RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION, GENDER, MARITAL STATUS, AND PARENTAL STATUS OF PK-12 ADMINISTRATORS IDENTIFYING AS CHRISTIAN

by

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Liberty University

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Education

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ABSTRACT

This quantitative non-experimental correlational study involved the investigation of the relationships between job satisfaction, gender, marital status, and parental status among educational leaders who identify as being Christian. A multiple regression analysis was utilized to determine how accurately job satisfaction, as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), can be predicted from a linear combination of gender, marital status, and parental status for Pre-Kindergarten through twelfth-grade school administrators identifying as Christian. A sample size of 573 educational leaders in Pre-Kindergarten through twelfth-grade schools who identified as being Christian participated in this study. The gender distribution in this study was relatively balanced, with 43.82% of participants being male, and 56.18% of participants being female. Multiple regression analysis revealed that gender, marital status, and parental status have no significant relationship with job satisfaction. The significance of this study lies in the need for increased gender awareness among school administrators, and the impact that gender roles play in job satisfaction related to work-life balance. Recommendations for further research include developing a spiritually focused job satisfaction survey due to the feedback from participants regarding their job satisfaction coming from a sense of calling rather than from external sources.

Keywords: Christian education, job satisfaction, gender, parental status, marital status
Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to women everywhere: Women who fight to break the stained-glass ceiling, women who make motherhood into servanthood, and women who inspire and lead everyone in their sphere of influence. This dissertation is dedicated to the men who support and love the women in their lives (especially you, Rob), and to all children of parents in educational leadership.
Acknowledgments

I can play now, Logan. I can play now, Abby. I’m sorry for all of the times I told you I was too busy writing. My hope is that one day you will see that each time I told you I had to write, I was writing for you. I was writing for a better future for you. I love you with every part of my being, and it’s an honor to be your mother. Thank you for loving me still, even through the business that got in the way of play time. From the deepest parts of my soul, I am so very grateful to you, Rob. Without you, there is no Doctor Alanna Staton. For all of the times you told me to go to Barnes and Noble to type while you played with the kids, thank you. For all of the times you told me to get a hotel room for the weekend to type while you played with the kids, thank you. I can watch late night television with you now.

Mom: Every month for the entire two years I have been writing this dissertation, you have mailed me an encouragement gift and card. I have kept every card, and they meant more than you will ever know. They mean so much because I know that more than a monthly gift, you’ve given me a lifetime of encouragement.

To all mothers, to all female leaders in education: I know this road we walk is not easy. I thank you for what you do each day to shape the future of this world, one child at a time.

To my committee: I couldn’t have asked for a better team to see me through. Thank you will never be enough.

To everyone at ACSI: Thank you so much for your participation in my study.

Above all else, I give all of the glory, honor, and gratitude to my Lord and Savior, Jesus Christ. Thank you, God for seeing me through this journey.
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List of Abbreviations

Association of Christian Schools International (ACSI)

Christian Schools International (CSI)

National Center for Education Statistics (NCES)

Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)

Pre-Kindergarten (PK)

Pre-Kindergarten through twelfth grade (PK-12)
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Overview

Job satisfaction is a heavily researched field (Spector, 1997). This chapter highlights the importance of further research in this area as it relates to gender and educational leadership. A historical overview is included in order to examine how gender issues in the workforce have evolved over time. Also included is an examination of the theoretical framework behind the study. Finally, the research question, which is derived from the problem and purpose statements is presented at the conclusion of chapter one.

Background

In 1993, males significantly outnumbered females as school principals in the United States by 53%. There were 52,110 males and 27,500 females employed as principals at that time in public schools. Within twenty years, females outnumbered males as school principals in both public and private schools. In 2013, there were 46,360 female principals and 43,450 male principals in public schools and 14,240 female principals in private schools compared to 11,490 male principals (United States Department of Labor, 2015).

Numerous studies have been conducted to evaluate the differences, relationships, and effects that gender has on educational leadership (Lumby, 2013; Fuller, 2014; Coder & Spiller, 2013). One of the multiple variables that play a role in the leadership equation is job satisfaction. The relationship between gender and job satisfaction is significant, but varies based on profession and other outside variables. Within the field of education, Baran, Maskan, and Baran (2015) found that female teachers report higher levels of job satisfaction. In another study, however, male physical education teachers were found to have much higher job satisfaction than female physical education teachers (Sentuna, 2015). As a generalization, not specific to
profession, Kifle and Desta (2012) found that males report higher job satisfaction with regard to intrinsic factors. However, females reported higher job satisfaction regarding extrinsic factors. Randolph (2005) defined extrinsic factors relating to job satisfaction as the external benefits provided to the employee by the employer such as salary, continuing education, and flexible schedules. Intrinsic job satisfaction factors include work and home life balance, meaningful work environments, realistic workloads, and sufficient staffing for the position (Randolph, 2005).

One of the extrinsic factors which may play a role into the satisfaction of one’s job is work-life balance, which includes the ability to spend more time with one’s spouse and children. For Christians, priority time spent with family is not only a desire, but it is also found as instruction in the Bible. God is to come first for all Christians, but for married believers, the relationship with one’s spouse comes next. Ephesians 5:25 instructs married men to love their wives as Christ loved the church. After obeying God, Christ’s first priority was the church. Ephesians also speaks to a married woman’s priorities by instructing her to submit to her husband as she would to the Lord (Ephesians 5:22, New International Version). Family values are top priorities for Christian school administrators. Cardus’ Education Survey found that Protestant Christian school administrators ranked family priorities and family values just as high as academic priorities (Pennings, Seel, Van Pelt, Sikkink, & Wiens, 2011).

Gallagher, Hall, and Del Rosario (2013) found that tension exists for females who formulate beliefs about marriage and child-rearing based on their religion and their attitudes towards employment. This tension can be alleviated through spousal support. Pedersen and Minnotte (2013) found that there is significant importance in both parents sharing in family caretaking responsibilities, as a woman’s job satisfaction is highly dependent on spousal support. Furthermore, fathers report family cohesion when mothers report high job satisfaction. Christian
husbands who fully support their working wives by sharing in child-care, housekeeping, and emotional support duties help to significantly increase a woman’s sense of well-being (Thorstad, Anderson, Hall, Willingham, & Carruthers, 2006).

**Historical Overview**

In an article discussing the historical obstacles women have faced to obtain high-leadership positions, Pearce (2014) elucidated that since the birth of society in the United States, the American public has held on to an idea that men are identified as being more effective leaders. Dodd (2013) explained that the plight for women’s suffrage and the campaign for the Nineteenth Amendment was based on the idea that women were second-class citizens, and this had been justified within society by appealing to the sense of meaning and identity many women found in their family roles. “In this way, women's civic membership was defined by their adherence to the tenets of true womanhood and their roles in the traditional family” (Dodd, 2013, p. 712).

The suffrage movement had much further implications within society beyond voting. Many suffrage supporters campaigned for women to hold roles alongside men within the working environment (Dodd, 2013). However, not all women supported this idea. Caroline Corbin was an avid suffrage opponent, and was known for speaking out against women ever holding a working position outside the home. This was taken a step further when Corbin espoused the idea that women should be given governmental immunity from public service and labor (Dodd, 2013). While the birth of the Nineteenth Amendment may have begun a more tenable introduction of women’s rights within society, Lee, Zvonkovic, and Crawford (2014) observed that working women in America still continue to disproportionately shoulder the responsibility for childcare and household tasks outside of work. Leyenaar (2008) explained that
even with the increasing number of women who have received higher education degrees and obtained positions within management, a power relation issue between men and women still exists in the workforce. Still, many highly educated and affluent women feel gender discrimination is no longer an issue, and view gender affirmative action degrading because they do not want to be perceived as victims (Leyanaar, 2008). “When quota laws were being debated in Italy, for example, a group of women referred to the quota laws as panda laws, as if they were a means to safeguard an endangered species” (Leyanaar, 2008, p. 3). Leyanaar (2008) goes on to explain that the topic of concern with women today tends to be in the light of work-life balance.

**Societal Implications**

Mock (2005) discussed the societal implications of gender bias within the Christian education community by observing that female administrators face the perception that only childless women operate successfully as leaders. Mock’s (2005) description further explains this bias by suggesting that Christian female administrators face a stained-glass ceiling on their rise to the top. Scott (2014) questioned whether a Christian female leader could be perceived as being both a good woman and a good leader simultaneously. The research in Scott’s (2014) study focused on role congruity within evangelical organizations and found that role congruity was an obstacle for both men and women in Christian organizations. The theory of role congruity, discussed further in chapter one, describes that groups of people who fit within a particular role within society are seen in a more positive light than those who do not align to that group’s societal perceptions (Eagly & Diekman, 2005).

Regarding the role perceptions of gender and leadership, Lumby (2013) reported that historically, men have been comparatively freer than women to work long hours, allowing them to hold leadership positions if so desired. Lumby (2013) argued that if female principals choose
to spend more time at work than at home, they are perceived as espousing masculinity. In a case study investigating gender stereotypes among women in educational leadership, Fuller (2014) explained that historically, women tend to obtain school headship against the odds.

**Theoretical Framework**

The backbone of this study is grounded in three theories: Role congruity, Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, and Herzberg’s right to work theory. Role congruity theory, as presented by Eagly and Diekman (2005) suggests that those groups who are perceived as fitting their societal role stereotype are favored more highly by society. As a theory within a theory, Eagly and Karau (2002) presented the role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders. This theory submits that women leaders are perceived less favorably than male leaders, which in turn makes it more difficult for a woman to achieve success in a leadership role. A consequence of this behavior is that attitudes are less positive towards women leaders than their male counterparts (Eagly & Karau, 2002). This occurs especially in environments or situations in which there is incongruity between the female gender role and leadership roles (Eagly & Karau, 2002).

Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory further explains human motivation in general, but has been used to explain the psychology behind job satisfaction. Maslow’s theory explains that the appearance of one need rests on the prior satisfaction of another need (Maslow, 1995). The hierarchy of Maslow’s needs go from physiological, safety and security, love and belonging, self-esteem, to self-actualization (Maslow, 1995). In an article exploring the relationship between job satisfaction and Maslow’s Hierarchy, Udechukwu (2009) explained satisfied needs are not motivators. Instead, as the lower-level needs like safety are met, they no longer drive the behavior of the individual. Higher-order needs then replace the lower-level needs as the motivating force. Because of this, jobs that do not offer the lower-level needs tend to have higher
turnover. In order for employees to report high job satisfaction, basic physiological needs must be met. When all basic needs are satisfied, employees can then begin to feel valued and appreciated by their employer, which leads to further growth as an employee and higher reports of job satisfaction.

Herzberg’s motivation to work theory states that job satisfaction is primarily a product of internal motivation factors (Herzberg, 1959, 2003). Herzberg’s original study on the motivation to work (1959) included an interview of 203 professionals in the manufacturing industry. Participants were asked about times in which they felt satisfied or dissatisfied with work. Two themes emerged from the interviews: Maintenance and motivation. The maintenance factors identified by employees referred to environmental or organizational specifics such as salary, working conditions, and evaluations. Overwhelmingly, these factors were associated with job dissatisfaction. Job satisfaction was significantly related to the motivational factors such as praise from one’s supervisor and opportunities for advancement (Herzberg, 1959, 2003). Herzberg’s theory directly relates to Maslow’s theory in that Herzberg proposed that one’s job has the capacity to fulfill the need for self-actualization (Herzberg, 2003).

Problem Statement

A gap in the literature exists for all variables involved in this study. In a study of work-family culture and job satisfaction, Mauno, Kinnunen, and Feldt (2012) suggested that further research should focus on the joint effects of gender and parenting status. There is a dearth of literature researching Christian women, especially Christian women leaders (Scott, 2014). In a study of women leading within the Council for Christian Colleges and Universities, further study was suggested to investigate feminism, Christian culture, and educational leadership (Dahlvig, 2013). In a study of leaders in Classical Christian schools, it was suggested that further research
should focus on Christian female leaders, and should strategize on how to recruit and promote Christian female leaders (Council & Cooper, 2011).

The problem is that although females outnumber males in educational leadership positions, Christian female leaders with young children at home potentially face obstacles in job satisfaction due to role congruity and work-family balance.

**Purpose Statement**

The purpose of this quantitative non-experimental correlational study is to determine the relationships between gender, job satisfaction, and the familial status of K-12 school administrators’ who identify as being Christian. There is a lack of research investigating job satisfaction of Christians, especially Christian women and Christian leaders. Because Christian leaders highly value family priorities (Pennings, Seel, Van Pelt, Sikkink, & Wiens, 2011), having children under the age of 18 living at home can provide an internal struggle regarding work-life balance. Research shows that spousal support can off-set this struggle, but the degree to which this occurs is unknown. This study seeks to determine if a statistically significant predictive relationship exists between the criterion variable of job satisfaction and the linear combination of the predictor variables of gender, marital status, and parental status. Using dummy coding to analyze the variables, gender is defined as either male or female; marital status as married, single, married with one spouse not geographically present, widow, or other; parental status as having a child (or children) under the age of 18 living at home, a child (or children) 18 or over living at home, a child (or children), but none living at home, or having no children. Specifically, this study is targeting Pre-Kindergarten through twelfth-grade (PK-12) school administrators identifying as Christian.
Significance of the Study

The significance of this study lies with the implications for increased gender awareness in school districts when identifying retention strategies for principals (Mestry & Schmidt, 2012; Lumby, 2013). Because females outnumber males as school administrators in both public and private sectors, school districts should pay attention to whether or not there is a relationship between gender, job satisfaction, and familial status of administrators (United States Department of Labor, 2015). If marital status or parental status is a significant variable to consider as a predictor of job satisfaction, school districts should invest in programs to support a work-life balance, which should include a family-friendly environment. Moon and Jongho (2010) investigated the impact of family-friendly policies in elementary school organizations and noted that family-friendly policies within the workplace are a hot-topic in human resource management because the size in the workforce of married women with young children has remarkably increased. “This requires organizational employees—in particular, married women with young children—seek a balance between their workplace and family life because such a balance may have a positive impact on their job satisfaction and work productivity” (Moon and Jongho, 2010, p. 117). Some of the family-friendly policies employees have adopted to increase job satisfaction include flextime, job sharing, flexible work site, increased sick leave, childcare leave, and paid maternity leave (Moon & Jongho, 2010). Although this study is not specific to Christian schools, Christian schools may especially benefit from the results of this study, as the participants all identify as being Christian.

Research Question

The research question for this study arose from the problem that although females outnumber males in educational leadership positions, Christian female leaders with young
children at home potentially face obstacles in job satisfaction due to role congruity and work-family balance.

**RQ1**: How accurately can job satisfaction, as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), be predicted from a linear combination of gender, marital status, and parental status for PK-12 school administrators identifying as Christian?

**Definitions**

Two terms need to be operationally defined to clearly establish the parameters of this study: Job satisfaction and role congruity. Job satisfaction needed to be defined primarily because the definitions vary according to the study. Role congruity is not a common term within education, but is central to the present study.

1. **Job Satisfaction** - The extent to which people like or dislike their jobs and different aspects of their jobs (Spector, 1985).

2. **Role Congruity Theory** - proposes that a group will be positively evaluated when its characteristics are recognized as aligning with that group's typical social roles (Eagly & Diekman, 2005).

**Research Summary**

This quantitative non-experimental correlational study examined the relationships between job satisfaction, gender, and familial status among educational leaders who identify as being Christian. A multiple regression analysis was utilized to determine how accurately job satisfaction, as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), can be predicted from a linear combination of gender, marital status, and parental status for PK-12 school administrators identifying as Christian. The participation selection in this study included a sample size of 592 educational leaders in PK-12 schools who identify as being Christian.
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Overview

The primary difficulty of educational leadership identified by school leaders from both genders is the lack of time they have to complete all necessary work tasks, especially when family responsibilities leave less time for leadership responsibilities (Gabriela, Dan, & Antonia, 2013). Both genders also report the stress of educational leadership stems from the competitive nature of the work (Lárusdóttir, 2014). A school administrator’s job can often lead to burnout due to the high level of stress. This stress can be even more palpable for parents of young children when trying to balance the load between home and work. The stressors of work-life balance, status and recognition, and interpersonal relationships need to be addressed in order to limit job dissatisfaction, especially if schools are seeking to retain highly qualified administrators.

Theoretical Framework

The backbone of this study is grounded in three theories: Role congruity, Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, and Herzberg’s right to work theory.

Role Congruity Theory

As Eagly and Diekman (2005) asserted, role congruity theory is described as the perception of society towards groups regarding their role within society. The theory is rooted in stereotypes, and it suggests that when a particular group fits the stereotypical mold given to that group, the group is perceived more favorably within society. This theory can cover any stereotype a society may hold about any particular group, including class, gender, race, ethnicity, or age. Eagly and Karau (2002) presented a theory within a theory to describe the specific prejudice society holds toward women in particular. This theory posits that women leaders are perceived less favorably
than male leaders, which in turn makes it more difficult for a woman to achieve success in a leadership role. Eagly and Karau (2002) found that due to role congruity within the workplace, the attitude employees hold regarding women leaders is considerably less positive than the attitudes held concerning male leaders. This occurs especially in environments or situations in which there is incongruity between the female gender role and leadership roles (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Reid, Palomares, Anderson, and Bondad-Brown (2009) explain that role congruity theory leaves the potential for women to become leaders less than the potential for men due to the perception of society that men more closely fit the leader stereotype. Additionally, once women are in place as leaders, they tend to be evaluated less favorably than men because any assertive behavior shown by the female leader is perceived as threatening and undesirable to men (Reid, Palomares, Anderson, & Bondad-Brown, 2009).

Role congruity theory as it refers to gender suggests that women “are expected to perform more stereotypically communal or feminine roles such as nurturing or mentoring, while males are expected to perform more masculine or agentic roles such as allocating resources or administering discipline” (Tiell, Dixon, & Yen-Chun, 2012, p. 248). In their comprehensive review of the theory, they also found that women have a tendency to perform roles conforming to the more feminine norms. This means women are more inclined to take on communal roles so that they do not go against the feminine norms of nurturing, mentoring, and role modeling. Women tend to avoid agentic roles that will make them look more masculine. Agentic roles entail thinking how to allocate resources, make strategic decision-making, and discipline one’s subordinates, which are considered masculine.

Hoyt and Burnette’s (2013) research in this area showed that attitudes toward women in leadership roles depend greatly on their personable beliefs about whether human attributes are
malleable or not. The authors recruited 147 undergraduate students to participate in a study examining evaluations of gubernatorial candidates. (Hoyt & Burnette, 2013).

After providing informed consent, participants completed a survey that included measures of their implicit person theories and attitudes toward female authorities before they evaluated two gubernatorial candidates. We presented campaign statements purportedly written by two political candidates in an ostensible upcoming gubernatorial election. The sex of the candidates was manipulated through the use of sex-specific first names… After reading each campaign statement, participants assessed the candidates. (Hoyt & Burnette, 2013, p. 10)

An ordinary least squares regression was utilized to analyze the data. The results of this study revealed that attitudes about women in authority can predict either pro-female or pro-male leader evaluations. They also found that prejudice against women develops from the incongruity between the perception of what it takes to be a leader and the perception of women in general. Additionally, the research shows the bias lies in the favor of women when the role is perceived as corresponding to the stereotype (Hoyt & Burnette, 2013).

**Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs Theory**

Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs Theory further explains human motivation in general, but has been used to explain the psychology behind job satisfaction. Maslow’s theory explains that the appearance of one need rests on the prior satisfaction of another need (Maslow, 1995). The hierarchy of Maslow’s needs go from physiological, safety and security, love and belonging, self-esteem, to self-actualization (Maslow, 1995). In an article exploring the relationship between job satisfaction and Maslow’s Hierarchy, Udechukwu (2009) explained satisfied needs are not motivators. Instead, as the lower-level needs like safety are met, they no longer drive the
behavior of the individual. Higher-order needs then replace the lower-level needs as the
motivating force. Because of this, jobs that do not offer the lower-level needs tend to have higher
turnover. In order for employees to report high job satisfaction, basic physiological needs must
be met. When all basic needs are satisfied, employees can then begin to feel valued and
appreciated by their employer, which leads to further growth as an employee and higher reports
of job satisfaction (Udechukwu, 2009).

Benson and Dundis (2003) applied Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Model in exploring
what motivates employees in a fast-changing healthcare industry. Maslow’s first level of needs
relates to salary in the workplace because one’s salary provides shelter and food. Benson and
Dundis (2003) posited that Maslow’s second level of needs includes a freedom from anxiety and
stress. Due to the pervasive nature of stress in today’s workplace, and because it is a constant in
most jobs, it needs to be evaluated on a continuum from moderate to extreme. The third level
translates to the workplace in the sense of social belongingness. “Anyone having experienced the
ordeal of feeling socially uncomfortable in a work setting can understand the importance of
workplace collegiality” (Benson & Dundis, 2003, p. 317). However, Benson and Dundis with the
help of the theory, found that because of the high pressure work environments created in today’s
society, little emphasis is placed on an employee’s social comfortability at work. Self-esteem and
self-actualization can occur in the workplace when employers are willing to provide training so
the employee can learn new things, take risks, and feel more confident in what they do. Their
exploration of the theory revealed that the best way to ensure employee motivation is to make
them feel secure and valued, which is not easy to do. Leaders need to consider the needs of the
individual employees, use updated technologies to meet these needs, and provide them with
training so enhanced loyalty and motivation can happen (Benson & Dundis, 2003).
Herzberg’s Motivation to Work Theory

Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs Theory and Herzberg’s Motivation to Work Theory go hand-in-hand when related to job satisfaction. The primary connection lies in the roots behind Herzberg’s theory which states that job satisfaction is primarily a product of internal motivation factors (Herzberg, 1959, 2003). Herzberg’s original study on the motivation to work (1959) included an interview of 203 professionals in the manufacturing industry. Participants were asked about times in which they felt satisfied or dissatisfied with work. Two themes emerged from the interviews: Maintenance and motivation. The maintenance factors identified by employees referred to environmental or organizational specifics such as salary, working conditions, and evaluations. Overwhelmingly, these factors were associated with job dissatisfaction. Job satisfaction was significantly related to the motivational factors such as praise from one’s supervisor and opportunities for advancement (Herzberg, 1959, 2003).

Herzberg’s theory directly relates to Maslow’s theory in that Herzberg proposed one’s job has the capacity to fulfill the need for self-actualization (Herzberg, 2003). Herzberg’s theory (2003) describes satisfaction and dissatisfaction as being on different continuums, and are therefore not opposites. Herzberg believed motivational factors can cause satisfaction or no satisfaction.

Numerous studies connect the dots between the two theories and job satisfaction (Gaki, Kontodimopoulos, & Niakas, 2013; Sewell & Gilbert, 2015). Gaki et al. evaluated both the demographic variables and work-related factors that shape the Greek nurses’ level of work motivation. Both Herzberg’s and Maslow’s motivation theories served as the framework of the study. Gathering data from 200 nurses across sectors in a University Hospital in Greece, Gaki et al. (2013) used a previously validated questionnaire measuring the four work-related motivators of job attributes, salary, co-workers and achievements on a five-point Likert scale. The findings
revealed that most of the participants were female, married, and aged 36 to 45 years old. They also attained higher education. Achievements served as the highest motivator while satisfaction, work sector, and age were all statistically significantly related to motivational factors. From the study, Gaki et al. (2013) showed that Herzberg’s theory categorized motivation into the factors of motivators and hygiene whereas motivators were described as intrinsic aspects. Examples of these include achievement, recognition, promotion, and responsibility. As related to this particular study, hygiene is defined as external factors such as salary, work environment, and relationships. While external factors may not increase job satisfaction, they do cause job dissatisfaction (Gaki, et al., 2013).

In addition, Sewell and Gilbert (2015) reported the survey findings in relation to the job satisfaction levels of 361 library access service practitioners. The results were evaluated using the Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs and Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory. Results indicated that there exist various opportunities for the access services staff to be satisfied because their higher-level needs are met. The library access service practitioners felt satisfied the most when they experience personal fulfillment, stable job opportunities, and good relationships with coworkers. Even though the satisfaction of higher-level needs motivates them the most, job satisfaction of the participants was also influenced by the meeting of their lower-level needs, particularly being paid a reasonable salary. Age, education level, and administrative responsibilities also serve as predictive factors of job satisfaction of the staff (Sewell & Gilbert, 2015). The researchers concluded that even though in general employees are satisfied, organizations must ensure that employees will always have a fulfilling work environment.
Related Literature

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction has been studied at length, and the detailed definition of job satisfaction varies greatly depending on the vocation. In general, the definition of job satisfaction encompasses a state of emotions held by an employee regarding his or her working environment (Weihrich & Koontz, 2005). Locke and Dunnette (1976) referred to job satisfaction as the positive emotional state of one’s job or the negative feelings towards a job based on one’s own needs or expectations. Weiss (2002) described job satisfaction as an attitude, and went on to explain that job satisfaction is the employee’s positive or negative judgment of his or her conditions in the workplace. Spector (1997) indicated that job satisfaction is more studied than any other variable in organizations. Most recent research of job satisfaction indicates that job satisfaction is measurable, and is viewed as an attitudinal variable in order to determine how employees feel about particular aspects of their job (Spector, 1997). The positive emotional state Locke and Dunnette (1976) referred to results from the measurement and evaluation of one’s job satisfaction. It is important to differentiate between job satisfaction and work satisfaction, as Perry and Mankin (2007) defined work satisfaction as an employee’s assessment of the personal rewards and the importance of society’s perspective of a particular profession. Job satisfaction relies solely on the personal perspective of the employee regarding his or her work environment, not dependent on society’s perception of the particular position.

Impact on the Workplace

Job satisfaction has a significant impact on the workplace in all professions (Allensworth, Ponisciak, & Mazzeo; 2009; Brashear, Boles, Bellenger, & Brooks, 2003; Levy, Ellis, Jablonski, & Karelitz, 2012). Brashear et al. (2003) examined three types of trust-building processes and
outcomes that can happen in the relationships of 400 sales managers and their employees. They found that job satisfaction is associated with organizational commitment. Job turnover is one of the most costly expenses for organizations. In particular, their results revealed that there are two trust-building processes, which are predictive and identification, that can significantly affect salesperson trust in their managers. Brashear et al. (2003) also found that interpersonal trust can affect shared values and respect the most. The findings revealed that trust can shape job satisfaction and relationalism directly while it can influence organizational commitment and turnover intention indirectly.

Levy et al. (2012) created a model and methodology to analyze turnover costs for the middle and high schools across Boston Public Schools. The objective was to see if the costs can be higher when it comes to teachers of science and then determine the model’s feasibility to be implemented by school personnel. The findings indicated that even though the model and methods were sensitive enough to reveal the cost differentials between schools and for science teachers, the model is not easy to apply at the district or school levels, especially when turnover costs at these levels can be quite complicated, because they are scattered between department budgets. Some of the costs are not even documented properly. Most meaningful to the study is that the cost of turnover is significant to larger districts, and that job satisfaction could be increased to reduce turnover.

In addition, Allensworth, Ponisciak and Mazzeo (2009) found that many schools lose at least half of their teaching staff every three years. The researchers have evaluated factors linked to high mobility rates, which involve the teachers’ background, the school system and structure, the characteristics of the students, and the conditions of the workplace. Data gathered from 5,000 teachers in 538 elementary schools and 118 high schools, when analyzed, revealed that the
factors of principal leadership, teacher collaboration, student safety all predict perceptions of stability. Elementary teachers’ perceptions of parents as partners in students' education strongly affect how they perceive the stability of their jobs. On the other hand, high school teachers’ feelings of stability are affected by how their students behave. The findings led to the conclusion that even though teacher mobility is normal and expected, high turnover rates can lead to a host of problems at schools that should be avoided by meeting the needs and increasing the job satisfaction levels of the teachers (Allenworth et al., 2009). In 2008, RAND Corp. conducted a study on behalf of non-profit group, New Leaders, to determine the turnover rate of principals and how it impacted schools (Samuels, 2012). The study found that 12 percent of principals left within their first year as principal. However, Samuels (2012) noted that it takes at least three years for a principal to feel comfortable enough to make progress within the school environment. Unfortunately, when inexperienced principals are placed into struggling schools, the turnover rate for veteran teachers increases, which results in a frustrated principal (Samuels, 2012). As job satisfaction is directly tied to commitment, schools desiring to decrease turnover costs should implement strategies to increase job satisfaction among its workers.

Factors Affecting Job Satisfaction

Christianity

A full literature review conducted by Brown and Sargeant (2007) indicated that there is limited research investigating the connection between religion and job satisfaction. This is supported by what the other studies found (Awais, Malik & Qaisar, 2015; Moore, 2008; Rice, 1990). Moore (2008) stated that “strangely absent is research that has been performed on religion in the workplace” (p. 268). One of the few studies directly linking Christianity to job commitment (Rice, 1990) indicated that two-thirds of Seventh Day Adventist teachers reported
teaching was God’s choice for their lives, and it was their ministry to do so. Through a literature review synthesis to determine if job satisfaction can act as a mediator between spiritual intelligence and organizational commitment, Awais et al. (2015) found a significant positive relationship between spiritual intelligence and job satisfaction. This means that while there is no significant relationship between organizational commitment and spiritual intelligence, an indirect relationship exists between the two constructs as mediated by job satisfaction. Having high spiritual intelligence leads to high job satisfaction levels, which can then positively influence organizational commitment. Silberman (2005) earlier on, already revealed that when workers believe their work to be sacred, it is worthwhile across a range of job conditions. Moreover, Nuebert and Halbesleben (2015) explained that, “spiritual calling has the potential to be an external source of meaning contributing to job satisfaction” (p. 862). Like Awais et al. (2015), Nuebert and Halbesleben (2015) evaluated the relationships of spiritual calling with job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment. In their study however, they accounted for a host of demographic, religious, and work controls before examining if there is an interactive effect of spiritual calling and job satisfaction on organizational commitment. Data gathered from 771 adults in the United States revealed the positive relationship between spiritual calling and both job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Findings also supported the hypothesis that the interaction of spiritual calling and job satisfaction can predict variance in organizational commitment (Nuebert & Halbesleben, 2015). When a sense of spiritual calling is strong, it is positively associated with organizational commitment, even in a situation in which one’s job is not necessarily satisfying (Neubert & Halbesleben, 2015).

While spiritual calling is not directly related to a specific religion, the Bible recounts stories of God calling people to particular vocations. As Messenger (2012) explained,
God called Noah to build the ark. God called Moses and Aaron to their tasks (Exodus 3:4, 28:1). He called prophets such as Samuel (1 Samuel 3:10), Jeremiah (Jeremiah 1:4-5), Amos (Amos 7:15) and others. He called Abram and Sarah and a few others to undertake journeys or to relocate (which might be taken as a kind of workplace calling). He placed people in political leadership including Joseph, Gideon, Saul, David and David’s descendants. God chose Bezalel and Oholiab as chief craftsmen for the tabernacle (Exodus 31:1-6). Jesus called the apostles and some other of his disciples (e.g., Mark 3:14-19), and the Holy Spirit called Barnabas and Saul to be missionaries (Acts 13:2).
The word “call” is not always used, but the unmistakable direction of God for a particular person to do a particular job is clear in these cases. (p. 6)

Although few studies examined Christianity and job satisfaction, many more examine a link between spiritual calling and job satisfaction (Duffy, Allan, Bott, & Dik, 2013; Elangovan, Pinder, & McLean, 2010). Duffy et al. (2013) found a direct relationship between calling and job satisfaction when they examined the relation of career calling to life satisfaction. Data was gathered from a diverse sample of 553 working adults. They differentiated between perceiving a calling and living this calling. Findings indicated that perceiving a calling is significantly related to life satisfaction only if the adult is living a calling. Through a structural equation model, the findings indicated job satisfaction and life meaning both act as partial mediators to the relationship of living a calling to life satisfaction (Duffy et al., 2013).

Elangovan et al. (2010) traced how the concept of calling evolved from being religious into being secular then defined calling as something that can inspire action, where the convergence of selves can happen and a pro-social intention from the individual to achieve this calling exists. They claimed that spiritual callings should be related to job satisfaction.
conceptually (Elangovan et al., 2010). In addition, Brown and Sargeant (2007) found a relationship between religious commitment and organization commitment within a Christian organization, especially among administrators. The researchers evaluated how job satisfaction affects organizational and religious commitment among full time workers at Akra University. Through ANOVA using the Games-Howell procedure, they found that administrators older than age 46 years had higher job satisfaction and organizational and religious commitment compared to those younger than them. Administrators who also possess doctoral degrees had higher levels of job satisfaction and religious commitment compared to high school diploma holders only. Brown and Sargeant (2007) suggested the reason behind this finding is Christian organizations likely spend more time recruiting administrators who hold similar values to the institution. Overwhelmingly, the limited literature available examining the relationship between religion or calling on job satisfaction indicates a positive relationship exists (Brown & Sargeant, 2007). From a biblical perspective, Tomlinson and Winston (2011), explored Romans 12:3-8 motivational gifts to address its implications for job satisfaction and job person fit. Romans 12:3-8 (NIV) states:

For by the grace given me I say to every one of you: Do not think of yourself more highly than you ought, but rather think of yourself with sober judgment, in accordance with the faith God has distributed to each of you. For just as each of us has one body with many members, and these members do not all have the same function, so in Christ we, though many, form one body, and each member belongs to all the others. We have different gifts, according to the grace given to each of us. If your gift is prophesying, then prophesy in accordance with your faith; if it is serving, then serve; if it is teaching, then teach; if it is
to encourage, then give encouragement; if it is giving, then give generously; if it is to lead, do it diligently; if it is to show mercy, do it cheerfully.

Tomlinson and Winston (2011) studied the motivational gift profiles of college professors and found that all of their participants fell into a specific cluster profile based on earlier research using the same research tool. In short, all participants fell into either a high score on the ruler gift or medium on encourager, perceiver, ruler, server, and teacher gifts. Tomlinson and Winston (2011) suggested their findings indicate that if a professor falls into one of the two clusters, high job satisfaction, low stress, and high performance may occur. In other words, when a person fits into the job in which he or she is gifted to do, it only makes sense that job satisfaction would follow. An earlier study by Clark et al. (2007) evaluated the prevalence of spirituality among hospice interdisciplinary team (IDT) members and determined if their spirituality is related to job satisfaction. Spirituality was based on the four variables of spiritual belief, integration of spirituality at work, self-actualization and job satisfaction. Data from 215 hospice IDT members who completed the Jarel Spiritual Well-Being Scale, the Chamiec-Case Spirituality Integration and Job Satisfaction Scales revealed job satisfaction is improved if one's spirituality is integrated at work and leads to self-actualization.

**Gender**

The literature on job satisfaction and gender has largely similar findings: Women are more satisfied than men, or at least not more dissatisfied than men (Long, 2005; Bender & Heywood, 2006; Bokemeier & Lacy, 1987; Bonte & Krabel, 2014; Hull, 1999; Kaiser, 2007; Kifle & Desta, 2012; Sloane & Williams, 2000). Bonte and Krabel (2014) posed the questions: Do highly qualified women decrease their work expectations as they get older? Or, do females' work expectations increase as they get older because of a change in social norms? Bonte and
Krabel (2014) studied job satisfaction of recent college graduates and found that the levels of job satisfaction between the two groups was similar. Only in the area of work-life balance did females attach greater importance. Bonte and Krabel (2014) revealed the possibility that women’s job expectations change over time:

It might be possible that expectation levels of male and female graduates are similar but female graduates’ expectation levels may decrease over the course of their career in response to facing disadvantages on the labour market. This would explain why women are on average less satisfied than men at the beginning of the career, but could potentially become more satisfied with similar jobs as their career progresses. (p. 2,486)

Because school administrators tend to be in a more seasoned part of their career path, it may be likely that female administrators report higher levels of job satisfaction than their male counterparts (Bonte & Krabel, 2014).

Kifle and Desta (2012) gathered data from graduates of Australia’s Group of Eight universities to determine if gender can influence job satisfaction levels using the Mann-Whitney U Test. They found that males are more satisfied than females only regarding their hours worked and their opportunities for career advancement. Females showed higher satisfaction in the areas of co-worker relationships and their personal contributions to society (Kifle & Desta, 2012).

“From this one can conclude that, for domains showing significant gender differences, males are more satisfied with intrinsic aspects of job satisfaction, whereas females are more satisfied with extrinsic features of job satisfaction” (Kifle & Desta, 2012, p. 331). Both studies confirmed that gender disparities exist in job satisfaction, showing women are more likely to be satisfied with their jobs.
Work-life balance

Work-life balance is positively related to job satisfaction and organizational pride (Mas-Machuca, Berbegal-Mirabent, & Alegre, 2016). The researchers evaluated how the employees’ relationship with their leaders, their supervisors, and then their co-workers collectively influenced their job satisfaction levels. Through empirical data involving 374 valid observations, analyzed using the qualitative comparative analysis (QCA), the findings revealed job satisfaction is the outcome of teamwork, identification with strategies, autonomy, and supervisor support. More importantly, having no work-family conflicts served as a strong predictor of job satisfaction (Mas-Machuca et al., 2016). In addition, Bopp, Wigley, and Eddosary (2015) explained that “the consequences of a compromised level of work life quality can impact a company’s bottom line as they include such negative outcomes as reduced productivity, absenteeism, burnout, job effort, and turnover” (p. 1025). Bopp et al. (2015) contributed to the job satisfaction literature by evaluating the relationship between job and life satisfaction among National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) head coaches. Gathering data from 348 head coaches across all three NCAA Divisions and then analyzing these qualitatively, the researchers found life satisfaction and job satisfaction to have significant and positive relationship. The study’s findings led to the conclusion that what is happening to an employee’s life outside work can affect how they feel about their jobs.

In a study conducted to investigate the relationship between work-life balance and job satisfaction, 200 nurses from 25 private nursing homes in Central Taiwan completed a cross-sectional mailed survey and analyzed through a composite indicator structural equation model, Chen, Brown, Bowers, and Chang (2015) found that job satisfaction influences turnover intention through high work to family conflict. It was also found that an employee’s intention to
leave was negatively associated with job satisfaction and positively associated with work to family conflict. These findings suggest that employees who struggle with finding a balance between work and home may have higher rates of turnover, and lower rates of job satisfaction. In addition, Schilling (2015) conferred that work life balance refers to an imbalance of work and life, which arrives from a perception of lack of time. It was noted, however, that one’s perception of work-life balance differs greatly among individuals in similar situations. “We need to note that not only do personal aims, subjective values and the methods to achieve WLB vary within a society, but also within one individual in the course of one's lifetime” (Schilling, 2015, p. 476).

Regarding gender and work-life balance, specifically in the arena of academia, Ward and Wolf-Wendel (2012) explain the stress mothers in academia feel is due to a never-ending workload, guilt about the amount of time they are able to devote to work or home, and simply not having enough time in the day to complete everything required of them. Moreover, Reddick, Rochlen, Grasso, Reilly, and Spikes (2012) noted that the work-life balance conflict exists for fathers as well due to pressures to be an active part of the child’s life and to share the burden of parenthood with the mother. Reddick et al. (2012) in particular, examined how junior male tenure-track faculty with children worked through their conflicting work and family responsibilities. In-depth interviews of 12 fathers revealed that compartmentalization strategies, strict time management practices, open and frequent communication with their wives at home and peers at work, and not overextending themselves in work and family responsibilities, helped them deal with work-life balance conflict. Worth noting is that the fathers in the Reddick et al. (2012) study admitted the expectations placed on females in the academic world by society, as well as biological expectations for motherhood likely places a greater level of stress on working mothers.
In a study to investigate whether young children determine a mother’s job satisfaction, wherein statistical evidence of significant gender differences were analyzed, Kifle, Kler, and Shankar (2014) found that mothers with young children at home who were able to work part-time were more satisfied with their work-life balance relative to those who were older and had no children at home. The opposite is true for mothers of young children working full-time (Kifle et al., 2014).

Moon and Jongho (2010) found elementary schools that encourage family-friendly policies report higher levels of job satisfaction among married women with young children. Moon and Jongho (2010) noted the implications of this lies in the fact that the education workforce continues to include large numbers of married women with young children. Moon and Jongho’s (2010) suggestions to employers include allowing more flextime, sick leave, and paid maternity leave, all of which would have a greater impact on job satisfaction among mothers of young children.

**Leadership**

Leadership positions and the associated stress levels can also influence job satisfaction. Adekola (2006) found that female leaders were less effective in managing organizational resources than their male counterparts based on work-family conflict because female leaders tend to experience a higher degree of work-family conflict than male leaders. Within the world of education, there is limited research examining job satisfaction of school principals. However, many studies have researched the various stressors school principals face including high-stakes testing, accountability, time required for the job, limited control, and frequent demands from parents (Else & Sodoma, 1999; Green et al., 2001). Westman and Etzion (1999) found that female and young inexperienced principals of small schools reports higher levels of stress than
their counterparts. Schmidt, Weaver, and Aldridge (2001) found that principals new to the profession are not adequately prepared to cope with the continuous changes and stressors society adds to the profession.

Darmody and Smyth (2016) added to the limited body of research on job satisfaction and school leadership. Their findings indicated that while job satisfaction of primary school principals did not change based on gender, levels of stress were reported to be lower among principals who had previous experience as a school leader. An interesting result of the research found that stress levels were highest at the beginning of principalship, dipped to lower levels after five years, but increased again after ten years as a principal. Principals from schools with older buildings or who had students with significant behavior problems were found to have less satisfaction. Additionally, principals who felt their teachers were not open to change reported feeling higher levels of stress. Darmody and Smyth (2016) suggested that role overload contributes to job satisfaction of principals, and that principals who are also required to teach report significantly lower levels of job satisfaction, and the dual role requirements have strong negative impacts on principals.

In a similar study, wherein Chang, Leach, and Anderman (2015) explored possible moderation effects of principals’ career experiences on their job satisfaction among 1501 K-12 public school principals in the United States through an online survey, it was found that school principals showed higher levels of job satisfaction when they perceive higher degrees of autonomy. Additionally, it was discussed that superintendents should ensure that principals receive encouragement to make decisions on their own, as the research indicated tenure was directly linked to perceived autonomy among principals. Federici’s (2013) also studied the link between principal job satisfaction and principal autonomy on a larger scale by surveying 1,818
school principals. The survey results indicated that principals have higher levels of job satisfaction when their perception of job autonomy was higher. Additionally, principal self-efficacy was found to be positively related to job satisfaction while burnout and job satisfaction were negatively related.

Another significant factor related to principal job satisfaction is a sense of isolation. Principalship can often be a lonely role, as there are a limited number of co-workers with similar titles in the same building. Izgar (2009) found that there is a statistical relationship between depression and principal loneliness. In a study conducted to determine the degree to which isolation impacts job satisfaction among principals, Bauer and Brazer (2013) found that a relationship exists between social support and job satisfaction. Lower levels of social support reported by principals in the study were related to higher degrees of isolation, which in turn lowered the degree of job satisfaction (Bauer & Brazer, 2013). Brook, Sawyer, and Rimm-Kaufman (2007) posited that social support is an element of a work environment that greatly improves the quality of work. For school principals, Bauer and Brazer (2013) suggested that social support for principals include opportunities that promote a sense of connectedness. Connecting with other principals is an essential step towards job satisfaction. It seems that social support is an element of a work environment that greatly improves the quality of work (Bauer & Brazer, 2013).

**Marital Status**

Limited research exists evaluating the relationship between marital status and job satisfaction. However, there is a greater body of research studying the effects of spousal support on job satisfaction. The definition of spousal support varies across studies (Ferguson, Ferguson, Carlson, Kacmar, & Halbesleben, 2016; Patel, Beekhan, Paruk, & Ramgoon, 2008). In
particular, Patel et al. (2008) defined the variable of spousal support as the direct and indirect encouragement received from a spouse, partner, or significant other. On the other hand, Ferguson et al. (2016) extends this definition to include work-related spousal support, which provides emotional and instrumental support from one spouse to the other regarding work related activities. Ferguson et al. (2016) explained that work-related spousal support contributes to work-family balance, which in turn adds to both family and job satisfaction.

De Oliveria et al. (2011) found odds of burnout among study participants were 40% less when a high degree of spousal support was reported. The researchers surveyed 102 academic anesthesiology chairpersons in the United States with an instrument that included the MBI-HHS Burnout Inventory and compared current level of job satisfaction to the levels at 1 and 5 years before the survey. Moreover, in a study investigating women’s perceptions of their role balance, Lee, Zvonkovic, and Crawford (2014) found spousal support is more important for married women than supervisor support in order to achieve role balance. Lee et al. (2014) gathered data from 274 married and full-time employed women and determined if there is a link between their work and leisure lives. The goals included determining the participants’ work–family conflict and work–family facilitation, and role balance. The findings revealed role balance is an important factor to consider for any employee with a family due to familial responsibilities (Lee et al., 2014). In addition, in a study of university faculty members’ priorities, Unal and Gizir (2014) found that married faculty members cited geographical security as a higher priority than single faculty members. “These findings seem to be acceptable when considering the familial responsibilities of faculty members” (p. 1763).

In a study investigating spousal support and Christian women in academia, Thorstad et al. (2006) explained that Christian women are an understudied population, and “may have some
important distinctions in the way they experience motherhood, academia, and spousal support” (p. 233). Thorstand et al. (2006) found that Christian husbands who supported their working wives greatly increased the women’s sense of well-being, and that child-care, household chores, and emotional support were the most salient forms of support husbands could provide for their working wives. The limited research analyzing the relationship between job satisfaction and marital status have found that there does appear to be a link among the two factors, but the age of the participants changes the significance of the relationship: “We must conclude that married people generally possess higher job-satisfaction than their single counterparts” (Knerr, 2005, para 24).

**Parental Status**

Parental status may also influence job satisfaction levels. A common question among parents and employers alike has long been, is it possible to be both a good parent and a good employee? D’Amore (2012) examined this in the light of the notion of the supermom figure, the identity of which was constructed by working mothers in the 1970s “as a product of both Second-Wave Feminist sensibilities about the capabilities of women (women can do it all!), and a social reality that mandated that even strong, empowered women be ‘good mothers’” (p. 1226). D’Amore (2012) further went on to explain that within the history of comics, super heroines always fit the mold of being maternal, and that during the time period covering 1963-1980, super heroines would embrace and accept motherhood as an asset instead of a liability. Once again, this was an image presented to society about the attitude women should have about their role as mothers during an emerging feminist movement: “That it was automatically the mother who was expected to give up work for family was precisely the problem between working mothers and the dominant cultural construction of the American family, specifically with regard to its highly
gendered roles” (D’Amore, 2012, p. 1235). D’Amore revealed that many women during that time period wanted to resist conflict regarding parental and gender roles so they chose to “carry the burden of responsibility for both spheres” (p. 1235). In other words, mothers wishing to share similar roles as men in the workplace in the 60’s, 70’s, and 80’s were often determined to shoulder the traditional role of motherhood along with the role of a working woman in order to avoid conflict.

The U.S. Department of Labor reported that in 2013, 70.1 percent of mothers with children under the age of 18 were in the workforce, but that only 62.4 percent of mothers with children under the age of six were working, compared to mothers with children ages six to 17 at 74.7 percent. These percentages have stayed fairly similar since the early 2000’s (U.S. Department of Labor, 2015).

Regarding parental responsibilities, Holtzman and Glass (1999) conducted research to determine the relationship between job dissatisfaction and new mothers, with the assumption that “the difficulties of combining work and family roles widely reported by employed mothers would lower job satisfaction among women returning to employment” (p. 390). Through longitudinal data, the researchers were able to identify the direction and causes of changes in a mother’s job satisfaction once they returned to work. The research supported the hypothesis that new mothers in the workplace did experience significant declines in job satisfaction. It was also found that one way to prevent this decline in job satisfaction was for the workplace to be family-responsive (Holtzman & Glass, 1999). Kanji and Cahusac (2015) explained the nature of social spaces significantly change for women after having a child because one’s home life becomes much more present within the work domain at that time.
Sinacore-Guinn (1998) sought to determine the relationships between employed mothers, job satisfaction, and self-esteem, it was found that the age and number of children a woman has were not found to be significant. These factors did not affect job satisfaction or external competence. This may indicate either that the women in this study have been able to successfully negotiate the societal pressures associated with the “motherhood mandate” or, more simply, that young mothers and mothers with young families do not experience less job satisfaction than mothers whose children are older. (p. 254)

The findings in Sinacore-Guinn’s study indicate that the research may be conflicting regarding relationships between mothers of young children and job satisfaction.

Spar (2012) noted that from 1965 to 2000, the number of working mothers in the United States moved from 45 percent to 78 percent. At the same time, the number of hours women have spent in the workplace has increased from nine hours a week to 25 hours a week. Spar (2012) indicates that despite these increased numbers, the average amount of time working mothers dedicate to family care still sits at 40 hours a week, while men spend an average of 21 hours a week on family care. Furthermore, the tasks women and men describe as family care differ greatly. Women still report doing the housework, taking care of the children, and shopping as their primary household responsibilities whereas men report doing tasks such as mowing the lawn, washing the care, or playing with their children (Spar, 2012).

Gender Roles

Gender roles in the United States have changed significantly over the past one hundred fifty years. From the women’s suffrage movement starting in the late 1700’s, to the post-World War II years, and even stretching into modern society, women have often been viewed as the
weaker gender. Because of this perspective, women have been molded to fit into various roles, which were determined based on societal norms and religious beliefs.

Women’s rights as a movement in the United States actually came before the suffrage movement by a couple of decades. Frances Wright, the first public figure in the United States to campaign for women’s rights, rooted her beliefs in the British Owenite movement, which was brought to the United States by Wright. The core of this movement requested economic independence within a marriage. During the 1830’s and 1840’s, many of the advocates for this movement “were men who had little faith in women’s own capacity for reform activism. Without a way to bring women themselves into politics… the political force supporting women’s rights had to come from other women and would therefore be limited” (DuBois, 1987, p. 839). While women were honored in many political circles, it was never appropriate for women to have political rights because they were never seen as men’s equals. The suffrage movement was initially not intended to be political, as it was birthed out of women activism within the abolitionist movement. By 1848, many women were ready for a larger movement. At that point, Elizabeth Cady Stanton hosted the first women’s rights convention in New York, which paved the way to the full suffrage movement (DuBois, 1987).

Although much was done to enhance the value of women’s roles in society between 1800 and the early 1900’s, Morin (2012) examined the societal messages which were displayed during the post-World War II years that shaped much of what the gender roles should be for women. Government propaganda, magazines, film, and advertisements bombarded Americans with images and messages that reinforced traditional gender roles and portrayed the proper dynamic between men, women, and children in the American family. Husbands and fathers acted as the primary breadwinners and heads of the
household, while wives and mothers cared for the home and children, and children benefitted from expanded notions of the importance of childhood and a carefree youth. Popular culture espoused a specific life path that reflected and reinforced the prevailing gender ideology and idyllic nuclear family structure of the postwar era. (Morin, 2012, p. 437)

In the 1960’s and 1970’s there were many efforts by feminists to reverse this societal perspective. Donnelly et al. (2016) noted that between the 1970’s and the early 1990’s, adults’ attitudes toward working mothers became more egalitarian. While there seemed to be a small backlash about this attitude in the late 1990’s, the 2000’s brought back the egalitarian perspective. Donnelly et al. (2016) also found that Millennials have embraced the idea of support for working mothers, and the idea that women should be afforded the same treatment as men in the workplace is now a solid majority position in the United States.

Eagley and Karau (2002) and Diekman and Eagley (2000) postulated that gender roles can change over time, and that counter-stereotypical perceptions can be changed when there are more people within a group adhering to counter-stereotypical roles. For example, a female leading a large corporation breaks the mold society gives to females within the workplace. Hoyt (2012) found that conservatives tend to support the gender role status quo, while liberals tend to reject gender status quo.

**Changing Role of Women in Workplace**

In 2011, a Gallup Poll found that 32% of those surveyed would prefer to work for a man; 22% preferred a female boss, and 44% had no preference. This differs from an identical poll in 1995 in which 46% of participants stated they would prefer a male boss, 19% preferred a female boss, and 33% had no preference (Gallup/CNN/USA Today Poll, 1995). While men are still
preferred over women leaders, the preference for a female boss has increased. Additionally, those remaining neutral in their perspective has decreased.

Modern feminists believe that while there has been significant change in the United States, more must be done. Spar (2012), a former Harvard University professor who is not a United States citizen, shared many of her observations about women’s changing roles in this country:

More than 50 years ago, the United States was roiled by the feminist and sexual revolutions, which together sought to bring women out of their household isolation and into a community devoted to achieving broader social goals. Yet far from rallying around these quaint echoes of sisterhood, we seem stuck today in a purgatory of perfection—each of us trying so hard to be everything that inevitably, inherently, we fail. (p. 38)

Women have undoubtedly shifted from a passive role in society to an active role since the founding of the United States, but it has not come without its struggles. In fact, even in today’s society, many feel women should not be in the workplace. In a study conducted by Desai, Chugh, and Brief (2014), it was found that men married to women who are not employed report unfavorable attitudes toward women in the workplace, perceive companies with large numbers of female employees to be unsuccessful, and deny females within their own companies opportunities for promotion when in the position to do so. Furthermore, the study found that single men who eventually marry women not in the workplace tend to shift their attitudes about working women in a less positive way.

This attitude is not bound to that particular population. Williams (2000) explained that workplaces in the United States hold an ideal worker framework, and under this umbrella, workers are expected to be completely devoted to their careers without outside obligations.
Furthermore, women who have family obligations are viewed as violating the ideal worker framework.

**Christian Perspectives of Women in the Workplace**

Female school leaders who identify as being Christian may particularly feel overwhelmed in their roles because they are also trying to be the wife and mother of which they feel they should (Dindoffer, 2011). Mock (2005) discussed that within conservative religious institutions, “women face a stained-glass ceiling, with the Bible and church tradition routinely used to justify gender discrimination” (p. B24). Mock, a female college administrator, made a decision to continue working after becoming a mother, and explained the discrimination she faced by stating that her decision

obviously transgresses what they see as a biblical mandate: Men are to be the heads of their households; women are made to nurture children; and only men -- and, to a lesser degree, childless women -- can successfully operate in academe. (p. B24)

Mock’s perspective makes sense, as research reflects where priorities stand within Christian educational institutions. According to a Cardus Education Survey, Protestant Christian school administrators ranked family priorities and family values just as high as academic priorities (Pennings, Seel, Van Pelt, Sikkink, & Wiens, 2011).

In a study researching the relationships between contemporary evangelicals, families, and gender, Gallagher and Smith (1999) found that evangelical families espoused more traditional roles among men and women in the sense that the men should provide for the family while the woman should submit to their husbands and be more involved in household activities than activities outside the home. However, it was found that many contemporary evangelical families closely held those values as belief systems, but it was more likely for those families to actually
hold egalitarian roles regarding parenting and household work (Gallagher & Smith, 1999). With the growing trend of women outnumbering men in educational administration, schools will need to find ways to attract and retain high quality female administrators.

The significance of researching a possible relationship between gender, job satisfaction, and familial status among Christian educational leaders lies within the significance of the identity women have in their spirituality. Religion and spirituality have been found to be at the center of women’s lives. Of particular interest is a qualitative study that found that spirituality was at the center of how women experience different life events (Burke, 1999). It was found that women often cited God in directing their life’s calling and purpose, and that God was the common thread among all of their life’s activities. The study showed that the correlation between life satisfaction and spirituality was significant for women; especially African-American women.

It is of significant value to indicate the lack of research that investigates Christian women and job satisfaction, especially female Christian leaders. However, the lack of research supports the need for further research in this area. “In the case of employment and religion, the intersection is found in the empirical connection between religious participation and an emphasis on marriage, child rearing, and homemaking for women, resulting in potential tension between religiously-influenced attitudes and employment” (Gallagher, Hall, Anderson, & Del Rosario, 2013, p. 48).

The relationship between Christian school leadership and job satisfaction was studied specifically among Classical Christian school leaders. Classical Christian schools tend to espouse more traditional educational and religious views. In this particular study, it was found that 78% of the participants who responded to the researcher’s survey were men (Dietrich, 2010).
According to Dietrich (2010), the overwhelming lack of female participants in the study was a result of the dominant view of male leadership within Christianity itself:

The Protestant Church, in most cases, has interpreted the Bible to say that women should refrain from leadership roles; therefore, many sects do not accept the ordination of women. According to I Corinthians 14:33-36, women were not to assume roles of authority over men, because confusion would reign in the local church. The Apostle Paul commended women and men alike in other roles of ministry and service in Titus 2:1-10, but excluded women from pastoral leadership in order to preserve an order and submission. Thus, the majority of Protestant churches have ordained only male pastors and elders. This strong belief has potentially influenced the leadership of the Classical Christian Schools, which have tended to follow a more conservative, reformed doctrine (Dietrich, 2010, p. 120).

Without a strong sample size in which to consider female Christian leaders’ perspectives on job satisfaction, it is difficult to obtain a valid statistical relationship between gender and job satisfaction among Christian educational leaders. However, Dietrich (2010) did find that among all of the participants, those over the age of 50 reported higher job satisfaction than those under the age of 50. Although not specifically studied in this light, this aspect of the research may indicate that there is a connection between higher job satisfaction and having children already grown and out of the home.

If a significant correlation is found between job satisfaction and gender among Christian female leaders, it would still be imperative to discuss the pervasiveness of cultural biases among different sub-groups within Christianity. Hardesty (2003) noted that the Coalition of Christian Colleges and Universities (CCCU) president in 1991 discussed that there was a gap among the
number of female faculty and male faculty belonging to their organization because the religious traditions present in CCCU affiliated schools would limit the leadership role of women based on their personal understanding of biblical mandates. Not all Christian denominations hold this perspective, and further studies could involve relationships between specific denominations and job satisfaction among their Christian female leaders specifically whether the female leaders employed by schools associated with more traditional biblical values have more or less job satisfaction than those employed by schools in which the views regarding gender roles are more contemporary in nature.

**Summary**

The literature shows a relationship exists between job satisfaction and gender, job satisfaction and marital status, as well as Christianity and job satisfaction. However, little research is available to support the relationship between job satisfaction and Christian women; especially regarding Christian mothers of young children. Further research should be conducted to investigate the correlation among these various factors in order to widen the field of research of Christian female leaders in the area of education to support the growth of Christian women in leadership roles. Furthermore, due to the research that supports the relationship between mothers of young children and job satisfaction within a family-oriented environment (Holtzman & Glass, 1999), schools should make specific efforts to support the family life of their female leaders. Educational leaders experience high turnover due to the often stressful environments in schools, and being a leader in a school requires significant time commitments outside the home. Christian female educational leaders who also have young children at home may often feel conflicted about the balancing act of giving time to work versus giving time to the family. The research
supports that with strong spousal support present, Christian female leaders report having higher job satisfaction, overall.
CHAPTER THREE: METHODS

Overview

Chapter three highlights the design of the study, the research question, hypothesis, participants and setting, instrumentation, procedures, and data analysis. This particular study aims to answer how accurately job satisfaction, as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), can be predicted from a linear combination of gender, marital status, and parental status for PK-12 administrators identifying as Christian.

Design

A non-experimental, correlational design was used in this quantitative study to determine how accurately job satisfaction, as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), can be predicted from a linear combination of gender, marital status, and parental status for PK-12 school administrators identifying as Christian. Participants self-identified their parental status based on the following category choices: I have children under the age of 18 living at home, I have children 18 or older living at home, I have children but none are living at home, or I have no children. The rationale for utilizing a correlational research design lies in the purpose of such a design. Correlational research design is appropriate for this study because its purpose is to discover the relationships between variables (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007). In this study, the criterion variable is job satisfaction. The three predictor variables are gender, marital status, and parental status. The correlational design will allow the researcher to reject or fail to reject the null hypothesis.

Research Question

The research question for this study arose from the problem that although females outnumber males in educational leadership positions, Christian female leaders with young
children at home potentially face obstacles in job satisfaction due to role congruity and work-family balance.

**RQ1**: How accurately can job satisfaction, as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), be predicted from a linear combination of gender, marital status, and parental status for PK-12 school administrators identifying as Christian?

**Null Hypothesis**

The null hypothesis for this study is:

**H₀**: There will be no statistically significant predictive relationship between job satisfaction, as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), and the linear combination of gender, marital status, and parental status for PK-12 school administrators’ identifying as Christian.

**Participants and Setting**

Pre-Kindergarten through 12th grade school administrators from a convenience sample of 592 across the United States were used in this study. For the purpose of this study, administrators are defined as any educational leader serving in a PK-12 educational environment. Job titles included, but were not limited to: Superintendents, building level principals, assistant principals, directors, heads of school, or dean of students. The JSS was made available online for a total of one month to approximately 5,000 school administrators, with a goal of one-tenth participation rate. Administrators voluntarily and anonymously completed the surveys. Participants who did not self-identify as being Christian were eliminated from the results.

Since the goal was to obtain participants who self-identify as being Christian, administrators selected for this study were originally recruited primarily from the online directories of Christian Schools International (CSI) and Association of Christian Schools
International (ACSI). Christian Schools International member schools have a worldview that is firmly rooted in scripture and in a reformed tradition of Christian theology. Association of Christian Schools International member schools represent a wide range of evangelical, Protestant schools, comprising of nearly 24,000 member schools worldwide (ACSI, 2014). Other public and private school administrators were invited to participate from various schools throughout the United States. A convenience sample was utilized to obtain the participants. Gall, Gall, and Borg (2007) stated that inferential statistics can be used with data in a convenience sample if the sample purposefully represents a particular population.

To determine the sample size necessary for multiple regression analysis, Warner (2013, p. 456) recommended the following equation: \( N > 104 + k \) (\( k = \) number of predictor variables). The three predictor variables present in this study (gender, marital status, and parental status) suggest that 107 participants should be utilized in order to meet the minimum standards at the \( p < .05 \) alpha level and medium effect size. This is only under the assumption that measurements in the study are reliable. Effect size was reported using Cohen’s \( f^2 \) with the equation \( f^2 = \frac{R^2}{1 - R^2} \) where \( R^2 \) is the squared multiple correlation (Steiger, 2004). Warner (2013) also suggested that larger than minimum values should be obtained when possible. Due to this suggestion, the original goal for this study was to have at least 200 participants. Mean and standard deviation descriptive statistics are reported further in chapter four.

A survey was administered through Survey Monkey, an online survey tool, and included the entirety of the JSS. In addition to the JSS, participants’ gender, familial status, religious affiliation, and their job title were identifiers on the survey. Familial status included marital status and parental status which was further categorized into married, married with one spouse geographically absent (e.g., voluntary, deployed, etc.) or single; and status of children under the
age of 18 living at home. See Appendix A for a copy of the online survey tool questionnaire.

**Demographics**

A total of 592 participants completed the survey. Only surveys that were completed in its entirety were utilized for data analysis, and any surveys in which respondents did not self-identify as being Christian were not utilized. Overall, a total of 573 participants both completed the survey in its entirety and self-identified as being Christian. The gender distribution was relatively balanced, with 43.82% of participants being male, and 56.18% of participants being female. Overwhelmingly, 91.30% of participants were married, while 6.93% identified as being single. Only 0.51% of respondents had a spouse not geographically present, and 0.84% were widows. Regarding parental status, 46.60% of participants have a child, or children, under the age of 18 living at home. 12.07% of participants have a child over the age of 18 living at home, 29.76% of participants have children who are not living at home, and 11.56% of participants have no children.

**Instrumentation**

The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) was utilized as the instrument in this study. The JSS contains 36 items. Although there are nine subscales (i.e., pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures, co-workers, nature of work, and communication), it was used in its entirety for this study primarily because the overall Cronbach’s alpha of the study is a .91. A summated rating scale format is used, with six choices that range from disagree very much to agree very much. The JSS can be used with, and is applicable to all organizations. Permissions from the author are freely given for educational and research purposes (Spector, 1997). However, the researcher contacted the author of JSS, and received written permission on April 21, 2016 (See Appendix B).
The JSS was originally designed to fill the need to measure job satisfaction in the human services industry. Prior to the development of the JSS, no valid and reliable instrument existed to measure job satisfaction in the human services industry. Spector’s purpose for development was threefold: To create a job satisfaction survey in which the content of the items were specifically formatted to human services, public, and non-profits organizations; to create a survey in which the scales covered the major aspects of job satisfaction, with very distinct subscales; and to create a survey that would not take a large amount of time to complete (Spector, 1985). The JSS is intended to take no longer than 15 minutes.

The nine aspects of job satisfaction measured on the JSS were chosen from a literature review on job satisfaction dimensions. The nine aspects of job satisfaction, as measured by the JSS, are identified by Spector (1997) as: Pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication. Spector (1985) defined job satisfaction as the extent to which people like or dislike their jobs and different aspects of their jobs. Within the JSS, pay is defined as remuneration; or money paid for work or a service. Promotion is described as opportunities for promotion within the organization. The aspect of supervision is defined as one’s immediate supervisor. Fringe benefits are further described as monetary and nonmonetary benefits offered by one’s organization. Contingent rewards are performance-based awards such as recognition, appreciation, and rewards for work well done. The organization’s operating procedures are the rules and procedures which are required to be followed within that organization. Coworkers are any people one works with on a regular basis. One’s nature of work is defined as the specific job tasks, and communication is further defined as all communication that occurs within the organization (Spector, 1997). “The
development of the JSS was predicated on the theoretical position that job satisfaction represents an affective or attitudinal reaction to a job” (Spector, 1985, p. 694).

Spector (1985) first began developing the JSS in early 1985. Originally, the scale was developed to be used in human service organizations, but it has been shown to be reliable and applicable to many different organizational sectors from many different cultures and countries (Giri & Kumar, 2010). The JSS has been translated into eleven different languages, with each translation and subsequent study showing remarkable reliability and validity in “detecting satisfaction of employees in different job contexts” (Chin-Siang, Abu Talib, Juhari, & Madon, 2014, p. 288).

**Scoring**

Participants in the study were required to use a six-point scale on 36 questions. 1 = disagree very much; 2 = disagree moderately; 3 = disagree slightly; 4 = agree slightly; 5 = agree moderately; 6 = agree very much. Of the 36 questions, 19 are reversed for scoring. An example of this reversal is for the statement, “Raises are too few and far between” (Spector, 1985). Reverse scoring is required in this question so that a 6 would receive a 1. All items that require reverse scoring are marked clearly for the scorer. Each subscale contains four items, so the highest score possible for a subscale is 24. The overall job satisfaction score combines the total from each subscale, which can range from 36 to 216. Spector (1997) explains that the higher the score, the higher degree of one’s job satisfaction. Each subscale’s value can range from 4 to 24 because four items assess each facet. The scale for each item can be scored as low as 1, and as high as 6. A score of 4 or more can represent satisfaction, while a score of 3 or lower can represent dissatisfaction for each item. If some items are missing, the scorer must make an adjustment otherwise the score will be too low. According to Spector (1994), the best procedure
is to compute the mean score per item for the individual, and substitute that mean for missing items.

For example, if a person does not make a response to 1 item, take the total from step 4, divide by the number answered or 3 for a facet or 35 for total, and substitute this number for the missing item by adding it to the total from step 4. An easier but less accurate procedure is to substitute a middle response for each of the missing items. Since the center of the scale is between 3 and 4, either number could be used. One should alternate the two numbers as missing items occur (Spector, 1994, para. 5).

The Job Satisfaction Survey has been used in multiple peer-reviewed studies (Auerbach, McGowan, Ausberger, Strolin-Goltzman, & Schudrich, 2010; Blau, 1999; Bruck, Allen, & Spector, 2002; Chou, Fu, Kroger, & Ru-yan, 2011). Eight thousand, one hundred thirteen participants from 52 samples were surveyed to gather the normative mean values for the JSS. This included populations of professionals in the human services field including teachers, counselors, nurses, and clerical workers (Spector, 1997). Below are internal consistency reliabilities (coefficient alpha), based on a sample of 2,870.
Table 1

*JSS Internal Consistency Reliabilities* (Spector, 1997)

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

Spector (1985) presented evidence for the discriminant and convergent validity of the JSS by providing a multitrait-multimethod analysis of the JSS and the Job Descriptive Index (JDI). The results of this multitrait-multimethod analysis met all necessary criteria of Campbell and Fiske (1959) who first developed this method to assess the construct validity of instruments. The Job Satisfaction Survey in its entirety is found in Appendix C.

**Procedures**

Before initiating this study, an application was submitted to the Liberty University Institutional Review Board (IRB) to secure approval for its implementation. With the receipt of that approval (See Appendix D for IRB Approval), permission was granted to carry out the study with the selected population at the designated time. The collection method was facilitated through Survey Monkey, an online survey platform. The survey was set up to ensure
confidentiality and consent. Participants were given a secure link to the survey, and prior to beginning the survey they had to select “yes,” that they provided informed consent to participate. At all points, both during and after the study, the participants remained anonymous, and the data gathered was secured on this researcher’s personal computer and an external hard drive to ensure participant privacy. At the conclusion of the study, the results were made available to the participating institution.

The first step in the data collection process began with an email to individuals in charge of research at CSI and ACSI. An email was sent to request permission to access the administrator database for each organization. CSI was unable to grant access, but did grant permission for the researcher to contact administrators individually. ACSI has a research department of its own, and they approve various research studies throughout the year that corresponds with their current research topics. An email was sent to the Director of Research and Strategic Initiatives at ACSI to gather more information about how to obtain school administrator information. ACSI has a process similar to the IRB process at Liberty University. After completing an application for ACSI similar to the Liberty University IRB application, permission was granted for the survey within this study to be emailed to over 5,000 school administrators within ACSI’s database.

A copy of the email requesting survey participation can be found in Appendix E. The recruitment letter explains the purpose and importance of the research, the timeframe for responding, a link to the survey and assessment, and an assurance of anonymity for the respondents. A paper copy of the survey would have been available should the need arise for more participants. In the use of a paper survey, an in-person verbal recruitment script would have been used to obtain participants. Had participants been recruited to complete a paper copy of the survey, they would have signed the informed consent prior to completing the survey. Upon
completion of the paper survey, participants would have placed their survey inside of a provided blank envelope to maintain confidentiality. The data obtained from any paper surveys would have been entered by a neutral party not affiliated with the study to ensure error free data input.

Emailed survey invitations contained information about the study, along with a link to a survey on surveymonkey.com. A drawing for one of twenty $10 Amazon gift cards was offered to those who participate in the survey. For every 20 surveys returned, one $10 Amazon gift card was given randomly to email addresses provided by participants wishing to be considered for the drawing. The survey was administered online through surveymonkey.com and included the entirety of the JSS. In addition to the JSS, participants’ gender, familial status, religious affiliation, and job title will be asked on the survey. Familial status included: Marital status which was further categorized into married, married with one spouse geographically absent (e.g., voluntary, deployed, etc.), widowed, or single; and whether or not children under the age of 18 are living at home.

Because three categorical predictor variables were utilized, the variables were dummy coded (Warner, 2013) as follows:

Gender: Male = 1; Female = 2

Marital Status: Married = 1; Single = 2; Married with one spouse not geographically present = 3; Widow = 4; Other = 5

Parental Status: I have a child (or children) under the age of 18 living at home = 1; I have a child (or children) 18 or over living at home = 2; I have a child (or children), but none are living at home = 3; I have no children = 4.

The survey data for the convenience sample was exported into Excel spreadsheets, and then loaded into Statistical Package for the Social Science- Version 22.0 (SPSS-22.0). The data
was then analyzed to determine whether or not the null hypothesis would be rejected. All data was secured in two different locations including the researcher’s password secured laptop and a protected online data drive. Following the completion of the research, thank you cards were sent to those who granted permission for access to various email databases.

Data Analysis

Statistical Package for the Social Science- Version 22.0 (SPSS-22.0) was used to analyze the data. Multiple regression was the primary data analysis method in this study. According to Gall, Gall, and Borg (2007), multiple regression should be used in correlational studies when it is necessary to determine a correlation between one criterion variable and a combination of two or more predictor variables. Furthermore, it provides statistical significance of relationships between variables. In this study, the criterion variable is job satisfaction. The three predictor variables are gender, marital status, and parental status. For effect size in a correlational predictive study, the R and R² were used to determine the effect of the variable on the relationship between the predictor and criterion variables.

Although all three predictor variables are categorical in nature, the researcher wants to focus only on the relationship between variables, and not the difference between variables. Due to this, multiple regression is most relevant, and dummy coding was utilized to analyze the data further (Warner, 2013). Cohen and Cohen (1983) explained that even arbitrary non-sense codes can produce identical values for the required R² and F ratio for multiple regression analysis.

Multiple Regression Assumptions

Multiple regression assumes that all predictor and criterion variables follow a normal distribution. The criterion variable in this study is job satisfaction, and the predictor variables include gender, marital status, and parental status. After data was gathered and run through
SPSS, the following was reported: The data was screened for outliers using a Box and Whisper plot for each group. The assumption of level of measurement for multiple regression was measured on the interval or ratio. The predictor variables in this study are categorical, and the observations within each variable were independent. The assumption of normality was tested using Kolmogorov-Smirnov because the sample is greater than 50. The assumption of bivariate outliers were measured using a scatter plot between predictor and criterion variables. Additionally, extreme bivariate outliers were examined. Assumption of linearity was examined in a scatterplot between the predictor variables and criterion variables. Furthermore, a scatter plot was also used to determine assumption of bivariate normal distribution by looking for the classic cigar shape within the scatter plot. Chapter four includes a more in-depth report of the descriptive statistics, including mean and standard deviation, degrees of freedom (df), $r$ and $r^2$, significance level ($p$), B, beta, and SE B, regression equation, and power (Warner, 2013).
CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

Overview

The purpose of this quantitative non-experimental correlational study is to determine the relationships between gender, job satisfaction, and the familial status of K-12 school administrators’ who identify as being Christian. In this chapter, descriptive statistics and inferential statistics are reported.

Research Question

RQ1: How accurately can job satisfaction, as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), be predicted from a linear combination of gender, marital status, and parental status for PK-12 school administrators identifying as Christian?

Hypothesis

H₀¹: There will be no statistically significant predictive relationship between job satisfaction, as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), and the linear combination of gender, marital status, and parental status for PK-12 school administrators’ identifying as Christian.

Descriptive Statistics

A total of 592 participants completed the survey. Only surveys that were completed in its entirety were utilized for data analysis, and any surveys in which respondents did not self-identify as being Christian were not utilized. Overall, a total of 573 participants both completed the survey in its entirety and self-identified as being Christian. As demonstrated in Table 2 below, the gender distribution was relatively balanced, with 43.82% of participants being male (N=251), and 56.18% of participants being female (N=322). Overwhelmingly, 91.30% of participants were married (N=523), while 6.93% identified as being single.
Only 0.51% of respondents had a spouse not geographically present (N=3), and 0.84% were widows (N=5). Regarding parental status, 46.60% of participants have a child, or children, under the age of 18 living at home (N=267); 12.07% of participants have a child over the age of 18 living at home (N=69), 29.76% of participants have children who are not living at home (N=171), and 11.56% of participants have no children (N=66).

Table 2

*Percentage Distribution of Categorical Variables*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categorical Variable</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>% of participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender: Male</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>43.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender: Female</td>
<td>322</td>
<td>56.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital Status: Married</td>
<td>523</td>
<td>91.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital Status: Single</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>6.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital Status: Spouse not geographically present</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital Status: Widow</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parental Status: Have a child or children under the age of 18 living at home</td>
<td>267</td>
<td>46.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parental Status: Have a child or children over the age of 18 living at home</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>12.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parental Status: Have children who are not living at home</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>29.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parental Status: No children</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>11.56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Measures of central tendency and variability of the independent variables of gender, marital status, and parental status were calculated. The frequency scale varied from 1 to 5. Furthermore, as shown in Table 3, the descriptive statistics values show a strong tendency toward the high scores of the independent variables. Table 3 demonstrates that the mean scores of the three predictors which were within the range of 1.2-2.1. Furthermore, parental status, which has the highest mean, was used to correlate the dependent variables with the other predictors.

Table 3

**Descriptive Statistics of the Independent Variables**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital Status</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parental Status</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1 shows the distribution of the demographic question regarding participants’ job titles. Superintendent, Principal, or Director has the highest percent of participants with (61%), followed by other school administrator (17%), assistant superintendent, assistant principal (14%), lead teacher (3%), dean (3%), and the least with coordinator (2%). This clearly indicates that most participants held a Superintendent, Principal, or Director job title.
Figure 1. The frequency of participant job titles. Figure 1 shows the distribution of the demographic question regarding participants’ job titles.

As shown in Table 4, the survey questions regarding job satisfaction each display average values, which are not extreme in either direction. The questions which were focused on nature of work (5.4), supervisors (5.0), appreciation, recognition, and rewards for good work (4.3), coworkers (5.1) and communication within the organization (4.6) were just above average. On the other hand, pay and remuneration (3.6), promotion opportunities (3.6), monetary and nonmonetary fringe benefits (3.4), operating policies and procedures (3.6) were average (see Table 4). The highest possible score for the JSS was 216. The mean score was 155 (72%).
Table 4

Measures of Central Tendency and Variability of the Dependent Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job Satisfaction Survey</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pay</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>1.70</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervision</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fringe benefits</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>1.64</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contingent rewards</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>1.39</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operating procedures</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coworkers</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nature of work</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Normality

Prior to presenting the regression analysis for the first null hypothesis, it must be first determined if the residuals meet the assumptions of normality and linearity/homoscedasticity. Table 5 shows the statistics for the tests for normality. Multiple regression analysis is an appropriate statistical method to evaluate the correlation of two or more predictor variables on a single criterion variable (Gall et al., 2007). Scatterplots were used prior to analysis to assess the assumptions of normality and homoscedasticity (see Figures 2 and 3). Additional analysis was completed to test for normality and homoscedasticity by performing a Shapiro-Wilk test for normality, and by determining the skewness of the residuals. The Normal P-Plot of Regression Standardized Residual (Figure 2) indicates linearity (Warner, 2013). The scatterplot of Predicted Values and Standardized Residuals indicates homoscedasticity (Figure 3) (Warner, 2013). The
Shapiro-Wilk Test for Normality indicated that the distribution of the residuals was not normally distributed ($p = .019; \alpha = .05$). However, an analysis of the skewness of the distribution indicated that the residuals fell within acceptable limits (.062, .101). Skewness is considered acceptable when it is between -2 and +2 (George & Mallery, 2003). The assumptions for a linear regression are considered to have been met.

Table 5

*Tests of normality*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Kolmogorov-Smirnov$^a$</th>
<th>Shapiro-Wilk</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Statistic</td>
<td>df</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JSS</td>
<td>.046</td>
<td>.005</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$^a$ Lilliefors Significance Correction
Figure 2. Normal P-P Plot of regression standardized residual. The normal P-Plot of regression standardized residual indicates linearity.
Figure 3. Scatterplot for dependent variable: JSS. The scatterplot of predicted values and standardized residuals indicates homoscedasticity.

Results

Null Hypothesis One

\(H_01\): There will be no statistically significant predictive relationship between job satisfaction, as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), and the linear combination of
gender, marital status, and parental status for PK-12 school administrators’ identifying as Christian.

Multiple regressions analysis is performed to analyze the relationship between the dependent variable and independent variables in a study. This study tested how accurately job satisfaction, as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), can be predicted from a linear combination of gender, marital status, and parental status for PK-12 school administrators (Table 6).

Table 6

Multiple Linear Regression Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model Summary</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>R Square</td>
<td>Adjusted R Square</td>
<td>Std. Error of the Estimate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.042&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>-.003</td>
<td>9.200</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), Parental Status, Marital Status, Gender

$R^2 = 0.2\%$ of the total variation can be explained by the model.

ANOVA<sup>a</sup>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>85.790</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>28.597</td>
<td>.338</td>
<td>.798&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>49011.435</td>
<td>579</td>
<td>84.648</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>49097.225</td>
<td>582</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: JSS
b. Predictors: (Constant), Parental Status, Marital Status, Gender

With $F(3, 579) = 0.338$ and $p$-value of 0.798, which is greater than the alpha ($< \alpha$) of 0.05, which means the model is not significant. This implies that the null hypothesis, which states that there will be no statistically significant predictive relationship between job satisfaction, as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), and the linear combination of gender, marital status, and parental status for PK-12 school administrators identifying as Christian, cannot be rejected.

Table 7

**Coefficients**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coefficients</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>126.880</td>
<td>1.459</td>
<td>86.940</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>.631</td>
<td>.783</td>
<td>.034</td>
<td>.806</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital Status</td>
<td>.020</td>
<td>.643</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.031</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parental Status</td>
<td>-.247</td>
<td>.351</td>
<td>-.030</td>
<td>-.705</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: JSS

Table 7 is to determine how accurately can job satisfaction, as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), be predicted from a linear combination of gender, marital status, and parental status for PK-12 school administrators; reference is made to their regression coefficients
as shown in Table 7 above. Using the standardized beta coefficients, the constant “a” would disappear and the regression equation is of the form:

\[ Y \text{ (Job Satisfaction Survey)} = a + b_1x_1 \text{ (Gender)} + b_2x_2 \text{ (Marital status)} + b_3x_3 \text{ (Parental status)} \]

\[ Y = 0.034x_1 + 0.001x_2 - 0.030x_3 \]

That is, the regression coefficients for gender, marital status, and parental status for PK-12 school administrators as obtained from coefficients table are 0.034, 0.001, and -0.030 respectively, which shows that gender is of more effect than marital status, while parental status is of less effect than the two in explaining the Job Satisfaction for PK-12 school administrators.

The table further reveals P-values of 0.421, 0.975, and 0.481 for gender, marital status, and parental status for PK-12 school administrators respectively. Therefore, it can be concluded that, gender, marital status, and parental status has no significant relationship with job satisfaction. This implies that the null hypothesis cannot be rejected.
CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS

Overview

The purpose of this quantitative non-experimental correlational study was to determine the relationships between gender, job satisfaction, and the familial status of K-12 school administrators’ who identify as being Christian. The research hypothesis for this study stated there will be no statistically significant predictive relationship between job satisfaction, as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), and the linear combination of gender, marital status, and parental status for PK-12 school administrators’ identifying as Christian. Chapter Four provided a statistical analysis of the results for this study. Chapter Five presents a discussion of the findings, conclusions deducted, implications of the study, limitations, and recommendations for further research.

Discussion

The results of this study contradict many other studies and theories, as there was no statistically significant predictive relationship between job satisfaction, as measured by the JSS, and the linear combination of gender, marital status, and parental status for PK-12 school administrators’ identifying as Christian. This study’s foundation was based on the theory of role congruity, in which one’s gender role is perceived as being congruent to the stereotype of that gender (Hoyt & Burnette, 2013). Additionally, the hypothesis of this study was based on the idea that prejudice against women develops from the incongruity between the perception of what it takes to be a leader and the perception of women in general.

While this is perhaps the first study conducted to examine the relationships between job satisfaction, gender, marital status, parental status, and Christianity, many studies found a positive statistical relationship between job satisfaction and the other variables independently.
The relationship between gender and job satisfaction has been heavily studied. In general, women are more satisfied with their jobs than men (Long, 2005; Bender & Heywood, 2006; Bokemeier & Lacy, 1987; Bonte & Krabel, 2014; Hull, 1999; Kaiser, 2007; Kifle & Desta, 2012; Sloane & Williams, 2000). In this study, no statistically significant relationship was found between gender and job satisfaction.

The relationship between job satisfaction, work-family conflicts, and work-life balance has also been shown to share a statistical relationship (Mas-Machuca, Berbegal-Mirabent, & Alegre, 2016). In addition, Bopp, Wigley, and Eddosary (2015) explained that “the consequences of a compromised level of work life quality can impact a company’s bottom line as they include such negative outcomes as reduced productivity, absenteeism, burnout, job effort, and turnover” (p. 1025). Kifle, Kler, and Shankar (2014) found that mothers with young children at home who were able to work part-time were more satisfied with their work-life balance relative to those who were older and had no children at home. The opposite is true for mothers of young children working full-time (Kifle et al., 2014). However, this study yielded no such findings.

Based on the literature, there should have been a relationship between job satisfaction, gender, parental status, and marital status among PK-12 administrators identifying as Christian, because each variable independently was shown to have a relationship to job satisfaction (Long, 2005; Bender & Heywood, 2006; Bokemeier & Lacy, 1987; Bonte & Krabel, 2014; Hull, 1999; Kaiser, 2007; Kifle & Desta, 2012; Sloane & Williams, 2000; Mas-Machuca, Berbegal-Mirabent, & Alegre, 2016; Kifle et al., 2014; Neubert & Halbesleben, 2015). It was the linear combination of all of the variables that did not show a relationship. Although the sample size was large at 592 participants, other factors played a role in the results of this study.
It became apparent while looking at the raw data, as well as the anecdotal data, that many of the participants in this study did not find job satisfaction in the traditional areas measured within the JSS. For example, some study participants emailed the researcher to explain their frustration over the fact that nowhere in the study were they asked how their calling to lead played a role in their overall job satisfaction. Two participants emailed the researcher to explain that their school is mission-based, with no salary or promotions. Due to this, they were unable to answer questions regarding pay and promotion. While any surveys that were not completed in its entirety were discarded from the final results of the study, there may have been other participants who shared similar frustrations with the survey and did not communicate those to the researcher.

Although an exact number is unknown, a significant number of participants were gathered from the Association of Christian Schools International (ACSI) school administrator database. ACSI school administrators do share a similar set of beliefs. According to the ACSI website, teachers and administrators seeking certification from ACSI must complete a Christian Philosophy of Education course. At the conclusion of this course, they must write a paper to address what they know about God; what they believe is true, real, and of value; the themes of creation; the Fall; redemption and restoration; and the nature of the learner (ACSI, 2017). It would be remiss to conclude that all participants identifying as Christians share all of the same beliefs. However, the data in this particular study may be a reflection of the nature of a Christian school administrator’s beliefs about job satisfaction, rather than a reflection of job satisfaction among public school administrators who identify as being Christians. This study sought to gather results from participants in both categories in order to gather a wider range of results.
Most important to the results of this study is the relationship between spirituality and job satisfaction; more specifically, the relationship between Christianity and job satisfaction. While this study’s results indicated no significant relationship was found between the variable of job satisfaction for leaders identifying as Christians, Neubert and Halbesleben (2015) found that when a sense of spiritual calling is strong, it is positively associated with organizational commitment, even in a situation in which one’s job is not necessarily satisfying (Neubert & Halbesleben, 2015). Additionally, Brown and Sargeant (2007) found a relationship between religious commitment and organization commitment within a Christian organization, especially among administrators. It is this sense of commitment among administrators identifying as Christians that perhaps allowed participants in this study to find satisfaction in areas outside of the defined areas of job satisfaction, as determined by the JSS.

**Implications**

The implications of this study reach beyond the results. There is very little research within the field of Christianity and educational leadership, especially as it relates to gender. This study closes the gap on that research deficit and opens the door to further studies in this field. It is important that gender among Christian educational leaders is discussed more often, as the trend of females in leadership is growing (United States Department of Labor, 2015). Employers need to be more proactive in order to create a family-friendly work environment, especially if role congruity continues to exist in the United States. In other words, gender role stereotypes are alive and well.

Within the Christian religion, gender roles are significant. Although modern society may shy away from the more traditional roles women have held in the past, many Christian denominations believe men should be the head of the household (Peek, Lowe, & Williams,
This can be translated multiple ways, as some denominations allow for female leaders, while other denominations believe women should not hold any leadership roles. Mason, Mason, and Matthews (2016) discussed attitudes on gender roles among Christians and suggested that those attitudes revolve around questions of patriarchy, or “the degree to which men are called to leadership roles in the family, church, and society in general” (p. 244). Additionally, Mason, Mason, and Matthews (2016) concluded that relationship differs for men and women. For example, it is reasonable to expect Christian men who hold higher patriarchal attitudes to have higher leadership aspirations than women who hold high patriarchal attitudes (Mason, Mason, & Matthews, 2016). While this may be true, the data shows Christian women do have leadership aspirations. As it relates to this study, of the 573 survey participants, 56.13% were females. Christian female leaders are plentiful, and this study shines a light on a pool of participants not yet heavily researched. Simply put, this study was meaningful beyond the statistical findings due to the lack of other research involving gender, Christianity, and educational leadership.

**Limitations**

This study was designed to limit internal threats to validity. All IRB guidelines were followed, and study participation was voluntary. The study participants were assured that non-participation would have no effect on their relationships with their employer or Liberty University. The survey tool, JSS, was electronically delivered to all participants in this study. While a paper-pencil option was provided, no participants chose this selection. Additionally, the survey was delivered to all 592 participants within the same one-month time frame, which addressed any threats about maturation. However, the following also recognizes limitations of this study with some framework in order to inform the reader.
Of the 592 survey participants, 19 did not complete the survey in its entirety. While those 19 surveys were not considered in the data analysis, it is important to discuss some of the possible reasons why not all of the questions were answered by some participants. The researcher’s email address was provided on the survey, and ten participants emailed the researcher with concerns. The primary concern was in the survey questions about pay, promotion, and supervisors. More specifically, the anecdotal observations indicated that educational leaders in Christian schools do not gain satisfaction from pay and promotion. Instead, they gain satisfaction from knowing they are doing God’s work. Furthermore, due to the fact that most participants identified as superintendents, principals, or directors, some participants stated they simply had no supervisor. In order to limit the threat of the validity, those survey results were not included in the overall data analysis. Finally, the results measuring the variable of marital status may be limited in scope due to the overwhelming number of participants who were married (91.30%).

**Recommendations for Future Research**

The limitations discussed above yielded further recommendations for research. Most of the emails the researcher received about the survey indicated a desire for the job satisfaction survey to include questions that accurately reflected how their faith plays a role in their overall job satisfaction. No valid and reliable tool currently exists to measure the impact religion or spirituality may have on job satisfaction, so future research should include the design of a valid and reliable instrument to measure job satisfaction with these variables in mind.

In general, the field of research that exists in the area of Christianity, job satisfaction, and school leaders is highly lacking. Furthermore, there needs to be more research done to examine Christian female leaders in education. In the field of educational leadership, females outnumber
males (United States Department of Labor, 2015). However, there is no research to determine the rate at which Christian female leaders are growing in school administrator roles, especially in Christian schools. While this study intentionally did not discriminate between leaders in public versus private Christian schools, future studies could shine a light on female leadership within private Christian schools. Additionally, many Christian denominations differ regarding perspectives in female leadership. It would add to the field of research if future studies broke apart the research even further to determine if a difference exists in job satisfaction among varying denominations.

Finally, this study was quantitative in nature in order to examine the linear relationship among variables. However, much could be gained from a qualitative analysis of similar variables. For example, it would be helpful for a researcher to conduct a phenomenological study in order to better understand Christian leaders’ perceptions, perspectives, and understandings of gender roles in education. One could also investigate the perceptions of how having a Christian faith or background impacts leadership across the field of education.
References


doi:10.1080/00497878.2012.663257


Randolph, D. (2005). Predicting the effect of extrinsic and intrinsic job satisfaction factors on recruitment and retention of rehabilitation professionals...including commentary by Johnson SP. *Journal of Healthcare Management, 50*(1), 49-60.


doi:10.1177/0091026013502169
APPENDIX A

INFORMED CONSENT

You are invited to be in a research study designed to explore the relationships between job satisfaction, gender, marital status, and parental status of PK-12 administrators identifying as Christian. You were selected as a possible participant because you are a school leader. I ask that you read this form and ask any questions you may have before agreeing to be in the study. This study is being conducted by Alanna Staton, doctoral candidate at Liberty University.

Background Information: The purpose of this study is to identify if there is a relationship between gender, marital status, and parental status of PK-12 administrators identifying as Christian.

Procedures: If you agree to be in this study, I would ask that you click on "Next" (below) to complete a 10-15 minute survey.

Risks and Benefits of being in the Study: The risks are no more than what any participant would encounter during your normal work hours. If you choose to participate, the survey can be completed during your free time so that no instructional time is interrupted. There are no direct benefits of the participants. The benefits of this study include the opportunity to be a part of a study that will lend a voice to the possible reduction of administrator turnover rates. The results of this study can help you, the participant, gain a clearer understanding of the factors that can contribute to work-life balance among school leaders, and it can assist leaders in taking preventative measures to counteract administrator turnover.

Compensation: By participating in this survey, you will be entered to win one of twenty $10 Amazon gift cards if you email alanna.staton@gmail.com stating that you would like to be considered for the drawing upon completion of the survey.

Confidentiality: The records of this study will be kept private and all of the collected data will be anonymous. Published reports will not include any identifying information or names of the participants. Data will be stored on a password-protected computer and is only shared with the research team. After a period of three years, information will be deleted from the computer and the researcher will destroy any remaining electronic copies used for data analysis. The results of the study will be available to the participants upon request.

Voluntary Nature of the Study: Participation in this study is voluntary. You are free not to answer any
questions. Your decision whether or not to participate will not affect your current or future relations with Liberty University, the school of education, or the researcher. If you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw at any time without affecting those relationships. Contacts and Questions: The researcher conducting this study is Alanna Staton. You may ask any questions you have now. If you have questions later, you are encouraged to contact her at [redacted]. You may also contact her dissertation chair with any questions: Dr. Andrea Beam, [redacted]. If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study and would like to talk to someone other than the researcher(s), you are encouraged to contact the Institutional Review Board, 1971 University Blvd, Suite 1837, Lynchburg, VA 24515, or email at irb@liberty.edu.
Job Satisfaction Survey

This survey is intended for school leaders in Pre-Kindergarten through 12th Grade school environments. It contains a total of 41 questions (5 demographic and 36 regarding job satisfaction). The 36 questions regarding job satisfaction were developed by Paul Spector, of the University of South Florida. Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, All rights reserved. It should take you approximately 10 minutes to complete.

The online survey has been programmed so that no personally identifiable information (for example, the address of the computer used) will be recorded – your survey responses will remain confidential. All data will be stored in a secure place, and the final dataset will contain no personally identifiable information such as names or email addresses. The results of the survey will be reported within a dissertation analysis, but your responses will not be reported individually. The purpose of this survey is for educational research.

The researcher will conduct a random drawing for twenty $10 Amazon gift cards. Please follow the directions at the end of this survey if you would like to be considered for the drawing.

1. Choose the job title most closely aligned with yours.
   - Superintendent, Principal, or Director
   - Assistant Superintendent, Assistant Principal, Assistant Director
   - Lead Teacher or Department Chair
   - Coordinator
   - Dean
   - Other school administrator/leader

2. Do you identify as being Christian?
   - Yes
No

3. Gender
Male
Female

4. Marital Status
Married
Single
Married with one spouse not geographically present
Widow
Other (please specify)

5. Which parental status best describes you?
I have a child (or children) under the age of 18 living at home
I have a child (or children) 18 or over living at home
I have a child (or children), but none are living at home
I have no children

Questions 6 through 41 were taken directly from the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS).
The entirety of the JSS, copyright Paul E. Spector (1994), can be found online at:
http://shell.cas.usf.edu/~pspector/scales/jspag.html
APPENDIX B

Dear Alanna:

You have my permission for noncommercial research/teaching use of the JSS. You can find copies of the scale in the original English and several other languages, as well as details about the scale's development and norms. I allow free use for noncommercial research and teaching purposes in return for sharing of results. This includes student theses and dissertations, as well as other student research projects. Copies of the scale can be reproduced in a thesis or dissertation as long as the copyright notice is included, "Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, All rights reserved." Results can be shared by providing an e-copy of a published or unpublished research report (e.g., a dissertation). You also have permission to translate the JSS into another language under the same conditions in addition to sharing a copy of the translation with me. Be sure to include the copyright statement, as well as credit the person who did the translation with the year.

Thank you for your interest in the JSS, and good luck with your research.

Best,

Paul Spector, Distinguished Professor
Department of Psychology
PCD 4118
University of South Florida
Tampa, FL 33620
pspector [at symbol] usf.edu
http://shell.cas.usf.edu/~spector
APPENDIX C

The entirety of the Job Satisfaction Survey, copyright Paul E. Spector (1994), can be found online at: http://shell.cas.usf.edu/~pspector/scales/jsspag.html
March 21, 2017

Alanna Staton
IRB Exemption 2774.032117: Relationships between Job Satisfaction, Gender, Marital Status, and Parental Status of Pk-12 Administrators Identifying As Christian

Dear Alanna Staton,

The Liberty University Institutional Review Board has reviewed your application in accordance with the Office for Human Research Protections (OHRP) and Food and Drug Administration (FDA) regulations and finds your study to be exempt from further IRB review. This means you may begin your research with the data safeguarding methods mentioned in your approved application, and no further IRB oversight is required.

Your study falls under exemption category 46.101(b)(2), which identifies specific situations in which human participants research is exempt from the policy set forth in 45 CFR 46:101(b):

(2) Research involving the use of educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures or observation of public behavior, unless:
(i) information obtained is recorded in such a manner that human subjects can be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects; and (ii) any disclosure of the human subjects’ responses outside the research could reasonably place the subjects at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to the subjects’ financial standing, employability, or reputation.

Please note that this exemption only applies to your current research application, and any changes to your protocol must be reported to the Liberty IRB for verification of continued exemption status. You may report these changes by submitting a change in protocol form or a new application to the IRB and referencing the above IRB Exemption number.

If you have any questions about this exemption or need assistance in determining whether possible changes to your protocol would change your exemption status, please email us at irb@liberty.edu.

Sincerely,

G. Michele Baker, MA, CIP
Administrative Chair of Institutional Research
The Graduate School

Liberty University | Training Champions for Christ since 1971
Dear school leader:

My name is Alanna Staton, and I am a doctoral candidate in the education department at Liberty University. As part of the requirements for my degree, I am conducting a research study to explore if there are relationships between job satisfaction, gender, marital status, and parental status of PK-12 administrators identifying as Christian. I am requesting your assistance in helping me in this process. I am recruiting school leaders to assist me by taking a brief online survey. The survey will take approximately 10 to 15 minutes of your time and will ask questions regarding your demographic information and job satisfaction. This survey is completely anonymous. Please keep in mind you must self-identify as a school leader for any grade between Pre-kindergarten and 12th grade to participate. Additionally, you must self-identify as being Christian. If you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw your survey at any time. If the results of the research study are published, your name and identity will not be used. If you choose to participate in this study, you will have the opportunity to be entered into a drawing to win one of twenty $10 Amazon gift cards. Please do not hesitate to contact me if there are questions or concerns regarding the survey. You may access the survey at the secure link below. Please read the informed consent page prior to beginning the survey.

https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/9HS8B9C

Thank you,

Alanna Staton

Doctoral Candidate

Liberty University