coping strategies, such as alcohol, tobacco, and coffee to combat stress. Heston et al. found that the greatest source of job satisfaction for band directors in the study was the enthusiasm, performance skills, and musical competencies exhibited by their students. Additionally the variables reported as most stressful were negative student attitudes, inappropriate student behaviors, and heavy teaching load.

The Spillover Effect

Use of the spillover model of work effects led investigators to infer that work had important effects on the behavior of workers in nonwork settings (Martin & Roman, 1996). Previous researchers have indicated that differential patterns of alcohol use by employed people represented a convergence between complex psychosocial behavior and work. Other evidence suggested a link between stressful jobs and use of alcohol. Consumption of alcohol by employees as an effective coping mechanism or stress moderator has sometimes been facilitated by stressful job characteristics. Martin and Roman developed and tested a work-related model of problem drinking behaviors. The random sample was selected from full-time workers, aged 18 or older. Martin and Roman's findings indicated that in the presence of job rewards and stressors, workers made an attitudinal accommodation to their work that was reflected in overall levels of

job satisfaction, that, in turn, influenced their drinking behaviors. They also found that satisfied workers were less likely to become problem drinkers.

There has been research on the effects of parents' job stress on their children's development. Galambos, Sears, Almeida, and Kolaric (1995) discovered that of three types of work strains (work overload, low rewards, and low work status), work overload was the strongest predictor of work stress. They applied the spillover model in their research, hypothesizing that the parents' feelings of stress could have some adverse implications for the quality of parent-child relationships. Past research has suggested that parental stress is associated with less sensitivity to the child, less parental involvement with the child, and higher levels of parent-child conflict (Galambos et al.). In turn, the child's welfare could be associated with a broad array of problematic behaviors, including lower social and intellectual competence, less behavioral independence, lower self-esteem, and less internalized controls. The survey conducted by Galambos et al. included 105 sixth graders and their parents. Their research showed that more work overload among mothers and fathers was associated with higher stress. Higher stress among mothers was associated with low mother acceptance. Less accepting behaviors shown toward adolescents were correlated with increases in adolescents' problematic behavior. High stress among fathers, however, was linked to their global stress, and that was related to higher parent-adolescent conflict. This conflict also resulted in increases in adolescents' problem behavior (Galambos et al.). Interestingly, these findings could have ramifications on the future of workforce and national economy.

Additional research on the spillover effect has suggested that job-related stress could be particularly immobilizing because of its potential threats to family functioning. Researchers found that fathers who were experiencing financial strain or job insecurity were less likely to exhibit nurturing behaviors towards their children than were fathers who were not encountering financial strain or job distress. Wilson, Larson, and Stone (1993) studied the effects of stress caused by job insecurity on faculty members at a university. Effects on employees' spouses were also examined. Past researchers have found that husbands' job stressors had a negative impact on the emotional health of their wives. The wives suffered elevated psychological distress in response to their husbands work-related stress (Wilson et al.). Since research data has shown that job insecurity has affected emotional well-being, employees who experienced problems such as anxiety and uncertainty about their jobs were more likely to seek psychiatric help during stressful phases. Physical health problems could also be caused by financial strains. Wilson et al. found that when financial strains were absent, health problems were reduced by 50%. Wilson et al. also found that younger employees and their spouses experienced higher levels of stress due to perceived job insecurity than did older employees.

Summary

The literature review examined past conducted in the areas of job satisfaction and job stress. It also explored some of the implications these factors may have on one's health and well-being. Several models were proposed by Kelloway and Barling (1991) and Gugliemi and Tatrow (1998) to show how and why job stress and job satisfaction could lead to physiological or psychological strain.

Job stress and job satisfaction were explored separately, each with its own ramifications on worker's health. Characteristics of employees of organizations that actually reported low levels of stress also were mentioned.

Job stress and job satisfaction also was studied across several different occupational industries: (a) education and other teaching professions, (b) human service and healthcare occupations, and (c) blue-collar and industrial settings. These industries represented the occupational areas from which the researcher's sample is drawn.

Finally, the spillover effect from work to nonwork settings was discussed. This discussion also included implications for other family members, especially spouses and children of the workers and eventually the future of the entire U.S. workforce.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURES

The present research was conducted in a large company that employs approximately 8,000 people in various capacities ranging from executive, administrative, management, and manual labor departments. The population represented the lower management level. These individuals were in charge of managing a public facility, including but not limited to, colleges and universities, elementary schools, malls and other shopping centers, hospitals and healthcare facilities, and industrial and manufacturing facilities. Most of them conduct 24 hours per day, 7 days per week operations and all maintain a high level of both client and public contact. The employees in their charge include, but are not limited to, maintenance people, electricians, air conditioning and refrigeration technicians, hospital patient aides, janitors, and administrative assistants.

Research Population, Sampling Frame and Sample Procedures

The following paragraphs detail the researcher's methods of selecting the sample represented in this study. Further, information is provided on the respondents' occupational backgrounds and demographic statuses.

Population

The sample was drawn from full-time employees who worked as contract managers of a nationwide, full-facility maintenance company. The researcher gathered names of contract managers from the above mentioned divisions' administrative pools.

Sampling Frame

Two hundred eighty four subjects were selected randomly from a population of approximately five hundred contract managers. This included 25% more subjects than needed to compensate for possible low response rate. This sample included individuals of both sexes and various age categories, as well as diverse cultural backgrounds.

Additionally, the sample represented a vast geographical region, as the company's U.S. locations are spread throughout thirty-four states.

Sample Procedures

The researcher designed a cover letter to explain the purpose of the study and to encourage participation. The cover letter contained a section for approval of the study by the Human Resources Director of the company from which the sample was drawn. The researcher also encouraged participation by indicating that each response received would be added to a drawing for a gift certificate from a national home improvement center.

Each subject received a questionnaire package including: (a) cover letter (Appendix A), (b) Job Stress Survey, (c) Job Satisfaction Survey and Health Survey (Appendix B), (d) demographic questionnaire (Appendix C) and (d), a pre-addressed, stamped, return envelope. The packets were mailed January 9, 2001. The researcher asked for the surveys to be sent back by January 30, 2001. The anonymity and confidentiality of all respondents was guaranteed by coding each response with a numerical value instead of the name. The cover letter advised the respondents that their names would be indicated to the researcher by an identification number written on the bottom corner of the return envelope. Approximately three weeks after questionnaire

distribution, a reminder letter (Appendix D) was mailed to each contract manager who had not yet responded. The reminder letters asked for all surveys to be returned by the end of February, at which time the drawing would be held. Both the original cover letter and the reminder letter provided the researcher's e-mail address to which respondents could direct any questions or comments.

Research Data Collection Methodology

Data was collected through self-reporting questionnaires. Packets of materials were sent to the participants, along with self-addressed, stamped envelopes for returning the data. All data were tallied by the researcher, and the ANOVAs were performed across all variables.

Instruments Used in the Study

The researcher selected two instruments for this study. The first was the Job Stress Survey (JSS1). The JSS1 was an existing questionnaire based upon the more extensive 1988 Occupational Stress Indicator (Cooper & Cartwright, 1994) and was used to measure the nature of stress in organizations by identifying its source, as well as its severity and frequency of occurrence. Consisting of three scales, the JSS1 included a ten-item subscale that measured components of occupational stress associated with the job itself, lack of support from supervisors, and policies and procedures of the organization. The JSS1 also allowed the researcher to compare stress levels among respondents in different divisions of the company. Individual items on the JSS1 could provide insight to assist in job redesign. The Job Stress Survey (JSS1), developed by Cooper and Cartwright (1994), was used to examine the source, severity, and frequency of stressful

occurrences in the workplace. The JSS1 looked at the following 3 scales: (a) the job stress severity scale (JS-S) indicated the respondent's average rating of perceived severity for the 30 JSS1 stressor events; (b) job stress frequency scale (JS-F) represented the average frequency of occurrence of the 30 JSS1 stressor events during the past 6 months; and (c) job stress index (JS-X), a combination of the severity and frequency ratings used to obtain an overall indication of perceived stress level.

Each (severity, frequency, and index) scale contains two subscales. The job stress severity scale (JS-S) consists of the job pressure severity subscale (JP-S) and the lack of organizational support severity subscale (LS-S). The JP-S assesses the average level of perceived severity of the 10 JSS1 stressor events most directly related to the pressure of a job. The LS-S assesses the average level of perceived severity of the 10 JSS1 stressor events that most directly relate to the lack of organizational support.

The job stress frequency scale (JS-F) consists of the job pressure frequency subscale (JP-F) and the lack of organizational support frequency subscale (LS-F). The JP-F assesses the average frequency of occurrence of the 10 JSS1 stressor events most directly related to the pressure of a job. The LS-F assesses the average frequency of occurrence for the 10 JSS1 stressor events that most directly relate to lack of organizational support.

The job stress index scale (JS-X) consists of the job pressure index subscale (JP-X) and the lack of organizational support index subscale (LS-X). The JP-X assesses the occupational stress (combined severity and frequency) experienced by a respondent that can be attributed most directly to the pressures of his or her work. These 10 stressors

reflect stressful aspects of the job's structure, design, or duties. The LS-X assesses the amount of occupational stress (combined severity and frequency) that can be attributed to lack of organizational support, such as difficulty getting along with supervisors, poorly motivated coworkers, and lack of opportunity for advancement. These 10 stressors reflect events involving other people or organizational policies or procedures, rather than specific aspects of the job itself.

The JSS1 was chosen over the Occupational Stress Indicator (OSI1) and the Occupational Stress Inventory (OSI2), mostly due to its simplistic and economical nature. The JSS1 was a short, simple test that required only about 15 minutes to complete. The OSI1 and the OSI2 could have taken as much time as an hour or more; and the OSI1 was much more costly than the JSS1. Additionally, the JSS1 required only a sixth grade reading ability, and many of the respondents came from limited educational backgrounds and diverse cultural backgrounds, supporting the need for an elementary survey.

The validity for the JSS1 has been established by previous studies that compared the scales with each other in the same group of employees. When compared with the Locus of Control (LOC) scale, positive correlations of the LOC scale were found with three of the five JSS1 scales. Employees who reported less internal control had higher overall JS-X index and LS-F frequency scores and rated the ten job pressure stressor events as more stressful than employees with stronger internal control (Spielberger & Vagg, 1991).

The second instrument chosen for this study was the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS2), an existing questionnaire developed by Spector (1997). The JSS2 was designed to

measure employees' feelings on certain variables in their work environment. The JSS2 was chosen because of its simple, precise questions, as well as its economical value for the researcher. The JSS2 was chosen over the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) mainly for economical reasons. Additionally, while both the JDI and JSS2 measured such facets as: (a) work, (b) pay, (c) promotion, (d) coworkers, and (e) supervision, the JSS2 also measured one's level of satisfaction with: (a) fringe benefits, (b) contingent rewards, (c) operation conditions, and (d) communication. On the other end of the spectrum was the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), that was even more specific than the JSS2, consisting of 20 separate facets on the short form alone (Spector). However, due to its length and scoring complexity, the JSS2 was chosen instead of the MSQ.

The validity for the JSS2 has been established by previous studies that compared the scales with each other on the same group of employees. As cited by Spector (1997), five the JSS2 subscales (pay, promotion, supervision, coworkers, and nature of work) corresponded with the Job Descriptive Index, one of the most validated of the job satisfaction surveys. The correlation for the JSS2 ranged between .61 for coworkers and .80 for supervision (Spector). According to the literature, the JSS2 has been correlated with other job satisfaction scales and characteristics such as those found in the Job Diagnostic Survey (Spector). Included in those job characteristics were (a) age, (b) level in an organization, (c) organizational commitment, (d) leadership, (e) intentions to quit the job, and (f) turnover (Spector).

Sample Demographics

The researcher designed a questionnaire to obtain demographic information on the respondents' personal and employment backgrounds. The following variables were included: (a) employment status-current or former contract manager, (b) marital status, (c) age, (d) ethnicity, (e) gender, (f) highest education level, (g) years worked with current employer, (h) years employed as contract manager, and (i) number of promotions with current employer.

The researcher also added the following questions to the JSS2. Answers to these questions were intended to gain an understanding of employees' feelings about their states of health:

1. I frequently experience headaches, nausea, or both.
2. I have trouble sleeping due to anxiety about work situations.
3. I am occasionally absent from work due to illness.
4. I have difficulty concentrating at work.
5. I sometimes feel weak and tired, as if I have no energy.
6. I sometimes feel depressed and helpless about my work situation.

Data Collection

The data collected from the group were tallied by the researcher. The results from each questionnaire were scored separately, with the scores from each respondents' questionnaire being classified in its corresponding group. The three total scores were correlated to determine to what degree, if any, a relationship existed among the three variables.

Data Analysis

All statistical procedures were performed on SPSS. Frequencies were recorded for all demographic variables, and means and standard deviations were calculated for each variable. Descriptive statistics were performed for all scale items on the JSS1, the JSS2, and the Health Survey. Pearson r correlations were applied between all dependent variables on the JSS1, JSS2, and Health Survey. Analysis of Variances (ANOVAs) were performed across all dependent scales for marital status and education level.

Summary of Research Methodology and Procedures

Contract managers of a large, nationwide janitorial facility were the subjects in this study. Respondents were randomly selected from a population of approximately five hundred contract managers. Each respondent received a packet of information containing a Job Stress Survey (JSS1) and a Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS2), including health survey questions added by the researcher. A cover letter (Appendix A) was included to explain the purpose of the study, as well as display authorization from the company's Vice President of Human Resources. Respondents were given three weeks to complete the questionnaires and mail them back to the researcher. The researcher sent subsequent reminder letters via the U.S. Postal Service to all non-respondents to encourage participation. After the data was collected and tallied, appropriate statistical analyses were performed.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS AND RESULTS

This study was conducted to gain understanding of any relationships between job stress and job satisfaction, as well as the impact on one's perception of his or her health and well-being. A management sample was drawn from a complex, hierarchical corporate population. The objectives of this study were to identify and to measure workers' levels of job stress, job satisfaction, and perceived health. This chapter contains descriptive data pertaining to various measures of job stress and job satisfaction. Variables were correlated to determine whether or not any significant relationships existed.

Contract Manager Data Summary

Of the initial 284 survey packets sent to the contract managers, seven packets were returned to the researcher as undeliverable because of incorrect addresses. It was discovered that these individuals had left the company and did not leave forwarding addresses. Ninety-seven usable questionnaires were returned, providing a usable survey response rate of 34%. The survey packets contained the following questionnaires: (a) the Job Stress Survey, (b) the Job Satisfaction Survey, and (c) a demographic survey that included six health questions developed by the researcher. Only one respondent failed to return the demographic survey, but the researcher was able to obtain that information from the company's files.

Contract Manager Demographic Data Summary

Frequencies were obtained on the contract managers' demographic questionnaire responses. Table 4.1 lists the demographic variables, frequency of responses, and percent values. Over one-half of the respondents (61.9%) were current employees of the representative company (SSC); the remaining 38.1% had been laid off. As for marital status, over one-half (66%) of the contract managers were married, while 21.6% were single. Most were between the ages of 31-40 (40.2%), 27.8% were 41-50 years of age, 20.6% were 51 or older, and only about 11% were under age 30. Although the sample represented a diverse cultural population, most were Caucasian (71.1%); 17.5% were African-American. The rest represented other various ethnic backgrounds. At 85.6%, most of the respondents were male; 14.4% were female. Education levels varied greatly; 40.2% possessed bachelor's degrees, and 36.1% had some college. Quite a few of the respondents (22.7%) had been employed by SSC for 1-2 years, while 32% had been employed for 3-4 years. Approximately 33% of respondents had been with the company over 5 years. Over one-third (34%) of respondents had been in their current capacities for 1-2 years, and 29.9% had been a contract manager for 3-4 years. Approximately one-quarter (25.8%) had been employed as contract managers for over 5 years. Of the 97 respondents, almost one-half (45.4%) had been promoted once while 24.7% had never been promoted.

Table 4.1 Demographic Information of Contract Managers

Demographic Parameter	Frequency	Valid Percent
N=97		
Employment Status		
Current SSC Manager	60	61.9%
Former SSC Manager	37	38.1%
Marital Status		
Married	64	66.0%
Separated	3	3.1%
Divorced	9	9.3%
Single	21	21.6%
Age		
Less than 30	11	11.3%
31-40	39	40.2%
41-50	27	27.8%
51 or older	20	20.6%
Ethnicity		
African-American	17	17.5%
Asian/Pacific Islander	1	1.0%
Caucasian	69	71.1%
Hispanic	8	8.2%
Native American	2	2.1%
Gender		
Female	14	14.4%
Male	83	85.6%
Education Level		
Less than High School	1	1.0%
High School	9	9.3%
Technical School	7	7.2%
Some College	35	36.1%
Bachelor's Degree	39	40.2%
Master's Degree or beyond	6	6.2%
Years worked with SSC		
Less than 1 year	4	4.1%
1-2 years	22	22.7%
3-4 years	31	32.0%
4-5 years	8	8.2%
5 years or more	32	33.0%
Years as Contract Manager		
Less than 1 year	3	3.1%
1-2 years	33	34.0%
3-4 years	29	29.9%
4-5 years	7	7.2%
5 years or more	25	25.8%
No. of promotions		
None	24	24.7%
Once	44	45.4%
Twice	18	18.6%
Three or more times	11	11.3%

Research Objective One

Research Objective One attempted to identify and measure the levels of job stress in corporate, lower management employees. Table 4.2 lists the contract managers' mean and standard deviations on each of the frequency (F), severity (S), and index (X) scales for job stress (JS), job pressure (JP), and lack of organizational support (LS). The index scores represent the combined frequency and severity scores.

Null Hypothesis One

Lower management employees had no difference in employment status, marital status, ethnicity, gender, education level, number of years with employer, number of years as contract manager, and number of promotions as measured by the Job Stress Survey (JSS1). To address null hypothesis one, a series of Sum of Square procedures, with an alpha of .05, were performed to assess specific demographics against the job stress index, job pressure index, and lack of organizational support index scores, as measured by the Job Stress survey.

Analyses of JSS1 index scores assessed with demographics are listed in Tables 4.3-4.5. The findings from the Sum of Squares procedure indicated that there were no significant differences on lower management employees' sources of job stress based on their demographic status.

Research Objective Two

Research Objective Two attempted to identify and measure the levels of job satisfaction in corporate, lower management employees. The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS2) developed by Spector (1997) was used to assess the levels of job satisfaction

Table 4.2 Job Stress Survey (JSS1)

JSS1 Scales and Sub-Scales	Mean	SD
N=97		
Job Stress Frequency	4.259	1.642
Job Stress Severity	5.087	1.154
Job Stress Index	24.847	12.001
Job Pressure Frequency	5.010	2.003
Job Pressure Severity	4.838	1.554
Job Pressure Index	26.629	15.251
Lack of Organizational Support Frequency	3.849	1.946
Lack of Organizational Support Severity	5.374	1.437
Lack of Organizational Support Index	25.416	15.754

Table 4.3 Job Stress Index Scores by Demographics

Source	Type III SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
Intercept	1796.031	1	1796.031	11.360	.001
Employee Status	37.522	1	37.522	.237	.628
Marital Status	767.182	3	255.727	1.618	.193
Age	137.485	3	45.828	.290	.833
Ethnicity	775.264	4	193.816	1.226	.308
Gender	119.072	1	119.072	.753	.389
Education Level	805.173	5	161.035	1.019	.414
Years worked w/ SSC	493.174	4	123.294	.780	.542
Years as Contract Manager	326.107	4	81.527	.516	.724
No. of Promotions	408.817	3	136.272	.862	.465
Error	10750.748	68	158.099		
Total	73710.333	97			

p<.05

Table 4.4 Job Pressure Index Scores by Demographics

Source	Type III SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
Intercept	2211.862	1	221.862	9.390	.003
Employee Status	225.022	1	225.022	.955	.331
Marital Status	1688.410	3	562.803	2.389	.076
Age	267.643	3	89.214	.379	.769
Ethnicity	1728.528	4	432.132	1.834	.132
Gender	3.220	1	3.220	.014	.907
Education Level	1146.491	5	229.298	.973	.440
Years worked w/ SSC	952.560	4	238.140	1.011	.408
Years as Contract Manager	788.906	4	197.227	.837	.506
No. of Promotions	776.844	3	258.948	1.099	.356
Error	16018.339	68	235.564		
Total	91112.520	97			

p<.05

Table 4.5 Lack of Organizational Support Index Scores by Demographics

Source	Type III SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
Intercept	1935.988	1	1935.988	7.442	.008
Employee Status	20.788	1	20.788	.080	.778
Marital Status	1561.390	3	520.463	2.001	.122
Age	677.252	3	225.751	.868	.462
Ethnicity	979.719	4	244.930	.942	.445
Gender	315.529	1	315.529	1.213	.275
Education Level	1148.206	5	229.641	.883	.498
Years worked w/ SSC	1175.017	4	293.754	1.129	.350
Years as Contract Manager	875.841	4	218.960	.842	.504
No. of Promotions	362.256	3	120.752	.464	.708
Error	17689.748	68	260.143		
Total	86487.400	97			

p<.05

among contract managers. The JSS examined nine sub-scales of different elements that contributed to job satisfaction and a total score that determined overall job satisfaction. This study reported JSS2 findings from a total or overall job satisfaction perspective instead of focusing on the nine dimensions of job satisfaction. However, for future research and reference, Table 4.6 lists the mean and standard deviations on the nine JSS2 sub-scale items: pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, coworkers, nature of work, and communication; and a total job satisfaction score for contract managers.

Null Hypothesis Two

Lower management employees were not significantly different in employment status, marital status, ethnicity, gender, education level, number of years with employer, number of years as contract manager, and number of promotions as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS2). To address null hypothesis two, a series of Sum of Squares procedures, with an alpha of .05, were performed to assess specific demographics against the nine subscale items mentioned above, as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS2).

Analyses of JSS2 scores assessed with demographics are listed in Tables 4.7-4.11. The following tables indicate that certain demographic variables influenced lower management employees' satisfaction on the scales of supervision, contingent rewards, nature of work performed, communication within the organization, and total job satisfaction. These analyses also found that there were no effects across any demographic

Table 4.6 Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS2)

JSS Sub-Scale (JSS2)	Mean	SD
N=97		
Pay	11.103	4.803
Promotion	12.845	4.362
Supervision	17.175	4.798
Fringe benefits	13.309	4.457
Contingent rewards	11.155	4.040
Operating conditions	12.722	4.084
Coworkers	16.278	2.331
Nature of work	17.918	3.613
Communication	11.753	4.477
Total Job Satisfaction	124.258	22.678

p<.05

variables for the scales of pay, promotion, fringe benefits, operating conditions, and coworkers.

Table 4.7 reports respondents' satisfaction with their supervision was influenced by two demographic variables: their age and their gender, both significant at the .05 level. A one-way ANOVA indicated that a significant relationship existed respondents' age and their satisfaction with their supervision ($F = 2.776$, $df = 3$, $p < .05$). A one-way ANOVA also found that respondents' gender also influenced their satisfaction with their supervision ($F = 4.069$, $df = 1$, $p < .05$).

Table 4.8 reports that respondents' satisfaction with their contingent rewards was only influenced by one demographic variable. Respondents' marital status was significant at the .05 level. A one-way ANOVA revealed that lower management employees' marital status had a significant impact on their satisfaction with their contingent rewards at work ($F = 2.939$, $df = 3$, $p < .05$).

Table 4.9 reports that respondents' satisfaction with nature of work was influenced by one demographic variable. The number of years as contract manager was significant at the .01 level. A one-way ANOVA revealed that lower management employees' satisfaction with the nature of their work was significantly influenced by the number of years they had been an employee of lower management ($F = 3.800$, $df = 4$, $p < .01$).

Table 4.10 reports that respondents' satisfaction with communication levels within their organization was influenced by one demographic variable. Marital status was significant at the .05 level. A one-way ANOVA revealed that lower management

Table 4.7 Supervision by Demographics

Source	Type III SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
Intercept	1590.547	1	1590.547	77.935	.000
Employee Status	36.984	1	36.984	1.812	.183
Marital Status	79.868	3	26.623	1.304	.280
Age	169.949	3	56.650	2.776	.048*
Ethnicity	19.040	4	4.760	.233	.919
Gender	83.042	1	83.042	4.069	.048*
Education Level	55.424	5	11.085	.543	.743
Years worked w/ SSC	176.252	4	44.063	2.159	.083
Years as Contract Manager	158.539	4	39.635	1.942	.113
No. of Promotions	77.407	3	25.802	1.264	.294
Error	1387.783	68	20.409		
Total	30824.000	97			
Corrected Total	2210.21	96			

*p<.05

Table 4.8 Contingent Rewards by Demographics

Source	Type III SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
Intercept	472.385	1	472.385	33.057	.000
Employee Status	.644	1	.644	.045	.832
Marital Status	125.981	3	41.994	2.939	.039*
Age	79.092	3	26.364	1.845	.147
Ethnicity	59.871	4	14.968	1.047	.389
Gender	1.113	1	1.113	.078	.781
Education Level	57.448	5	11.490	.804	.551
Years worked w/ SSC	92.711	4	23.178	1.622	.179
Years as Contract Manager	89.957	4	22.489	1.574	.191
No. of Promotions	29.505	3	9.835	.688	.562
Error	971.724	68	14.290		
Total	13636.000	97			
Corrected Total	1566.680	96			

* p<.05

Table 4.9 Nature of Work by Demographics

Source	Type III SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
Intercept	2131.153	1	2131.153	174.114	.000
Employee Status	11.112	1	11.112	.908	.344
Marital Status	9.677	3	3.226	.264	.851
Age	12.935	3	4.312	.352	.788
Ethnicity	108.025	4	27.006	2.206	.077
Gender	36.115	1	36.115	2.951	.090
Education Level	20.725	5	4.145	.339	.888
Years worked w/ SSC	107.647	4	26.912	2.199	.078
Years as Contract Manager	186.059	4	46.515	3.800	.008**
No. of Promotions	70.354	3	23.451	1.916	.135
Error	832.319	68	12.240		
Total	32394.000	97			
Corrected Total	1253.340	96			

**p<.01

employees' marital status significantly influenced their satisfaction with communication levels within their organization ($F = 3.305, df = 3, p < .05$).

Table 4.11 reports that respondents' total job satisfaction was only influenced by one demographic variable. Their number of promotions was significant at the .05 level. A one-way ANOVA revealed that lower management employees' number of promotions with their employer significantly influenced their total job satisfaction ($F = 2.760, df = 3, p < .05$).

Research Objective Three

Research Question Three attempted to identify sources of poor health in corporate, lower management employees. The researcher developed a short 6-item health survey containing the following questions:

1. I frequently experience headaches and or nausea.
2. I feel as though I have trouble sleeping due to anxiety about work situations.
3. I am occasionally absent from work, due to illness.
4. I have difficulty concentrating while at work.
5. I sometimes feel weak and tired, as if I have no energy.
6. I sometimes feel depressed and helpless about my work situation.

The purpose of this survey was to help the researcher gain an understanding of the respondents' perception of their health and well-being. Table 4.12 lists the mean and standard deviations on the six health items. The items below represent the scores on a 6-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (disagree very much) to 6 (agree very much).

Table 4.10 Communication by Demographics

Source	Type III SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
Intercept	706.432	1	706.432	40.098	.000
Employee Status	.900	1	.900	.051	.822
Marital Status	174.689	3	58.230	3.305	.025*
Age	73.932	3	24.644	1.399	.251
Ethnicity	44.525	4	11.131	.632	.641
Gender	1.986	1	1.986	.113	.738
Education Level	70.768	5	14.154	.803	.551
Years worked w/ SSC	66.854	4	16.714	.949	.441
Years as Contract Manager	140.458	4	35.039	1.989	.106
No. of Promotions	133.355	3	44.452	2.523	.065
Error	1197.988	68	17.617		
Total	15322.000	97			
Corrected Total	1924.062	96			

*p<.05

Table 4.11 Total Job Satisfaction by Demographics

Source	Type III SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
Intercept	77537.396	1	77537.396	167.207	.000
Employee Status	104.087	1	104.087	.224	.637
Marital Status	2334.305	3	778.102	1.678	.180
Age	1821.258	3	607.086	1.309	.279
Ethnicity	1330.023	4	332.506	.717	.583
Gender	1714.803	1	1714.803	3.698	.059
Education Level	3056.047	5	611.209	1.318	.267
Years worked w/ SSC	3291.875	4	822.969	1.775	.144
Years as Contract Manager	2662.553	4	665.638	1.435	.232
No. of Promotions	3839.784	3	1279.928	2.760	.049*
Error	31532.965	68	463.720		
Total	1547047.000	97			
Corrected Total	49368.557	96			

*p<.05

Table 4.12 Health Survey

Health Items	Mean	SD
N=97		
Health Question No. 1	2.63	1.76
Health Question No. 2	3.46	1.77
Health Question No. 3	1.56	1.24
Health Question No. 4	2.35	1.39
Health Question No. 5	3.13	1.82
Health Question No. 6	3.28	1.75

Null Hypothesis Three

Lower management employees' levels of job stress, as measured by the Job Stress Survey (JSS1) had no effect on their health and well-being. To address null hypothesis three, a series of Pearson r procedures were performed to assess any relationships between employees levels of job stress, as measured by the JSS1, and their health and well-being. Tables 4.13-4.15 list the Pearson r correlation coefficients for the job stress index scores against the six health questions listed above.

Table 4.13 reports that respondents' job stress index scores were significantly correlated with certain health variables. A Pearson r Correlation revealed that the job stress index had a significant effect on all health questions, at the .01 level, except one. Results indicated that respondents' job stress had no effect on frequency of absences from work due to illness (question 3). However, there was a significant affect from respondents' job stress on frequency of headaches and nausea ($r = .301, p < .01$), trouble sleeping due to anxiety about work situations ($r = .294, p < .01$), difficulty concentrating at work ($r = .369, p < .01$), feelings of weakness and tiredness ($r = .428, p < .01$), and feelings of depression and helplessness about work situations ($r = .513, p < .01$ (questions 1, 2, 4, 5, and 6).

Table 4.14 reports that respondents' job pressure index scores were significantly correlated with all health variables. Findings from a Pearson r Correlation indicated that lower management employees' levels of stress due to job pressure significantly affected their frequency of headaches and nausea ($r = .361, p < .01$), trouble sleeping due to anxiety about work situations ($r = .350, p < .01$), absences from work due to illness ($r =$

Table 4.13 Job Stress Index Scores by Health

N=97	Health Question #1	Health Question #2	Health Question #3	Health Question #4	Health Question #5	Health Question #6
Pearson Correlation	.301	.294	.139	.369	.428	.513
Sig. (2-tailed)	.003**	.003**	.174	.000**	.000**	.000**

**p<.01

.220, $p < .05$), difficulty concentrating at work ($r = .394, p < .01$), feelings of weakness and tiredness ($r = .448, p < .01$), and feelings of depression and helplessness about work situations ($r = .396, p < .01$). All relationships were significant at the .01 level, with the exception of health question 3, which was significant at the .05 level.

Table 4.15 reports that respondents' lack of organizational support index scores were significantly correlated with certain health variables. A Pearson r Correlation indicated that lower management employees' levels of job stress due to lack of organizational support affected health questions 4, 5 and 6. These findings, significant at the .01 level, indicated a significant relationship between lack of organizational support and respondents' feelings of difficulty concentrating at work ($r = .291, p < .01$), feelings of weakness and tiredness ($r = .331, p < .01$), and respondents' feelings of depression and helplessness ($r = .478, p < .01$).

Null Hypothesis Four

Lower management employees' levels of job satisfaction, as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS2), had no effect on their health and well-being. To address null hypothesis four, the Pearson r test was used to calculate any significant relationships between total job satisfaction and each of the six health variables outlined above. The Pearson r determined that respondents' total job satisfaction significantly affected health variables 1, 2, 4, 5, and 6 at the .01 level. Table 4.16 shows that lower management employees' levels of job satisfaction significantly affected frequency of headaches and nausea ($r = -.277, p < .01$), trouble sleeping due to anxiety about work situations ($r = -.325, p < .01$), difficulty concentrating at work ($r = -.371, p < .01$), feelings of weakness

Table 4.14 Job Pressure Index Scores by Health

N=97	Health Question #1	Health Question #2	Health Question #3	Health Question #4	Health Question #5	Health Question #6
Pearson Correlation	.361	.350	.220	.394	.448	.396
Sig. (2-tailed)	.000**	.000**	.030*	.000**	.000**	.000**

*p<.05 **p<.01

Table 4.15 Lack of Organizational Support Index Scores by Health

N=97	Health Question #1	Health Question #2	Health Question #3	Health Question #4	Health Question #5	Health Question #6
Pearson Correlation	.170	.197	.124	.291	.331	.478
Sig. (2-tailed)	.096	.054	.227	.004**	.001**	.000**

**p<.01

and tiredness ($r = -.361, p < .01$), and feelings of depression and helplessness about work situations ($r = -.566, p < .01$). Additionally, lower management employees' levels of job satisfaction had no significant effect on frequency of absences from work due to illness (health question 3).

Research Objective Four

Research objective four attempted to identify any relationships between job stress and job satisfaction in lower management employees. As stated above, the researcher utilized the existing Job Stress Survey (JSS1) and Spector's 1997 Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS2) to measure sources and levels of total job stress and total job satisfaction.

Null Hypothesis Five

There was no relationship between lower management employees' levels of job stress, as measured by the Job Stress Survey (JSS1), and job satisfaction, as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS2). To address null hypothesis five, a Pearson r test was run to determine whether or not any correlation existed between respondents' total level of job satisfaction and each of the severity, frequency, and index scales of job stress. Table 4.17 reports the correlation coefficients for total job satisfaction against the job stress subscales. Table 4.17 clearly shows a significant relationship between each of the job stress subscales and respondents' level of job satisfaction. All subscales reported significance at the .01 level.

Table 4.16 Total Job Satisfaction by Health

N=97	Health Question #1	Health Question #2	Health Question #3	Health Question #4	Health Question #5	Health Question #6
Pearson Correlation	-0.277	-0.325	-0.191	-0.371	-0.361	-0.566
Sig. (2-tailed)	.006**	.001**	.062	.000**	.000**	.000**

**p<.01

Table 4.17 Total Job Satisfaction by Job Stress

N=97	Pearson Correlation	Sig. (2-tailed)
Job Stress Frequency	-.639	.000**
Job Stress Severity	-.455	.000**
Job Stress Index	-.639	.000**
Job Pressure Frequency	-.445	.000**
Job Pressure Severity	-.310	.002**
Job Pressure Index	-.489	.000**
Lack of Organizational Support Frequency	-.723	.000**
Lack of Organizational Support Severity	-.493	.000**
Lack of Organizational Support Index	-.721	.000**

**p<.01

Summary

Four research objectives and null five hypotheses were developed for this research. Respondents were asked to complete a Demographic Survey, Job Stress Survey (JSS1), Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS2), and answer a few health questions. Demographic analysis revealed that most respondents were Caucasian males, married, 31-40 years of age, and most had at least some college. These demographic findings had no significant effect on Lower Management Employees' levels of job stress, as measured by the JSS1. However, their demographic status significantly influenced total job satisfaction as well as the following individual components of job satisfaction: (a) supervision, (b) contingent rewards, (c) nature of work performed, and (d) communication within the organization.

Analysis of the Job Stress Survey found that lower management employees' levels of job stress significantly influenced (a) frequency of headaches or nausea, (b) trouble sleeping due to anxiety about work situations, (c) difficulty concentrating while at work, (d) feelings of weakness and tiredness, and (e) feelings of depression and helplessness about work situations. Analysis of the Job Satisfaction Survey found that lower management employees' levels of job satisfaction significantly influenced all health variables previously mentioned, with the addition of frequency of absences from work due to illness. The researcher also found a significant relationship between lower management employees' levels of total job satisfaction and their frequency of job stressors, amount of job pressure, and their perception regarding their lack of organizational support.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Due to the growth and development of technology, organizational change is inevitable for the survival of today's companies. The effects of this change on the employees of these companies is overwhelming. The present research studied the effects of this change on lower management employees of a large janitorial company. This chapter contains a summary of the research study, indicating the major findings, discussion and implications, recommendations, and conclusions for further research in this area.

Summary of the Study

Most of the research on employee stress has been conducted in certain professions, including educational fields, human service and healthcare fields, and industrial and blue-collar fields. The population for this study consisted of contract managers of a large, nationwide, janitorial and maintenance company. These employees represented the lowest level of management in the corporate structure, and oversaw employees in a variety of occupations ranging including but not limited to, skilled laborers, licensed technicians, administrative assistants, and general laborers.

Four research objectives were developed and five null hypotheses were designed to assess any demographic differences and similarities, job stress, job satisfaction, and state of health and well-being. Research Objective One addressed levels of job stress in corporate, lower management employees. Research Objective Two examined the sources and levels of job satisfaction in corporate, lower management employees. Research

Objective Three addressed sources of poor health in corporate, lower management employees. Finally, Research Objective Four identified any relationships between job stress and job satisfaction in lower management employees. The four hypotheses examined any relationships between the specific variables of job stress, job satisfaction, health, and demographics.

Demographic Findings

This section includes the findings on the Contract Manager demographic information. These findings are based on the demographic data questionnaire developed by the researcher.

1. The majority of respondents were currently employed by SSC (61.9%) while the remaining 38.1% had recently been laid off.
2. The majority of respondents were married (66%), while 21.6% were single. A few were also either separated or divorced.
3. Although there was a wide age range in the respondents, almost half (40.2%) were between the ages of 31-50. 27.8% were 41-50, 20.6% were over 50, and only 11.3% were less than age 30.
4. Although the company maintained a culturally diverse workforce, the majority of respondents (71.1%) were Caucasian. 17.5% were African-American and 8.2% were Hispanic.
5. Most of the respondents were male (85.6%).
6. Although most of the respondents had gone to college, only 40.2% obtained their Bachelor's Degree. Some (6.2%) had even obtained a Master's Degree or beyond.
7. The majority of respondents had been employed with the company for either 5+ years (33.0) or 3-4 years (32%). Approximately 22.7% of respondents had been employed with the company for 1-2 years.

8. Most respondents (34%) had been employed as a Contract Manager for 1-2 years, although some (29.9%) had been employed for 3-4 years and 25.8% had been a Contract Manager for 5 years or more.
9. The majority of respondents (45.4%) had been promoted once, while 24.7% had not been promoted at all. 18.6% had been promoted twice and 11.3% had been promoted 3 or more times. These promotions include those that have been promoted to the Contract Manager position from a supervisory or skilled laborer position, and those that have been promoted from the Contract Manager position to the Group or Senior Group Manager position.

Major Findings

This section includes the findings on the relationship between job stress, job satisfaction, and health. These findings are based on the measurements of the Job Stress Survey (JSS1), Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS2), and Health Survey.

1. Lower management employees' demographic status had no significant effect on their levels of job stress as measured by the three subscales of the Job Stress Survey (JSS1): (a) job stress, (b) job pressure, and (c) lack of organizational support.
2. Lower management employees' demographic status significantly influenced lower management employees' satisfaction with the following variables as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS2): (a) supervision, (b) contingent rewards, (c) nature of work performed, (d) communication within the organization, and (e) total job satisfaction.
3. Lower management employees' levels of job stress significantly influenced all health variables except frequency of absences from work due to illness.
4. Lower management employees' levels of job pressure significantly influenced all health variables.
5. A significant relationship existed between respondents' levels of total job satisfaction and job stress.

Findings Related to Null Hypotheses

To test the hypotheses, several independent variables were correlated to determine whether or not any significant relationships existed among variables. When comparing

the contract managers' demographics with the severity, frequency, and index scales of the Job Stress Survey (JSS1), only one significant relationship was found. A significant relationship was found on the lack of organizational support severity subscale for marital status, indicating that respondents' marital status played a role in their perceptions of events involving other people or organizational policies or procedures, rather than on specific aspects of the job itself. Since only one significant relationship was found and the remaining seven variables were insignificant, the researcher failed to reject null hypothesis one.

When comparing the nine scales on the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS2) to the respondents' demographics, the researcher found no significance for the subscales of pay, promotion, fringe benefits, operating conditions, and coworkers in relationship to job stress. Demographic status had no bearing on respondents' (a) satisfaction with pay and pay raises, (b) satisfaction with promotion opportunities, (c) satisfaction with fringe benefits, (d) satisfaction with rules and procedures, or (e) satisfaction with coworkers.

However, the scales of supervision, contingent rewards, nature of work, and communication were significantly affected by aspects of respondents' demographic status. The scale of supervision was significantly influenced by respondents' age and gender. Marital status significantly impacted respondents' satisfaction with contingent rewards given for good performance. Number of years employed as a contract manager significantly influenced respondents' satisfaction with the type of work performed. Respondents' satisfaction with communication within the organization was significantly affected by marital status. When comparing overall job satisfaction with demographics,

the only significantly impacting demographic variable was number of promotions earned. Since very few significant relationships were found between demographic status and job satisfaction, the researcher failed to reject null hypothesis two.

Respondents' severity, frequency, and index scores from the Job Stress Survey (JSS1) were compared with the health variables. The researcher found that (a) the average frequency of occurrence of the 30 job stressor events during the past six months (JS-F), (b) the average frequency of occurrence of the 10 job stressor events most directly related to the pressures of a job (JP-F), and (c) the average level of perceived severity of the 10 job stressor events that most directly relate to lack of organizational support (LS-S) experienced by the respondent had a direct effect on several health items. The JS-F, JP-F, and LS-S were significantly related to frequency of headaches or nausea, difficulty concentrating, weakness and tiredness, and depression and helplessness.

The researcher found that (a) the average frequency of occurrence for the 10 job stressor events that most directly relate to lack of organizational support (LS-F) and (b) the combined severity and frequency of the lack of organizational support subscales (LS-X) both impacted the same health variables. The LS-F and LS-X scores were significantly related to respondents' feelings of lack of concentration at work, feelings of no energy, and feelings of depression and helplessness about work situations.

The researcher also found that (a) respondents' average rating of perceived severity for the 30 job stressor events (JS-S), (b) average level of perceived severity of the 10 job stressor events most directly related to the pressure of a job (JP-S), and (c) the overall level of occupational stress experienced by the respondent in his or her work setting (JS-

X) affected the same health variables. The JS-S, the JP-S, and the JS-X scores were significantly related to respondents' (a) frequency of headaches or nausea, (b) restless sleep due to anxiety about work situations, (c) difficulty concentrating while at work, (d) feelings of weakness and tiredness, and (e) feelings of depression and helplessness about work situations. The researcher found that the occupational stress that could be attributed to the job's structure, design, or duties (JP-X) significantly influenced all health variables:

1. I frequently experience headaches, nausea, or both.
2. I have trouble sleeping due to anxiety about work situations.
3. I am occasionally absent from work due to illness.
4. I have difficulty concentrating at work.
5. I sometimes feel weak and tired, as if I have no energy.
6. I sometimes feel depressed and helpless about my work situation.

Given the number of significant relationships between respondents' health variables and job stress scores, the researcher rejected null hypothesis three.

Total job satisfaction, as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS2) was also compared with the following six health variables:

1. I frequently experience headaches, nausea, or both.
2. I have trouble sleeping due to anxiety about work situations.
3. I am occasionally absent from work due to illness.
4. I have difficulty concentrating at work.
5. I sometimes feel weak and tired, as if I have no energy.

6. I sometimes feel depressed and helpless about my work situation.

The researcher found that total job satisfaction affected all health variables except one. Respondents' total job satisfaction did not have any bearing on absences from work due to illness. However, total job satisfaction did affect (a) frequency of headaches or nausea, (b) restless sleep due to anxiety about work situations, (c) difficulty concentrating while at work, (d) feelings of tiredness and no energy, and (e) feelings of depression and helplessness about work situations. Therefore, the researcher rejected null hypothesis four.

The researcher also found that significant relationships existed between total job satisfaction and all job stress subscales. All relationships were significant at the .01 level. Therefore, the researcher rejected null hypothesis five.

Discussion and Implications

Results of this study were based on the data analyses from the 97 respondents who were employed as contract managers of a large, nationwide janitorial and maintenance firm in 2000-2001. Based on the quantitative data, several points can be made.

First, the demographic information indicated that the contract managers in this study had numerous similarities. Most respondents (61.9%) were current employees (as opposed to those who had recently been laid off). Most (66%) were married, Caucasian males, between the ages of 31 and 40; and most had some type of college degree. Most respondents (33%) had been with their current company for five years or more, and most

were employed as contract managers for 1-2 years, indicating that many (45.5%) had been promoted at least once.

Secondly, the findings demonstrated that demographic status failed to significantly support respondents' perception of their job stress. The only exception was marital status, which had impacted the job stress subscale of lack of organizational support severity.

Thirdly, regarding job satisfaction, occasionally a specific demographic variable had a significant impact on a specific variable of job satisfaction. Satisfaction with supervision was significantly influenced by age and gender. Marital status had a significant impact on respondents' satisfaction with contingent rewards and communication within the organization, and satisfaction with nature of work was influenced by number of years as contract manager. Only the number of promotions influenced respondents' total job satisfaction.

When the researcher added health variables into the analyses, several significant relationships existed, especially with the health variables concerning (a) difficulty concentrating while at work, (b) feelings of weakness and tiredness, and (c) feelings of depression and helplessness about work situations. These variables were significantly affected by total job satisfaction and all nine job stress subscales. The health variable least affected by job satisfaction and job stress was frequency of absences from work due to illness.

Finally, the study indicated significant correlational relationships between each aspect of job stress and total job satisfaction. Each relationship was significant at the .01

level. The only exception was in the lack of organizational support severity subscale, which was insignificant.

Recommendations

The current trend of relentless change in today's companies will most likely continue, despite its effects on employees. It is in the best interest of current companies to be concerned about the well-being of their employees. Based on the results of this study and the conclusions drawn from it, the following recommendations are presented for consideration.

1. Due to the relentless global competition, organizations seem likely to continue to change and technology to advance. Also possible causes of employee job stress and the health implications from this stress probably will remain rampant. Therefore, organizations should consider new ways to educate their employees of these trends. They should then assist them to change their perspective attitudes regarding these trends, to become more positive and productive for the mutual benefit of the company and its employees.
2. The present research was conducted on a company that was already involved in the process of a negative change-downsizing. The researcher recommends further research be conducted on organizations experiencing potentially positive changes, such as rapid growth or mergers.
3. The current study focused on health variables limited to self-reported aspects of well-being. Future studies could include additional and more specific health variables which to investigate.
4. The present study was limited to information which could be obtained from a self-report survey. Future studies could include a longitudinal study on job satisfaction and job stress with more medically reliable health variables such as blood pressure, cholesterol, weight control, and heart rate.

Conclusions

This study provided new information describing the demographic profile of the contract managers of a large, nationwide corporation. It also provided new information

regarding contract managers perceptions of their health and well-being, due to their work situations. The findings from this study provided a good basis for further research in the area of management and corporate development.

According to Kahn and Byosiere (1992), the future of research on organizational stress will include three major changes. The first will include measures of stressors and strains in the workplace that are self-reported, as well as measures that are independent of self-report. Secondly, studies on organizational stress must utilize longitudinal studies to establish cause-and-effect relationship as well as to show patterns over time. Finally, future research must take into concern other variables in life that may affect the relationship between work and health.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
COVER LETTER TO RESPONDENTS

Dear Mr./Ms. _____,

I hope you've had a wonderful holiday season. Please allow me to introduce myself. My name is Rachel Jameson and I previously worked for Mr. John Donovan at SSC's corporate office in Knoxville, TN. Through circumstances out of my control, I will no longer be employed by SSC, effective 12/31/00. During my tenure with SSC I have known many of you on a personal level and enjoyed developing those relationships. I am requesting the assistance of current and former SSC contract managers for educational purposes.

In working on my thesis in fulfillment of a Master's Degree through University of Tennessee, I am conducting a study on the effects of job satisfaction and job stress on management employees of a large corporation. The enclosed surveys are designed to measure your levels of job satisfaction (green form) and job stress while employed by SSC, and their reflection on your health and well-being. Additionally, I would like information about your demographic status (yellow form). Completion of these surveys should take less than 30 minutes. Approval for this study has been given by Mr. Bernie Decker, Vice President of Human Resources (please see below).

Participation in this study is voluntary, although I will be forever grateful for your help in completing the enclosed surveys. Please be advised your responses will be used only for gathering important statistical information for my thesis, and your individual answers will be held in strict confidence. The questionnaires have an identification number for mailing purposes only. The return of your completed questionnaires is crucial to the success of this project. Please return your completed surveys, in the enclosed self-addressed, stamped envelope, by Tuesday, January 30, 2001. Upon receipt of your completed questionnaires, your name will be entered into a drawing for a chance to win a \$25 gift certificate to Home Depot. If you have questions or concerns, you may e-mail me at rjameson611@aol.com.

Thank you very much for your assistance in this survey and I wish you a wonderful new year!

Sincerely,

Rachel Jameson

Authorized signature: _____

Mr. Bernard J. Decker, Vice President of Human Resources

Cc: Dr. Ernest W. Brewer
Professor and Major Advisor

APPENDIX B
JOB SATISFACTION
AND
HEALTH SURVEY

JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY

Paul E. Spector
 Department of Psychology
 University of South Florida
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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 offer.	1	2	3	4	5	6
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 the 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
19	I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about 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 feeling of	1	2	3	4	5	6

	subordinates.						
22	The benefit package we have is equitable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	There are too 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.	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

Note: From *Job Satisfaction Application, Assessment, Causes and Consequences* (p. 9), by Paul E. Spector, 1997, Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications. Copyright 1997 by Sage Publications. Reprinted with permission.

HEALTH SURVEY							
	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 frequently experience headaches and/or nausea.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	I feel as though I have trouble sleeping due to anxiety about work situations.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	I am occasionally absent from work, due to illness.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	I have difficulty concentrating while at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	I sometimes feel weak, tired, or as if I have no energy.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	I sometimes feel depressed and helpless about my work situation.	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX C
DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

Demographic Data

Please check the box that best describes your situation.

SSC Employment Status	<input type="checkbox"/> Current SSC Manager <input type="checkbox"/> Former SSC Manager
Marital Status	<input type="checkbox"/> Married <input type="checkbox"/> Separated <input type="checkbox"/> Divorced <input type="checkbox"/> Single
Age	<input type="checkbox"/> Under 30 <input type="checkbox"/> 31-40 <input type="checkbox"/> 41-50 <input type="checkbox"/> 51 or older
Ethnicity	<input type="checkbox"/> African-American <input type="checkbox"/> Asian/Pacific Islander <input type="checkbox"/> Caucasian <input type="checkbox"/> Hispanic <input type="checkbox"/> Native American
Gender	<input type="checkbox"/> Female <input type="checkbox"/> Male
Highest Education Level	<input type="checkbox"/> High School <input type="checkbox"/> Technical School <input type="checkbox"/> Some College <input type="checkbox"/> Bachelor's Degree <input type="checkbox"/> Master's Degree or beyond
Years worked with SSC	<input type="checkbox"/> Less than 1 year <input type="checkbox"/> 1-2 years <input type="checkbox"/> 3-4 years <input type="checkbox"/> 4-5 years <input type="checkbox"/> 5 years or more
Years as contract manager	<input type="checkbox"/> Less than 1 year <input type="checkbox"/> 1-2 years <input type="checkbox"/> 3-4 years <input type="checkbox"/> 4-5 years <input type="checkbox"/> 5 years or more
No. of promotions w/ SSC	<input type="checkbox"/> Once <input type="checkbox"/> Twice <input type="checkbox"/> Three or more times

APPENDIX D

REMINDER LETTER TO RESPONDENTS

Dear Mr./Ms. _____,

By now you've probably received the survey I sent to you earlier this month. This letter serves as a polite reminder to please return your completed surveys as soon as possible. If you've already done so, please disregard this letter and accept my sincere "thank you" for your participation. If not, please remember there's still time to send back your completed survey and get your name in the drawing for the \$25 gift certificate to Home Depot, which will be given away at the end of February!

Once again, the purpose of the survey is to measure one's level of job satisfaction, job stress, and health. This study is done strictly for fulfillment of my thesis requirements, and your individual responses will be held completely confidential. As stated in my first letter, participation is voluntary, but each of your responses is extremely important to my research. I am truly grateful for your time and input in my study. Please don't hesitate to bring any questions or concerns to my attention via e-mail: rjameson611@aol.com.

Thanks again for all your help!

Sincerely,

Rachel Jameson

Cc: Dr. Ernest W. Brewer
Professor and Major Advisor

VITA

Rachel Jameson is relatively new to the field of Human Resource Development. She obtained her Bachelor's Degree in Psychology in 1994 from Bemidji State University in Minnesota. She worked for less than one year in the Human Resources Department of a large, upscale hotel in Durham, North Carolina in 1996, before relocating to Knoxville, Tennessee with her husband. There, she began a four-year career working in the legal department of the corporation from which the present sampling frame was drawn. Also involved with various aspects of the company's Human Resources Department, Rachel was able to meet many of the respondents in this study and to witness the occupational and personal challenges many of them faced during organizational transitions.