JOB SATISFACTION OF WOMEN FACULTY AT UNIVERSITIES IN SEOUL, REPUBLIC OF KOREA

DISSERTATION

Presented to the Graduate Council of the
University of North Texas in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirements

For the Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

by

Jeannie Myung-suk Pang, B.A., M.Ed.

Denton, Texas

May, 1993

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The purpose of this study was to determine the job satisfaction levels of full-time women faculty at the 25 universities in Seoul. A descriptive design was used for the study. Of the 320 subjects, 87.5% or 280 completed two instruments: the Job Descriptive Index and a faculty demographic data sheet. Scores of central tendency, a one-way ANOVA, and the Scheffe' multiple comparison test were used, at the .05 level of significance.

The findings of this study reveal that (a) women faculty are a diverse group; (b) women faculty are satisfied overall with such components of their jobs as their work, pay, supervision, co-workers, and job in general, but not with opportunities for promotion; and (c) the predictors of job satisfaction for women faculty are private or public institutional type, field of specialization in highest academic degree, origin of academic degrees, and academic rank.

Additionally, the findings of this study indicate that women faculty are underrepresented in public and coeducational universities. Opportunities for promotion are

not an issue for women faculty. Women faculty may be satisfied with their jobs because of the social status rather than because of the nature of the work. Women faculty who are in need of more time, equipment, and funds for research tend to be less satisfied with their jobs.

It is recommended that public and coeducational universities hire more women faculty, and that women faculty exhibit greater commitment to their professions. Further research is recommended to replicate the present study for Korean men and women faculty and for part-time instructors at different types and levels of institutions in Seoul and in other regions of Korea in order to facilitate a comparison of job satisfaction levels among different faculty groups, to ameliorate gender inequalities, and to create a more constructive academic atmosphere.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

Table Page

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The status of Korean women has been greatly improved in the process of industrialization (Kim, 1984). Korean women, to some degree, have exercised their equal rights to vote, to work, and to learn, as guaranteed by the Constitution. An increasing number of women have received education that is designed to help them become independent and to develop their potential to contribute to a better society in accordance with Korean educational goals (Yoon, 1991).

Literature and schools, however, continue to emphasize the traditional Confucian image of women, which is contrary to their expected roles in an industrialized society. In Korean schools, women are taught to manage their time and energy for home rather than for their careers (Korean Women Development Institute, 1988). This attitude toward women's education has led to the belief that women are not reliable and, as a result, they are often given less responsible positions (Marshall, 1984). A similar portrayal of American women, emphasizing passive and home-based roles, is also evident in American teaching materials (Marshall, 1984). The gender roles for women are, however, much more rigid

in Korean society than in American society (Kim, 1984; Moon, 1992).

Because of the traditional gender views in Korea, women are seldom encouraged to enter the professional work force, and are often excluded from many professions, including professoriates. Korean women who have succeeded in becoming professors often experience a great deal of discomfort in their position, even though they have been reared in families with less traditional emphasis on gender stereotypes (Koh, 1987). Women often experience difficulty in maintaining interpersonal relationships with their male colleagues, who frequently consider women in the professoriate as less appropriate and less successful than men (Shin, 1981; Yu-Tull, 1983).

Korean women faculty often have difficulty in balancing their family and professional lives. They attempt to conform to the traditional role of women that their husband, family, and society expect, while devoting as much time and energy to their professions as do their male colleagues (Shin, 1981). Women faculty are often less efficient than their male colleagues because of their efforts to fulfill their roles as nurturers and helpmates (Shin, 1981). This lack of efficiency results in lower paid positions for women than for men faculty (Lee, 1985; Shin, 1981).

The presence of traditional gender roles and discrimination naturally leads to the assumption that

the job satisfaction level of Korean women faculty is low, as is the case for U.S. women faculty (Nevels, 1980; Ormsby & Watts, 1991). Because of differences in culture and background, however, the job satisfaction level of Korean women faculty is different from that of U.S. women faculty. In this study, the job satisfaction of Korean women faculty was examined in relation to the Korean cultural context and the Korean professoriate criteria, which are different from those for U.S. women faculty.

Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study concerned the job satisfaction of women faculty at the 25 private and public universities in Seoul, Republic of Korea.

Purposes of the Study

The purposes of this study were to (a) describe the characteristics of the women university faculty in Seoul, (b) determine the satisfaction level of women faculty with components of their jobs, and (c) determine predictors of the women faculty's satisfaction with components of their jobs.

Research Questions

Answers to the following research questions were sought through this study:

1. What are the characteristics of women university faculty in Seoul?

2. What is the satisfaction level of women university faculty in Seoul with components of their jobs?

3. What are predictors of women university faculty's satisfaction with components of their jobs among selected demographic variables such as age, marital status, number of children in the home, institutional type (private or public, coeducational or women's, and religious or nonreligious), experience (in teaching, administration, and research), salary, highest academic degree earned and specialization in that degree, origin of academic degrees (in Korea or in Korea and overseas), teaching field, and academic rank?

Significance of the Study

This research was the first study designed specifically to determine the job satisfaction of Korean women faculty. The two previous studies on job satisfaction of Korean faculty (Shin, 1981; Staff, 1992, April 15) addressed job satisfaction only as it relates to the role conflict of women faculty and to faculty awareness. Both studies solicited responses that were self-referent rather than job-referent, as used in this research.

The use of job-referent responses enabled the women faculty in this study to conduct a self-diagnosis by expressing their feelings of satisfaction or lack of satisfaction with components of their jobs. Thus, the

participants assessed their job satisfaction based on their feelings about various components of their jobs.

This study was cross-sectional; the findings of this study were compared with those of studies on Korean women faculty nationwide. This study was also cross-cultural; the characteristics of Korean women faculty and U.S. women faculty described in the literature reviewed. The findings of this study were compared with those of studies on primarily U.S. women faculty.

The findings of this study can help policy-makers, administrators and the public better understand the status and problems faced by women university faculty. This study can help create a more constructive academic atmosphere and ameliorate gender inequalities. In addition, the findings of this study can serve as a data base on the job satisfaction of Korean women university faculty in Seoul and can facilitate cross-sectional and cross-cultural studies of the job satisfaction of women faculty in other cities in the Republic of Korea and in other countries.

Definition of Terms

The following terms were defined for this study:

The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) refers to six subscales: the five subscales (work, pay, promotion, supervision, and co-workers) of the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) and the Job In General (JIG) scale.

A woman faculty is a female Korean full professor, associate professor, assistant professor, or full-time instructor at any of the universities located in Seoul.

A public university is a national university or public university which is supported and administered either by the nation or by a city.

Limitation

The findings of this study are generalizable only to locations and institutions similar to those included in this research.

Delimitation

This study was limited to an analysis of the job satisfaction of full-time women university faculty in Seoul.

Organization of the Study

This study is divided into five chapters. The first chapter includes the statement of the problem, the purposes of the study, the research questions, the significance of the study, the definition of terms, the limitation, and the delimitation of the study. The second chapter includes a review and summary of literature on Korean women faculty, job satisfaction, and U.S. women faculty and predictors of faculty's job satisfaction.

The description of the methodology for this study, presented in Chapter 3, includes a description of the research design, the instruments, the pilot study,

the population, and the procedures for sampling, collecting, and analyzing the data. The statistical analysis and interpretation of the findings, based on the research questions, are provided in Chapter 4. Chapter 5 includes a summary of the study, discussion of the findings, conclusions and implications of the study, and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter provides a background for the study of the job satisfaction of Korean women university faculty in Seoul. Only two studies were located on Korean faculty's job satisfaction. Another two studies on the job satisfaction of women faculty in the United States (U.S.) were located. The limited literature was supplemented with studies of women faculty in Korea and the U.S. Studies reviewed are divided into three categories: Korean women faculty, job satisfaction, and U.S. women faculty and predictors of faculty's job satisfaction.

Korean Women Faculty

In order to provide an adequate background for the study of Korean women university faculty's job satisfaction, their demographic data are discussed in subcategories including number and age, marital status and children, experience in teaching, academic degrees earned and the origin, field of specialization, academic rank, and tenure status. In studies on the perceptions of Korean women faculty and the job satisfaction of faculty, demographics

are addressed separately because the available information is less relevant to the demographics.

Number and Age

Korean women were able to receive higher education after World War II with few restrictions (Kim, 1979; Shin, 1981). In the mid-1970s, women students accounted for 27.3% of the 234,932 students enrolled in Korean colleges and universities. Within a decade, their proportion increased to 29.7% of the 1,455,759 students enrolled (Korean Council for University Education, 1988).

Increases in women student enrollment were accompanied by increases in the number of women faculty. Women faculty represented 15% of the 20,900 total Korean faculty members in 1980, and increased to 19.2% of the 41,920 faculty members in 1990 (National Institute of Educational Evaluation, 1990; 1980). The increased number of Korean women faculty can be attributed to the fact that there were not enough men candidates for professoriates, as was the case in the U.S. (Marshall, 1984; Park, personal communication, June 3, 1992).

The average age of women faculty, including full-time faculty, part-time instructors, and teaching assistants, was between 30 and 34 (five years less than the average age of men faculty) in 1980, and remained the same a decade later. In 1990, almost one-fourth, 24%, of the men faculty were more than 50 years of age, but only 10% of the women faculty

were more than 50 years of age (National Institute of Educational Evaluation, 1990; 1980). Plausible explanations for age differences between genders are the short history of higher education for Korean women and the tendency for earlier retirement by women (Shin, 1981).

Marital Status and Children

One of the distinctive differences related to gender was the ratio of single faculty to married faculty. In 1984, 50.2% of the women faculty in Korea were single. This was triple the percentage of men faculty who were single (National Institute of Educational Evaluation, 1984). Differences in the percentage of faculty who are single, based on gender, can be attributed to three factors: First, the demographic data included teaching assistants, part-time instructors, and full-time faculty. Second, concerning marriage, Korean women are somewhat practical rather than romantic. They often choose spouses with similar or higher social, economic, and educational backgrounds, while Korean men continue to prefer younger women regardless of their background (Moon, 1992). As a result of the desire to marry equally- or better-educated men, Korean women limit their options. Third, because men often marry before completing their education and women usually complete their education before marriage, fewer educated eligible men are available. Fourth, many single women perceive that a professoriate and family life are not compatible (Shin, 1981).

This perception stems from the social belief that the most important role for women is as caretakers. The fact that women are expected to give up their jobs if necessary to take care of their family, is not considered unusual in Korean society (Moon, 1992).

This attitude is exemplified by the fact that women, but not men, faculty leave their professoriate after marriage. Of the 122 women who left the professoriate in 1980, the cause of 47 or 38.5% were their marriage. The number, however, decreased to 33, or 2.6%, of 1,277 in 1990 (National Institute of Educational Evaluation, 1990; 1980). This reduction was attributable to changes in the perceived roles of women and to growing economic requirements for families in Korea.

As evidence of women faculty's efforts to make family life compatible with their profession and to reduce obstacles to the progression of their professional careers, the number of children born to married women faculty in the late 1970s averaged 2.35, which was lower than the Korean national average. In addition, 8.77% of the women faculty chose not to have any children (Shin, 1981).

Experience in Teaching

The teaching experience of women faculty was reported as less than that of men in 1990 by the National Institute of Educational Evaluation. One out of every four men had more than 25 years of teaching experience. This was triple

the ratio of women who had 25 years of experience. More than 60% of the total women faculty in the nation had less than 10 years of experience.

Shin (1981) suggested three reasons for women faculty's lack of teaching experience. First, the average age of women faculty was younger than that of men. Second, women tended to begin their studies or careers after child rearing so that they could fulfill their home-based roles. Third, women faculty tended to retire early (Shin, 1981) for the sake of their families (Moon, 1992). According to U.S. literature, early retirement, on the contrary, is often considered to be an escape from job dissatisfaction (Brennan, 1974).

Academic Degrees Earned and Their Origin

The percentage of faculty holding baccalaureates and master's degrees is greater for women than for men. However, the percentage of faculty holding doctorates is lower for women than for men. In 1990, 31% of women faculty held baccalaureates, 42% held master's degrees, and 20% held doctorates. Women holding doctorates made up 9% of the total faculty with doctorates. In comparison, 12% of men faculty held baccalaureates, 34% held master's degrees, and 47% held doctorates (National Institute of Educational Evaluation, 1990).

The origins of degrees held by men and women changed within a decade. In 1980, the percentage of women faculty

who had earned their degrees in Korea and overseas (15.87%) was slightly higher than was the percentage of men (13.9%). In 1990, however, the percentage of men faculty who had earned their degrees in Korea and overseas (34%) was much higher than the percentage of women (15%). The percentage of faculty holding overseas doctorates among faculty with doctorates increased from 36% to 82% between 1980 and 1990. Among the women with doctorates, 62% had earned their degrees overseas in 1990 (National Institute of Educational Evaluation, 1990; 1980).

Field of Specialization

In the past, most Korean women in higher education have chosen to study the traditionally female fields such as home economics, nursing, fine arts (Kim, 1975; Lee, 1985), education, and languages (Yu-Tull, 1983). Their choices were based on a social system that provided them with limited opportunities to enter traditionally male-dominated fields (Korean Women Development Institute, 1989). Women who succeeded in getting into male-dominated fields were given less pay and lower positions than were their male colleagues, even though equal employment is stipulated as public policy (Korean Women Development Institute, 1991). In addition, it was still considered inappropriate for women to major or to teach in male-dominated fields (Shin, 1981; Yu-Tull, 1983).

In 1990, women faculty were more diverse in their specializations, compared to women in 1980 (National Institute of Educational Evaluation, 1990; 1980). By 1990, the percentage of women faculty had decreased from 21% to 17% in medicine and nursing, from 17% to 12% in home economics, from 14% to 13% in arts and music, and had remained the same, 13%, in languages and literature, and also in natural sciences, 11%. However, from 1980 to 1990, the percentage of women in education increased from 7% to 10%, the percentage of women in social sciences increased from 6% to 10%, and the percentage of women in humanities increased from 3% to 7%. Not many women were engaged in the fields of agriculture, business, engineering, and fishery (National Institute of Educational Evaluation, 1990; 1980; Yu-Tull, 1983). The diverse engagement of women in specializations can be attributed to less-traditional views regarding gender roles and increasing social demands over the last decade.

Academic Rank

More women faculty taught at 4-year colleges and universities and held higher ranking positions in 1990 than in 1980. Three out of every four women faculty in 1990 were employed at 4-year institutions, while two out of every three women faculty in 1980 were employed at 4-year institutions. The percentage of women in various academic ranks also changed positively during the period from 1980

to 1990: (a) The percentage of full professors increased from 17% to 19%; (b) that of associate professors increased from 20% to 31%; (c) that of assistant professors decreased from 40% to 31%; and (d) that of full-time instructors decreased from 23% to 19% (National Institute of Educational Evaluation, 1990; 1980).

The percentage of Korean women in academic ranks in 1990 was lower than that of U.S. women in academic ranks in 1984-1985: (a) Two point six percent of Korean women and 3.8% of U.S. women held the rank of full professor; (b) 4.3% of Korean women and 6.7% of U.S. women held the rank of associate professor; (c) 4.3% of Korean women and 9.9% of U.S. women held the rank of assistant professor; and (d) 2.6% of Korean women and 3.9% of U.S. women held the rank of full-time instructor (Kahn & Robbins, 1985; National Institute of Educational Evaluation, 1990).

The qualification criteria for professoriates, which are stipulated by the government (Yoon, 1991), are comprised primarily of research and teaching experience and appropriate academic degrees from institutions of higher education. The minimum requirements for research and teaching experience vary with rank: (a) 2 years of research and 1 year of teaching experience for the rank of full-time instructor, (b) 2 years of research and 2 years of teaching experience for the rank of assistant professor, (c) 3 years of research and 4 years of teaching experience for the rank

of associate professor, and (d) 4 years of research and 6 years of teaching experience for the rank of full professor.

Research experience refers to research in research institutes as well as scholarly achievement in the form of theses, journal articles, and publications. The required number of years of research experience can be replaced with teaching experience.

Advancement from the rank of part-time instructor to higher academic ranks can take many years. Administrators keep the number of full-time teaching staff hired as low as permissible because of the scarcity of funds at institutions (Lim, personal communication, May 19, 1992; "Manmulsang," 1992, July).

Tenure Status

Faculty in many countries struggle to earn tenure status by meeting certain conditions within a certain period of time. Faculty in Korea, however, do not work for tenured positions because, similar to German higher education, Korean higher education does not have a tenure status (Jeong, 1992).

Perception

Researchers have found that Korean women faculty, like their non-working counterparts, possess a strong sense of obligation as nurturers and helpmates, and that they generally are not as highly competitive with their male

colleagues as are women faculty in the U.S. (Cheong, 1982; Moon, 1992; Shin, 1981). Korean women faculty also exhibit feelings of guilt for pursuing careers, even though they seem to enjoy being in professoriates. Forty percent of the women faculty surveyed by Shin (1981) believed that their husbands did not have a positive attitude toward their having jobs, and 55% believed that their children had the same opinion. More than 80% of the women, however, thought that both their husbands and their children were satisfied with their being in professoriates.

Shin (1981) found that a majority of Korean women faculty had moderate levels of self-esteem. Only 10% of the women surveyed perceived that men had higher abilities. Two-thirds of the women believed that men and women had equal levels of professional consciousness. Responses to Shin's survey were significant because they indicated the positive perceptions that women held of themselves. The women faculty's responses can be attributed to the fact that most of the Korean women were reared in families where less emphasis was placed on traditional gender stereotypes (Koh, 1987).

Women faculty's perceptions of their abilities varied in different institutional types (Yu-Tull, 1983). Faculty in coeducational institutions were more likely to believe that men were more successful in administration and academe, while faculty in women's institutions tended to perceive no

gender differences. Faculty in women's institutions were more aware of gender equality than were faculty in coeducational institutions. The origin of their degrees also affected the faculty's perceptions. Faculty with overseas degrees had less-traditional gender views toward women teaching in male-dominated fields (Yu-Tull, 1983).

Shin (1981) found that women faculty considered a professoriate to be a good profession: Ninety-seven percent of the women faculty considered it a respected profession, 91% considered it a profession that allowed them to utilize their knowledge, 84% considered it a profession that provided equal gender treatment, and 86% considered it a profession that did not provide leisure time. Even though the majority of Korean women evaluated the professoriate as a good profession, their highest priorities were not on their professions (Shin, 1981). Instead, their primary concerns were for maintaining their family life. Their professions seemed to be a secondary concern, as was found to be the case in the U.S. in the 1970s.

U.S. women also tended to regard family demands as first on their list of priorities when conflict situations occurred between family demands and career responsibilities (Astin, 1969; Bernard, 1974; Gilligan, 1979). Because of this unwillingness to give their jobs priority over other life interests, women faculty have often been considered to be unreliable (Marshall, 1984). Since the 1980s,

however, many U.S. women have shown their professional commitment to be similar to that of men (Marshall, 1984; Naisbitt & Aburdene, 1990; Sorcinelli & Near, 1989). The strong professional commitments of U.S. women faculty, however, have often created highly negative spillover from their work to their leisure time (Sorcinelli & Near, 1989).

Shin (1981) found that Korean women faculty preferred not to be promoted to administrative positions. Shin attributed this tendency to: (a) a lack of time for family and research, (b) increased rejection from male colleagues when they were promoted to administrative positions, and (c) difficulty in maintaining interpersonal relationships with their male colleagues (Shin, 1981).

Job Satisfaction

In order to determine the job satisfaction level of Korean women faculty, Shin (1981) used one single-item question which required a self-referent response. Most responses were between "satisfied" and "highly satisfied." Shin attributed the women faculty's responses to their satisfaction with the social respect they received rather than to their actual satisfaction with their scholarly performance. Shin's study was the first research that dealt with the job satisfaction of Korean women faculty.

A self-referent response was also employed in a Gyosu Shinmoon research (Staff, 1992, April 15) to determine faculty's satisfaction with components of their jobs:

work itself, pay, social status, security, institutional type, and interpersonal relationships. The Gyosu Shinmoon research was also the first research in which various job components were acknowledged in determining Korean faculty's job satisfaction.

The Gyosu Shinmoon research (Staff, 1992, April 15) revealed that 78.7% of the 325 faculty surveyed were satisfied with their jobs. In terms of components of their jobs, 64.4% of the 78.7% were satisfied with their work, 7.6% were satisfied with their social status, and 7.3% were satisfied with their job security. In terms of satisfaction level, 24.3% of the 78.7% were highly satisfied and 54.4% were satisfied. Only 2.4% of the faculty were dissatisfied with their jobs.

The Gyosu Shinmoon research (Staff, 1992, April 15) also revealed that faculty at different institutions were satisfied with different components of their jobs. More than 80% of faculty at private institutions were satisfied with their work only. Approximately 90% of the faculty at public institutions were satisfied with their work, social status, or job security.

The majority of Korean faculty surveyed in the Gyosu Shinmoon research (Staff, 1992, April 15) considered their pay to be inadequate. None of the faculty were satisfied with their pay. The most dissatisfied group with pay was associate professors, followed by full professors. Seven

out of every 10 associate professors and 2 out of every 3 full professors were not satisfied with their pay. The proportions of assistant professors who were satisfied and dissatisfied with their pay were almost evenly divided. One out of every three assistant professors were dissatisfied with their work. Full-time instructors were dissatisfied with many components of their jobs, such as pay, interpersonal relationships, social status, and job security.

Reports of studies concerning part-time instructors are extremely limited. Korean educational laws limit the proportion of part-time instructors that institutions of higher education can hire. Part-time instructors can account for only one-third of an institution's total instructional staff. While many private institutions meet these requirements, some private institutions exceed the government limits by hiring part-time instructors for more than half of the instructional staff positions. The pay of part-time instructors is only one-third that of full-time instructors with a 9-hour full-time teaching load ("Manmulsang," 1992, July). Thus, it is presumed that the job satisfaction of part-time instructors is far different from that of full-time faculty members.

Job Satisfaction

History

The systematic study of job satisfaction began in the 1930s (Locke, 1976). Thousands of studies have been produced since that time in an effort to predict absenteeism and turnover. The two variables were, however, not always strongly related to levels of job satisfaction (Hulin, 1966; Wanus & Lawler, 1972).

Locke (1976) described three historical trends of job satisfaction studies: (a) the physical-economic school of the 1920s, by F. W. Taylor and the British Industrial Health Research Board; (b) the social relation school between the 1930s and the early 1960s, by the Hawthorne investigators; and (c) the work itself school from the late 1960s to the present, by Herzberg. The three schools emphasize, for the attainment of satisfaction: (a) physical working conditions and pay; (b) the role of good supervision, friendly employee-management relations, and cohesive work groups; and (c) growth in skill, efficacy, and mental challenge, respectively.

Definition

Job satisfaction has been defined in relation to the feelings or attitudes of individuals toward the job environment (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959; Maslow, 1987; Vroom, 1964). Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler, and Weick

(1970) defined job satisfaction as the positive or negative aspect of an individual's attitude or feelings toward his or her job or some specific feature of the job. Locke (1976) added the idea that job satisfaction is a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from appraisal of one's job or job experiences. Smith's definition of job satisfaction is similar to that of other scholars, with the addition of the suggestion that expectations and alternatives are related to satisfaction (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969).

Theories

Process theories and content theories are distinguished in literature concerning job satisfaction. Process theories include Adam's equity theory and the expectancy theory of Vroom and Campbell (Locke, 1976). Proponents of process theories attempt to identify the specific needs, values, expectancies, and perceptions that contribute most to job satisfaction. They also specify how the variables interact to influence particular dependent variables; the variables are combined to determine overall job satisfaction (Campbell & Pritchard, 1976; Locke, 1976).

Proponents of the equity theory view outcomes as being perceived as fair when the ratio of outcomes to inputs is equal across individuals (Harder, 1991). Supporters of expectancy theory believe that individuals are motivated to perform by two expectancies: (a) the probability that

a given performance leads to certain desired outcomes, and (b) the probability that effort exerted leads to desired performance. The two expectancies interact and determine the overall level of motivation (Campbell & Pritchard, 1976).

Proponents of content theories endeavor to identify the variables that influence behavior, but not the process, and to specify the basic needs that must be satisfied or the values that must be attained in order for individuals to be motivated for their jobs (Campbell & Pritchard, 1976; Glick, 1990). Contemporary studies on job satisfaction have been greatly influenced by two theories: Maslow's (1954) need hierarchy theory and Herzberg's (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959) motivator-hygiene theory.

Maslow's (1954) theory asserts that individuals have five basic categories of needs, and that these needs are in hierarchical order. The lower categories are physiological, safety, and love needs; the higher categories are esteem and and self-actualization needs. Maslow (1954) stated that, "living at higher need level means greater biological efficacy, greater longevity, better sleep, appetite. . . . Higher need gratification produces more desirable subjective results, that is, more profound happiness, serenity, and richness of the inner life" (pp. 147-148). Maslow, however, did not claim that the lower needs have to be fully satisfied before the higher needs become operational.

He contended that higher needs are always relatively more fulfilled than the lower needs (Locke, 1976; Maslow, 1954).

Herzberg's motivator-hygiene theory views job satisfaction in two independent dimensions; the presence of motivators (labeled intrinsic factors) provides job satisfaction and the presence of hygiene factors prevents job dissatisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1959). The reverse, however, does not hold true. Motivators frequently include work itself, achievement, advancement, recognition, and responsibility. Hygiene factors (labeled extrinsic factors) include company policies, supervision, interpersonal relations, physical working conditions, salary, fringe benefits, administrative practices, and job security (Campbell & Pritchard, 1976; Locke, 1976).

Two content theories, especially Herzberg's theory, have generated a large number of studies and have contributed to the advancement of the concept of an individual's driving force in the work environment (Campbell et al., 1970; Locke, 1976). The fundamental criticism of both theories, however, concerns the separation of needs and factors from the human mind and body, which are never dichotomized (Campbell et al., 1970; Locke, 1976; Maslow, 1987).

Components Used for Determining Job Satisfaction

Typical components used for determining job satisfaction are work, pay, promotion, verbal recognition,

working conditions, co-workers, self, supervisors, and management (Locke, 1976). Among the job components, mental challenge is closely related to satisfaction with work. Too little or too much challenge results in no satisfaction with work because workers experience boredom or failure. Moderate challenge provides feelings of achievement or accomplishment. All workers, however, do not value mental challenge. Jobs mean different things to different individuals. Individuals in lower level jobs tend to consider work as a means to keep busy or to earn a living, while individuals in higher level jobs often view work as pleasurable in itself, and as a means of fulfilling a variety of psychological needs (Locke, 1976).

Herzberg viewed pay as a hygiene factor or extrinsic factor rather than a motivator or intrinsic factor. Money often serves as a reinforcement of motivators (Herzberg et al., 1959), as a source of recognition, as a status symbol, as a source of security, and as an indication of greater freedom of action in all areas of life (Lawler, 1971). Overpayment, however, leads to just as much dissatisfaction with pay as does underpayment (Pritchard, Dunnette, & Jorgenson, 1972).

Pay is a significant predictor of job satisfaction (Lawler, 1971). Pay dissatisfaction is, however, less related to turnover for women than for men (Astin, 1969; Glick, 1990; Hulin, 1966; Hulin & Smith, 1964). Women tend

to be more satisfied than their male colleagues with their pay, even though they are paid less for doing the same work (Hulin & Smith, 1964; Lawler, 1971).

Promotion is one of the most potent incentives (Campbell et al., 1970). The level of its incentives is related to its importance to an individual (Locke, 1976). An individual can be satisfied with no promotional opportunities if the person has no desire for promotion. Promotions that require mobility are unattractive to some, especially to a number of women (Locke, 1976).

Verbal recognition is one of the most frequently mentioned sources of job satisfaction, especially among blue collar workers (Locke, 1976). Verbal recognition has more positive and negative effects on individuals with low self-esteem than on individuals with high self-esteem. Women tend to be more sensitive than men to verbal recognition (Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, & Campwell, 1957). Recognition is, however, not frequently practiced (Herzberg et al., 1959).

Individuals value working conditions such as safety, comfort, cleanness, closeness to home, and adequate equipment. This is especially true of women and factory workers who consider working conditions to be more important than do men and office workers (Locke, 1976).

Herzberg suggested that an individual worker plays a crucial role in determining job satisfaction (Herzberg

et al., 1959). Locke (1976) also viewed workers as one of the most insistent job components for job satisfaction. Individuals who have high self-esteem tend to be more satisfied with their job environment. Considerate or employee-centered supervisory characteristics are also more directly and positively related to the satisfaction of subordinates than are the characteristics of management (Locke, 1976).

Measurement

Rating scales, action tendency scales, interviews, and critical incidents are popularly used for measuring job satisfaction (Locke, 1976). Most measurements are developed in rating scales which form self-description inventories. Disadvantages of rating scales include (a) the assumption that subjects have good self-insight and (b) difficulties in scoring descriptive and evaluative items.

Action tendency scales ask subjects to report the action tendencies which they experience in relation to their job components. Interviews are infrequently used because of their subjectivity, cost, and time required, even though they provide depth for study and require no high cognition (Locke, 1976). The use of critical incidents in measuring job satisfaction focuses on one specific source of feelings derived from a description of specific experiences. It is advantageous over rating scales because less cognition is demanded from subjects (Locke, 1976).

U.S. Women Faculty and Predictors of Faculty's Job Satisfaction

Few researchers have focused on the job satisfaction of women faculty. To better understand the job satisfaction of women faculty, demographic variables that affect faculty's job satisfaction and the characteristics of U.S. women faculty are addressed in this study in relation to the variables. Most of the variables have been intercorrelated in determining job satisfaction, but are discussed separately, with the weight of their significance as follows: (a) number, (b) age, (c) marital status, (d) presence of children in the home, (e) institutional type, (f) experience in teaching and administration, (g) salary, (h) highest academic degree earned, (i) origin of academic degrees, (j) field of specialization, (k) academic rank, and (l) tenure status. In addition, six job components of the Job Descriptive Index (work, pay, promotion, supervision, co-workers, and job in general) are addressed in relation to the demographic variables.

Number

In 1870, women faculty represented 12% of the 5,553 total faculty in 563 higher education institutions across the U.S. Within a century, the percentage of women doubled; one-fourth of the 825,000 total faculty at 2,525 institutions in 1970 were women. By 1980, women comprised one-third of the 1,127,000 total faculty at 3,152

institutions (Bognanno, 1987). The increase of women faculty, especially between the 1970s and early 1980s, was attributed to enforcement of the 1972 Equal Pay Act (Bognanno, 1987) and the social trend for men to avoid preparation for or pursue of academic careers because of low economic returns (Lomperis, 1990; Ransom, 1990).

Age

Women in the 1960s tended to earn doctorates while in their 30s, which was later than their male colleagues. The delay in women's earning degrees was attributed to the bearing and rearing of children, economic reasons, a need to break from the academic routine, and reentering school on a part-time basis (Astin, 1969). Concerning the retirement of women, disputable findings were reported. Astin found that women were more likely to retire between the age of 60 and 65, which was similar to their male colleagues. Armour, Fuhrmann, and Wergin (1990), however, found that women faculty anticipated retiring early.

Researchers have found age to be a significant variable in determining job satisfaction (Donohue, 1983; Harrington, 1980; Tanash, 1987). Age with academic rank (Donohue, 1983) and age with tenure status (Harrington, 1980) have been positively related to each other in job satisfaction. Age has also been positively related to pay satisfaction (Donohue, 1983; Tanash, 1987) and negatively related to supervision satisfaction (Donohue, 1983).

Marital Status

Married women are often unable to pursue careers as systematically as men because of the uncertainties and interruptions that arise with marriage, child rearing, and the lack of mobility in job placement created by marriage and family (Kreps, 1974; Warme & Lundy, 1988). Because of these factors, women often settle for much less career preparation and advancement than do men.

Researchers have found that marriage is more beneficial to the advancement of the careers of men than of women (Koreman & Neumark, 1991), including those in professoriates (Astin, 1969; Simeone, 1987). The tendency for married men to be paid higher salaries and to be promoted faster than single men is attributed to the fact that they work harder than single men, and to the idea that their financial responsibilities for their families should be considered positively in their pay scale (Simeone, 1987).

Many researchers, however, have reported that marriage is a negatively significant variable in job satisfaction, especially in terms of limiting women's scholarly and social activities (Clark & Corcoran, 1986; Jeong, 1987; Simeone, 1987; Sudsawasd, 1980). Married faculty are more dissatisfied with working conditions than are unmarried faculty (Sudsawasd, 1980). Never-married women are more likely than married or widowed women to attain higher ranks, but not at a statistically significant level. Never-married

and divorced women are also more likely to advance in their careers than are married women (Astin, 1969).

The life histories of 30 never-married academic women were analyzed in the late 1970s by Kieffer (1979). Their career histories revealed interruptions from kindergarten to the terminal degree similar to those of married women. Among 30 subjects, 19 had earned doctorates. More than half of the 30 women were in male fields, all had attained the rank of assistant professor or higher, and only 3 of the 30 were employed as instructors. The women had served from 25 to 45 years in academe. The fact that they had never married was universally associated with the reduction of career- and intellect-risk by diffusion of affectivity, affiliation, and need to nurture.

Benoit (1976), however, observed that marriage was a positive variable in the overall job satisfaction of women faculty. Benoit found that married women were more satisfied with their jobs overall than were single women. Separated women faculty were less satisfied with their jobs, followed by widowed faculty. Marital status was reported as both a negative and positive variable in a study by Kazal-Thresher (1990), and as having no effect on job satisfaction in a study by Tanash (1987).

Astin (1969) noted that 45% of women with doctorates were single, 51% were married to men with doctorates, and 12% were married to men with professional degrees.

Women with doctorates had a tendency to marry men in the same or similar fields of specialization, and were more likely to report that their husbands were helpful, considerate, and sympathetic to their careers. Married women who were physical scientists were most often married to men in the physical sciences, and 45% of the women who were biological scientists were married to men in biological sciences or in medicine. Married women in education were, however, more likely to be married to businessmen or lawyers than to educators.

Presence of Children in the Home

In 1969, the average number of children for women doctorates was two. This was fewer than the average among their contemporaries in the general population (Astin, 1969). The proportion of married women doctorates with no children, more than one-fourth, was twice that of the general population. In 1981, one-half of the married women faculty did not have children (Yogev & Vierra, 1981).

A 1973 study indicated that more children in the home was a positive variable for men faculty but was most often a negative variable for women faculty (Astin & Bayer, 1973). Added responsibility seemed to be a motivator for men to achieve success (Simeone, 1987). On the other hand, child rearing and more children were found to be significant hindrances to the channeling of the energies of women faculty into scholarly and other related professional

activities (Edwards, 1989; Jeong, 1987) and to their career advancement (Muller, 1986). Women faculty with children had interruptions in their careers and held lower academic ranks (Simeone, 1987).

The reported effects of children on women's research productivity have been mixed, however (Simeone, 1987). Women with fewer or no children seem to be at an advantage. In contrast, Morgenstern and Hamovitch (1977) and Tosti-Vasey (1987) found that family environments involving the care of small children or elderly parents did not substantially interfere with women's ability to be involved in their profession.

Reiss (1983) observed the job satisfaction of married women faculty at three family stages: (a) families with young children (infants or preschoolers), (b) families with older children (school-aged or adolescent), and (c) families with independent children. Reiss found no significant differences in mean job satisfaction scores among the three family-stage groups. Sources of job satisfaction did, however, appear to shift at different family stages.

Institutional Type

Researchers have found that faculty's rank and salary are significantly different at different types of institutions. Astin and Bayer (1973) found that faculty employed by large institutions with high ratios of doctorates and many library volumes were less likely to

have attained high ranks than were their colleagues who were employed by smaller and less prestigious institutions. Faculty at private institutions were less likely to hold high ranks than were faculty at public institutions. In the mid-1980s, one-half of the full-time faculty at private institutions in the U.S. were tenured, while two-thirds of their counterparts at public institutions were tenured (American Council on Education, 1989). Differences in the proportion of faculty tenured were attributed to variations in the professoriate criteria used at private and public institutions (Astin & Bayer, 1973).

Studies have shown that women are more likely to be in smaller colleges and universities where pay tends to be lower (Astin & Bayer, 1973) and where less gender discrimination exists (Jeong, 1987). In 1898, less than 10% of women faculty were in prestigious or large institutions. As recently as 1970, this percentage remained the same (Sandler, 1973). The salaries of women faculty were also found to be much lower than those of their male colleagues, especially at private institutions (Chamberlain, 1988).

Institutions have often operated with different pay scales for men and women. In the past, greater salaries were provided to men who were their families' primary breadwinners. Their responsibilities were believed to justify the greater economic compensation for men than for women, regardless of the equal educational attainment and

equivalent work experience of women. These early gender bias created large salary differentials between men and women in their later years (Bayer & Astin, 1968).

The type of institution where faculty members earned their degrees also seems to be more influential for men than for women (Astin & Bayer, 1973). Astin and Bayer found that faculty members who received degrees at highly respected institutions were likely to attain high rank sooner than were faculty members with degrees from less prestigious institutions. Two assumptions were presented in their study: (a) Faculty who attended prestigious institutions were superior in ability and motivation to those who attended less elite graduate schools and showed evidence of the difference through greater amounts of research and publications early in their academic careers; and (b) a graduate degree from a prestigious institution was an important entree' to career advancement in the academic world. Astin and Bayer (1973), however, noticed that women who attained doctorates from prestigious institutions and demonstrated great scholarly productivity still took longer to be promoted to a high rank than did their male colleagues.

The religious affiliations of faculty members rather than of institutions were investigated as a predictor of faculty's job satisfaction in a 1991 study on Nigerian faculty by Duru (1991). Duru compared four groups of

faculty: (a) Christian faculty, (b) Moslem faculty, (c) other religious faculty, and (d) nonreligious faculty. He found that Christian faculty were more satisfied than other religious faculty with their work, promotion, supervision, co-workers, and their jobs in general, but not with their pay. Christian faculty were also more satisfied with their supervision, co-workers, and their jobs in general than were faculty who were classified as nonreligious.

Experience in Teaching and Administration

While the majority of researchers have investigated the job satisfaction of faculty whose experience was in teaching, Benoit (1976) treated both teaching and administration as one variable that affected job satisfaction. She noticed that experience in administration was positively related to job satisfaction. Women faculty who had experience in administration as well as in teaching were significantly more satisfied than were women faculty who had only teaching experience. Their responses were attributed to the experience of changing their own fate; their power of decision-making; and the rewards, other than monetary, received for their endeavors.

Researchers have also found that amount of teaching experience was positively related to job satisfaction. Pacheco (1981) found that Puerto Rican women faculty with more than 21 years of experience were the most satisfied

group studied. Faculty in Nigeria (Duru, 1991), Jordan (Tanash, 1987), and Thailand (Vatthaisong, 1982) also exhibited higher levels of job satisfaction when they had more teaching experience. This was especially true concerning satisfaction with pay, supervision, and job in general for Jordanian faculty (Tanash, 1987). In contrast, a study by Donohue (1983) revealed that number of years of teaching experience was positively related to work satisfaction and negatively related to promotion satisfaction for women faculty.

Salary

Although it was little known in the 1960s, differences existed in the salary scales for men and women, even for highly trained women faculty with doctorates (Bayer & Astin, 1968). In the early 1970s, differences in the salaries of men and women faculty were as high as 20%. In 1972, the Equal Pay Act was enforced for all federally-assisted education programs in order to eliminate gender bias in the reward system (Sandler, 1973). At this time, many institutions examined and substantially raised women's salaries. Women in universities benefitted more than did their women colleagues in 2-year and 4-year colleges from the act with increases in salary and rank (Bognanno, 1987). Gender discrimination, however, did not end with the 1972 Equal Pay Act (Bognanno, 1987; Iacona, 1987).

Continuing salary disparities after the 1972 act were attributed to the following characteristics of women faculty: (a) They are likely to have less seniority and experience than do their male colleagues (Chamberlain, 1988; Fedler, Counts, & Smith, 1983); (b) they are involved in womanly sciences, lower-paying institutions, lower productivity, and less work activities (Astin & Bayer 1973; Bayer & Astin, 1968; Bognanno, 1987; Chamberlain, 1988); (c) salary scales for men and women are not changed (Astin, 1969); and (d) women tend to consciously avoid competition for salary and status and to be less involved in their work in order to devote time and energy to their families (Kreps, 1974; Warme & Lundy, 1988). A majority of women, even the most capable, ambitious, and well-educated, choose their husbands and children over their careers when conflicts arise between these two areas of their lives (Astin, 1969; Koreman & Neumark, 1991; Warme & Lundy, 1988).

Salary differentials have also been noted among women themselves. Astin (1969) reported that married women tended to earn lower salaries than did single women. This could be attributed to differences in the level of productivity between the two groups and to the social view that married women's salaries are often not required for necessities, but rather to provide their families with luxuries (Marshall, 1984).

Bognanno (1987) found that salary differences continued between men and women faculty even after the affirmative action was enforced. In 1976, women faculty earned 90.4%, 95.2%, and 95.7% of their male colleagues' earnings at the full, associate, and assistant professor ranks, respectively. By 1985, women faculty's salaries had decreased to 88.1%, 92.9%, and 91.9% of the salaries of men faculty for the same three ranks (Bognanno, 1987). Salary differences between men and women faculty members were noted in terms of dollars by Chamberlain (1988). The salary gap between men and women increased from $680 in 1972-1973 to $2,730 in 1986-1987 for assistant professors and from $2,283 to $5,440 for full professors during the same period.

A recent study by Ehrenberg (1991) revealed that differences in salaries for men and women faculty were narrower than those reported earlier by Chamberlain (1988). Ehrenberg found that salary differences were $1,170 for instructors, $2,950 for assistant professors, $3,000 for associate professors, and $1,550 for full professors. Decreases in the salary differences were attributed to affirmative action and other attempts to equalize salaries for women faculty (Thoreson, Kardash, Leuthold, & Morrow, 1990).

Researchers have found, in studying job satisfaction, that salary is a significant variable (Herzberg et al., 1959; Hill, 1982; Vroom, 1964). Salary was found to be

a primary source of dissatisfaction for the greatest number of respondents in studies by Vatthaisong (1982), Winkler (1982), and Wittenauer (1980). Sudsawasd (1980) and Tanash (1987), however, found that salary was one of the major sources of job satisfaction for Thai and Jordanian faculty members. Sudsawasd noted that, for Thai faculty, salary was positively related to age, teaching experience, formal educational level, and academic rank. Tanash noted that, as Jordanian faculty's salaries increased, their levels of satisfaction with promotion, supervision, and colleagues also increased.

Highest Academic Degree Earned

Bayer and Astin (1968) found that women faculty had lower degrees than did their male colleagues. Three-fifths of the women faculty surveyed had master's degrees and one-fifth of the women faculty surveyed had doctorates. Greater proportions of women than men had degrees of less than doctorates and taught elementary courses. They also found that women with doctorates were less likely than men to teach advanced courses.

Research has shown that higher levels of educational background are positively related to job satisfaction. Women faculty with doctorates were reportedly more satisfied with their jobs (Benoit, 1976), especially their salaries, than were women without doctorates (Sudsawasd, 1980). Duru (1991) found that Nigerian faculty members with doctorates

were more satisfied with their work and with their jobs in general. He also noted, however, that faculty with only baccalaureates were more satisfied with their jobs in general than were faculty with master's degrees. It was assumed that faculty with master's degrees had higher expectations in terms of growth and benefits than did faculty with baccalaureates, and that their levels of expectations were not realized.

Origin of Academic Degrees

Literature on research concerning the relationship between job satisfaction and the origin of academic degree was limited. Two studies on Thai and Jordanian faculty by Pasuwan (1972) and Tanash (1987) revealed no significant differences in job satisfaction among faculty with regard to the country in which their last degree was received.

Field of Specialization

In the past, women chose their specializations based on social traditions. They engaged in feminine fields such as home economics, health sciences, social work, and education (American Council on Education, 1989; Bayer, 1973; Benoit, 1976). Although choices by women have not varied substantially in recent years, a noticeable effort in this area was made between 1969 and 1977 (Ransom, 1990), when more women entered male-dominated fields. The reverse, however, did not occur. Although 78% of men faculty and 64%

of women faculty were engaged in sciences and engineering, 37% of women faculty and only 22% of men faculty were engaged in humanities (Bognanno, 1987).

In 1973, Astin and Bayer reported the areas in which women earned doctorates: Thirty percent earned doctorates in education, 25% in social sciences, 25% in natural sciences, and 20% in arts and humanities. The choice of education by women was based on a realistic view of future job opportunities.

Field of specialization has also been shown to be a predictor of salary and tenure. Chamberlain (1988) found that salary differences between men and women were wider in natural sciences than in social sciences, arts, and humanities. Compared to faculty in biological sciences, education, and health-related fields, faculty in humanities, physical sciences, social sciences, and business were reportedly less likely to attain tenure, regardless of their position or length of experience (Astin & Bayer, 1973). Women in traditionally female fields experienced greater gender discrimination in promotions (Bayer & Astin, 1968; Staub, 1987) than did faculty in traditionally male fields (Staub, 1987).

No research literature comparing the job satisfaction of faculty whose field was different from their teaching field was located. It is presumed that the majority of full-time faculty teach in their area of specialization

rather than in other fields. The relationship of job satisfaction and teaching fields was the primary concern of the studies reviewed.

Reports of relationships between gender-typed fields and job satisfaction have been mixed. Women faculty in male-dominated fields, such as business administration and law, have indicated less satisfaction with their jobs (Benoit, 1976) than have their male counterparts; however, no gender differences have been reported in job satisfaction in traditionally female fields, such as home economics (Wissman, 1981). Benoit found that the level of job satisfaction was highest among women faculty in medical fields, followed by women faculty in home economics. Tanash (1987) noted that Jordanian faculty members in medical fields were the most satisfied with their colleagues among other job components. Research has indicated that the least satisfied women faculty were in fine arts, business (Benoit, 1976), humanities, and social sciences (Tanash, 1987).

Academic Rank

Faculty members' academic rank has, generally, been determined by degree, scholarly productivity, length of employment, institutional type, and time spent in administrative activities (Astin & Bayer, 1973). Research has shown that faculty in prestigious positions were significantly more satisfied (Balazadeh, 1981; Benoit, 1976), especially with supervision, than were assistant

professors (Tanash, 1987). Women associate professors, who Benoit (1976) reported were the least satisfied group, were more dissatisfied than men with their job positions (Bayer & Astin, 1968; Fedler et al., 1984; Iacona, 1987). A study by Bowen (1980), however, revealed no relationship between faculty's academic rank and job satisfaction.

Bayer and Astin (1968) found that even though there were more women faculty in natural sciences, men attained higher ranks and did so in less time than did their female colleagues. However, the differences were not statistically significant.

Previous studies have revealed that in the beginning stages of a professoriate, women often hold higher than or comparable academic ranks to their male colleagues within the same specialization. Later, however, they tend to be clustered in lower and part-time positions, and in a limited number of departments and programs (Bayer & Astin, 1968; Sandler, 1973). The fact that women's rank was lower than that of their male colleagues was partly attributable to the same reasons that women earned lower salaries--a pattern of biased promotion policies for women (Grunig, 1987; Schaible & Russell, 1989) and a tendency for women to have less teaching experience, lower levels of educational background (Astin & Bayer, 1973; Bayer & Astin, 1968), a lack of mobility (Astin, 1969), and less interest in full-time

or higher positions due to family responsibilities (Locke, 1976).

The level of senior administrative positions held by women is also lower. This is, however, attributable to the short length of time that women have served in administrative positions (Johnsrud, 1991).

Two annual survey studies by the American Association of University Professors (Ehrenberg, 1991; Kahn & Robbins, 1985) provided national statistics on the academic ranks of women who were saliently underrepresented in the high ranks despite less than 2 decades of affirmative action. The 2 annual surveys were collected from 301,883 faculty at 1,563 institutions in 1984-1985 and from 316,263 faculty at 1,649 institutions in 1990-1991. A comparison of the two studies indicated positive but minor changes between 1984-1985 and 1990-1991 in women's rank: (a) The percentage of women who were full professors increased from 3.8% to 4.8%; (b) the percentage of women who were associate professors increased from 6.7% to 7.5%; (c) the percentage of women who were assistant professors increased from 9.9% to 10.8%; and (d) the percentage of women who were instructors decreased from 3.9% to 3.5%.

Tenure Status

Although women faculty have benefited from affirmative action, their dissatisfaction with tenure decisions, salary, and rank has continued (Bognanno, 1987; Chamberlain, 1988;

Kahn & Robbins, 1985; Vanda, 1989). Research has indicated that women faculty are less likely to be tenured (Bayer, 1973), more likely to be in nontenure-track positions, and more likely to be ranked lower than are their male colleagues, both before and after the affirmative action (Bognanno, 1987; Chamberlain, 1988). Reasons for these discrepancies have been attributed to tenure and promotion evaluations which are often more stringent for women (Kahn & Robbins, 1985; Nevels, 1980). By the mid-1980s, 66% of U.S. men faculty and 46% of women faculty were tenured (American Council on Education, 1989).

According to a recent report on Texas women in higher education by the Texas Higher Education Coordinating Board (1991), the tenure status of women in the State of Texas changed between 1983 and 1989, but the changes were very subtle. Increases in the percentage of tenured women faculty among tenured faculty in 4-year institutions of higher education in Texas changed from 9% to 10% for full professors, from 18% to 19% for associate professors, from 11% to 8% for assistant professors, and from 2% to 1% for instructors. Although the percentage of tenured women faculty in Texas was greater than the national level, the difference was not regarded as meaningful because many women were faculty in a women's institution, and this produced misleading averages.

The relationships between tenure status and job satisfaction are mixed. Harrington (1980) and Bowen (1980) found that tenure status was not significantly related to job satisfaction. On the contrary, studies by Iacona (1987), Kahn and Robbins (1985), Tanash (1987), Vanda (1989), and Wittenauer (1980) indicated that significant relationships existed between tenure status and job satisfaction.

Summary

A background for the study of job satisfaction of Korean women university faculty was provided with reviews of studies of the characteristics of women faculty in Korea and the U.S., job satisfaction, and the predictors of faculty's job satisfaction. Research indicates that, on a nationwide basis, Korean women faculty are younger, are engaged in more traditionally female fields, are ranked lower, have less experience in teaching, and have lower academic degrees than do their male colleagues. Korean women faculty seem to have a stronger sense of obligation to their families and to hold stronger traditional gender views than do U.S. women faculty. Korean women have moderate levels of self-esteem and consider the professoriate a good profession. Their priority is, however, on their families rather than on their professions. They have difficulty maintaining interpersonal relationships with their male colleagues and in balancing

their family life with their profession. This is especially true of women in senior administrative positions.

Systematic studies on job satisfaction began in the 1930s in an effort to predict absenteeism and turnover. Among the theories of job satisfaction, Maslow's (1954) need hierarchy theory and Herzberg's (Herzberg et al., 1959) motivator-hygiene theory significantly influenced contemporary job satisfaction studies. Typical job components used for determining job satisfaction are work, pay, promotion, verbal recognition, working conditions, co-workers, self, supervisors, and management. These components are measured with rating scales, action tendency scales, interviews, and critical incidents.

To better understand the job satisfaction of women faculty, the characteristics of U.S. women faculty were also examined. In the U.S., women faculty comprise one-third of the total faculty. Compared to their male colleagues, they are more likely to be engaged in traditionally female fields, to be employed by smaller institutions, to hold lower degrees, to earn lower salaries, and to have lower ranks. Since the 1972 Equal Pay Act was enforced, gender discrimination against women has been reduced and the number of women in high ranks and tenured positions has increased, but has remained small.

Demographic variables that have been considered as predictors of job satisfaction for women faculty include

age, experience in teaching and administration, a doctorate, and the rank of full professor. Variables that have been considered as predictors of job dissatisfaction of women faculty include marriage, employment by large institutions, and salary. Variables that have been considered, but that are questionable as predictors of job satisfaction are children in the home, field of specialization, and tenure status. A variable that has not been confirmed, but that might be related to the job satisfaction of women faculty, is the origin of their academic degrees.

CHAPTER 3

PROCEDURES FOR COLLECTION OF DATA

Introduction

The sample for this study included 320 women faculty who were randomly selected from the 1,157 women faculty at 25 universities in Seoul. The subjects' job satisfaction level was determined by relating the variables of two instruments: the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) and a faculty demographic data sheet. Distribution of the instruments began on May 11, 1992, and collection was completed on June 30, 1992.

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences/PC+ software program was used to analyze the 280 responses. Detailed information on the research design, instruments, pilot study, population, selection of the sample, procedures for collecting data, and procedures for analysis of data are provided in this chapter.

Research Design

A descriptive research design, specifically survey research, was selected for this study in an effort to obtain answers to the research questions as validly, objectively, accurately, and economically as possible (Kerlinger, 1986) and to make the findings as generalizable to the population

as possible (Borg, 1987). The confidentiality of the research design for respondents was reviewed by the University of North Texas Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects in Research and was exempted from further review under 45CFR 46.101 (Witt, personal communication, April 20, 1992).

Instruments

Two instruments were used in this study: the JDI and a faculty demographic data sheet (see Appendix A). The subscales of the JDI were the criteria used for determining job satisfaction and were treated as dependent variables. A faculty demographic data sheet was used to obtain information on the subjects. The demographic information was treated as independent variables.

The instruments were translated into Korean. They were distributed with a cover letter, which explained the purpose and nature of the study and ensured the confidentiality of responses (see Appendix C).

The Job Descriptive Index

The JDI was designed to define five separate components of job satisfaction: (a) work on present job, (b) present pay, (c) opportunities for promotion, (d) supervision, and (e) co-workers. Revision of the JDI in 1985 included changes on the five subscales and the addition of a Job In General (JIG) scale. The JIG was designed to assess overall

job satisfaction and to be administered along with the JDI. Thus, the six subscales are presented in the JDI.

The subscales which contain instructions and either 9 or 18 simple adjectives or short descriptive and evaluative phrases each, do not require a high verbal or cognition level. The scale asks subjects to describe their jobs rather than their feelings about their jobs (Smith et al., 1969). The entire instrument contains 90 items.

Subjects are asked to designate "y" for "yes" if an item describes their work, "n" for "no" if an item does not describe their work, or "?" if they cannot decide. Positively worded items are scored 3, 1, and 0, and negatively worded items are scored 0, 1, and 3 for "yes," "?," and "no," respectively. Omissions are also scored as "?." If more than 4 items are omitted from an 18-item scale or 3 items from a 9-item scale, the entire subscale is not scored (Balzer et al., 1990).

The subscales of the JDI are scored separately. Subscale scores are not added together because the total score does not represent overall job satisfaction. Scores on the subscales of work, supervision, co-workers, and the job in general scales are computed by summing the points of the items in each scale. Scores on the subscales of pay and promotion are doubled after computing the scores because they consist of only half as many items as the other scales. The possible range of scores on each scale is from 0 to 54.

The JDI was selected for this study for three primary reasons: (a) The JDI has received favorable evaluation. The followings are measurements evaluated on the subscales of work, pay, promotion, supervision, co-workers, and job in general: Internal consistency reliabilities using split half correlations are .73, .67, .75, .77, .78, and 90; validities are .44, .40, .52, .50, .35, and .27; and intercorrelations are .25, .29, .45, .29, .30, and .73 (Balzer et al., 1990; Smith et al., 1969). Intercorrelations are high because of the interdependence of certain job aspects from one setting to another (Smith et al., 1969). (b) The JDI is simple and practical to administer and to complete; it requires less than 10 minutes for answering and scoring (Robinson, Athanasiou, & Head, 1978). The JDI indirectly measures how satisfied respondents are with their work by referring to descriptive job situations rather than asking subjects directly if they are satisfied with their jobs. The JDI has been criticized, however, for its simplicity. Critics suggest that the JDI is too simple for use in determining the job satisfaction of talented adults or adults in very high-level positions. (c) The instrument has been used successfully for faculty in the U.S. The JDI has been used in other countries, such as Britain and Canada, and translated into many native languages, such as Afrikaans, Arabic, Chinese, Dutch, German, Greek, Malay, Norwegian, Portuguese, Spanish, and

Thai (Balzer et al., 1990; Crites, 1985). The JDI is rated as a high-quality measuring instrument (Kerr, 1985; Robinson et al., 1978) and is the most frequently used instrument in the study of industrial-organizational psychology (Crites, 1985).

The seven-page JDI was translated into Korean and printed in the same size of the original JDI (3.75" x 8.5"). Permission for translation of the JDI was granted by Bowling Green State University (see Appendix B).

In order to validate the JDI in the Korean version, 10 Korean graduate students at the University of North Texas in Denton, participated in the process of translation: 5 translated the JDI into Korean, and another 5 translated it back into English. Because of the cultural similarities between the Korean and Chinese, the Chinese version of the JDI (obtained from Bowling Green State University) was translated back into English with the assistance of three Chinese graduate students at the University of North Texas and was analyzed to produce a more reliable Korean version. The Chinese version was a translation of the 1975 edition of the JDI, which included five subscales with a few items that were different from the 1985 edition. The signatures of the 10 Koreans and 3 Chinese colleagues who participated in the translation are included in Appendix D.

Faculty Demographic Data Sheet

The collection of demographic information is an important first step in the study of a population (Crispell, 1990) and is the most easily accessible and cost-effective way to understand a population (Nesbit & Weinstein, 1990). Demographic variables are good indicators for ongoing and future trends and can be used with survey research. Demographic information provides a context for understanding a population and can add insight and stimulation to a study (Crispell, 1990). The JDI user's manual recommends the use of demographic items along with the instrument (Balzer et al., 1990).

A faculty demographic data sheet was designed to collect information and to determine the job satisfaction of the population of the study. The instrument was drafted with consideration of Korean cultural background. Asking a person's age is not an uncommon question at the first meeting of a new person, even a woman, in Korea, where younger people are expected to pay respect to their elders. Consideration was also given to the question concerning salary. Salary is counted by month, rather than by year in Korea. In order to provide smooth flow, the data sheet began with age and then moved to professional items.

Consultation with a specialist in Korean higher education administration provided information on three items which needed to be changed (Cho, personal communication,

May 8, 1992): (a) Research experience was inserted as "Your experience of teaching, administration, and research in higher education and in research institutes." The change was based on the Korean professoriate criteria, which requires experience in research (Yoon, 1991). (b) The choices for salary were raised and itemized as 12 groups, from less than 1 million won to more than 4 million won, in .3 million won increments. (c) The tenure status item was eliminated. Korean higher education currently does not have a tenure status (Jeong, 1992).

The faculty demographic data sheet, which was finalized in a single page, included the following 11 items: (a) age, (b) marital status, (c) number of children in the home, (d) institutional type (private or public, coeducational or women's, and religious or nonreligious), (e) experience in teaching, administration, and research, (f) monthly salary, (g) highest academic degree earned, (h) origin of academic degrees (in Korea or in Korea and overseas), (i) field of specialization in highest academic degree earned, (j) teaching field, and (k) academic rank (see Appendix A).

Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted using 10 of the 320 subjects to validate the instruments and to eliminate any possible ambiguities in the translated instruments. The 10 subjects were contacted individually, either by telephone or by visit, and were asked to cooperate in

the study. Of the 10 subjects, 7 responded within a week. One of the seven subjects commented that, "No supervision exists in professoriate." No ambiguities were pointed out in the translated instruments.

The Population

The population consisted of all women faculty at universities located in Seoul, Republic of Korea. The number of private and public colleges and universities in Korea is shown in Table 1 (Korean Council for University Education, 1990a; 1990b). Of the 64 universities, 25 were located in Seoul. The total number of full-time women faculty identified in the faculty directories published by the Korean Council for University Education (1990a; 1990b) was 1,157.

Table 1

Institutions of Higher Education in the Republic of Korea

Institutional Type	University	College	Total
Private	50	36	86
Public	14	25	39
Total	64	61	125

Selection of the Sample

The population size was rounded up from 1,157 to 1,200 in order to use the "Table for Determining Sample Size from a Given Population" (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970, p. 608). A sample size of 320, which was 10% more than the exact sample size, was drawn from the population.

In order to randomly select subjects, the names of universities were listed in Korean alphabetical order as shown in Table 2 (Europa Publications, 1990; Korean Council for University Education, 1990a; 1990b). A number was assigned to each woman in the faculty directories, in ascending order from 1 to 1,157. Random sampling without replacement was selected over other sampling methods because it has been used in survey samplings as the fundamental technique to include characteristics of a finite and homogeneous population (Kerlinger, 1986; Kotz & Johnson, 1988). The Statistical Package for Social Science/PC+ software program was used for selecting 320 random numbers from the 1,157 listed. Identification numbers were coded on the cover page of the JDI to facilitate follow-up responses and the procurement of any demographic information, which was omitted by the subjects, from the faculty directories.

Administration Procedures

A letter was mailed to the Korean Consulate in Houston to determine if permission was required before administering

Table 2

Number of Full-time Female and Male University Faculty in Seoul by Institution

Name of Institution	Enrollment	N of Full-time Faculty		Gender Type
		Females	Males	
Private				
Chung-Ang	19,501	57	403	Coed
Dan Kook	13,557	29	388	Coed
Dongduck Women's	3,882	31	56	Women
Dongguk	15,979	33	360	Coed
Ewha Womans	12,730	224	206	Women
*HUFS	12,838	25	349	Coed
Hanyang	27,000	75	506	Coed
Hong-Ik	8,500	11	208	Coed
King Sejong	3,662	26	79	Coed
Kon-Kuk	17,091	36	407	Coed
Kookmin	7,626	17	149	Coed
Korea	21,685	49	595	Coed
Kyunghee	25,000	64	523	Coed
Kyungki	4,760	15	163	Coed
Myungji	4,700	14	171	Coed
Sangmyung Women's	3,120	49	93	Women
Seoul Woman's	3,138	32	50	Women
Seongsin Women's	3,320	68	82	Women
Sogang	6,500	9	157	Coed
Sookmyung Women's	7,033	77	78	Women
Soong Sil	6,852	10	138	Coed
Sung Kyun Kwan	18,000	16	307	Coed
Yonsei	32,271	94	745	Coed
Subtotal	278,745	1,061	6,213	17C/6W
Public				
Seoul City	5,000	8	124	Coed
Seoul National	24,536	88	1,587	Coed
Subtotal	29,536	96	1,711	2C
Total	308,281	1,157	7,924	19C/6W

Note. *Refers to Hankuk University of Foreign Studies.

the instruments to faculty in Korea. Lee, Educational Attache' at the Consulate (personal communication, April 22, 1992), stated that no permission was required (see Appendix B). Letters requesting permission to administer the study were mailed on May 5, 1992, to the presidents of 25 universities (see Appendix C). Three responses indicating a willingness to cooperate were received between May 14 and May 26, 1992 (see Appendix B). The instruments were distributed to the subjects at all of the 25 universities without presidential permission based on the advices of the Educational Attache' of the Korean Consulate in Houston (Lee, personal communication, April 22, 1992) and a specialist of higher education administration (Cho, personal communication, May 8, 1992).

On May 18, 1992, the survey materials (a cover letter, two instruments, and a stamped, self-addressed return envelope) were (a) mailed to the subjects after telephone communications with them, (b) handed to the subjects, (c) left with assistants to the subjects, or (d) slipped into the office doors of the subjects. Twenty-three subjects could not be reached because they were out-of-placement (6 subjects), retired (1 subject), on maternity leave (1 subject), on sabbatical leave (6 subjects), on sick leave (1 subject), deceased (1 subject), or unwilling to participate in the study (7 subjects). These subjects were replaced with others.

Two research assistants participated in the process of distributing and collecting the data. Telephone calls or individual visits were made to the subjects within a few days in cases where the instruments were not handed directly to the subjects. The collection of responses through visits was discontinued on Friday, June 12, 1992, because the following week was scheduled as final examinations for the spring session at a majority of the universities. The collection of responses by mail was cut off on June 30, 1992, when school closed.

The most effective method for administering instruments was by handing them directly to the subjects. Mailing the instruments to subjects after telephone communication, and leaving the instruments with the subjects' assistants were moderately effective. The least effective method was slipping the instruments into the office door of the subjects. Responses were received from 280, or 87.5% of the 320 subjects.

Procedures for Analysis of Data

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences/PC+ software program was used for data entry and statistical analysis. The demographic and JDI variables were analyzed to answer the three research questions of this study.

The discrete variables among faculty demographic items were coded to facilitate frequency statistics to answer

research question 1: What are the characteristics of women university faculty in Seoul?

The scores of mean, median, and standard deviation were computed to answer research question 2: What is the satisfaction level of women university faculty in Seoul with components of their jobs?

The scores of mean and median for each subscale of the JDI were compared because mean is most frequently used and facilitates necessary statistical analysis (Hinkle, Wiersma, & Jurs, 1988), and median is recommended in the JDI user's manual (Balzer et al., 1990).

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and the Scheffe' multiple comparison test at the .05 level of significance were used to answer research question 3: What are the predictors of women university faculty's satisfaction with components of their jobs among selected demographic variables such as age, marital status, number of children in the home, institutional type (private or public, coeducational or women's, and religious or nonreligious), experience (in teaching, administration, and research), salary, highest academic degree earned and specialization in that degree, origin of academic degrees (in Korea or in Korea and overseas), teaching field, and academic rank?

A one-way ANOVA was used to determine if each of demographic group means for six subscales of the JDI differed significantly. For the test of one-way ANOVA,

the six subscales of the JDI were designated as dependent variables. When significant mean difference existed among the group means within a demographic variable, the demographic variable was determined as a predictor of job satisfaction. When a significant mean difference existed between two group means, the level of significance was retained as it was, because a one-way ANOVA for two groups is equivalent to a test for two independent samples (Hinkle et al., 1988).

When a significant mean difference existed among three or more group means, the Scheffe' multiple comparison test was used to make pairwise comparisons. The Scheffe' multiple comparison test was selected over other post hoc multiple comparison tests because the valid number for each group was unequal, and because it is the most conservative test (Hinkle et al., 1988; Norusis, 1988).

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

Introduction

Answers to the three research questions of this study were sought from analysis of the demographic information and the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) scores of the 280 subjects who responded. In order to determine the characteristics and job satisfaction levels of women university faculty in Seoul, modal scores of the demographic information and median scores of the JDI scale were used. A one-way ANOVA and the Scheffe' multiple comparison test were run at the .05 level of significance to determine the predictors of the women faculty's satisfaction with certain components of their jobs. A conservative level of significance was sought by examining the variances and sizes of paired groups.

Characteristics of Respondents

The first purpose of this study was to describe characteristics of women university faculty in Seoul. Typical characteristics of women faculty were drawn by using the modal demographic scores of the 280 respondents. Demographic items used in this study were age, marital status, number of children in the home, institutional type,

experience, salary, highest academic degree and specialization in that degree, origin of academic degrees, teaching field, and academic rank.

Age

The age range of women university faculty in Seoul is shown in Table 3. The largest group, 41.5%, were 41 to 50 years of age. The next largest groups, 27.1%, were 40 years or less, and 51 to 60 years.

Table 3

Distribution of Respondents by Age

Age	Frequency	Percent
40 or less	76	27.1
41 to 50	116	41.5
51 to 60	76	27.1
61 or over	12	4.3
Total	280	100.0

Marital Status

A majority, 84.7%, of the respondents, as shown in Table 4, were married. The single women faculty constituted 13.2% of the respondents.

Number of Children in the Home

Respondents' number of children in the home, shown in Table 5, varied from zero to five. The largest number of

Table 4

Distribution of Respondents by Marital Status

Marital Status	Frequency	Percent
Single	37	13.2
Married	237	84.7
Divorced	2	.7
Others	4	1.4
Total	280	100.0

respondents, 43.2%, had two children in the home. The number of respondents with zero and with one child in the home were also high, 20.4% and 20.7%, respectively.

Table 5

Distribution of Respondents by Number of Children in the Home

Number of Children	Frequency	Percent
None	57	20.4
One	58	20.7
Two	121	43.2
Three	40	14.3
Four	3	1.0
Five	1	.4
Total	280	100.0

Institutional Type

A majority, 90.7%, of the respondents, as shown in Table 6, were employed by private universities. Respondents were, however, evenly distributed in coeducational (58.6%) and women's (41.4%) universities, and in religious (53.2%) and nonreligious (46.4%) universities.

Table 6

Distribution of Respondents by Institutional Type

Value	Frequency	Percent
Private or Public		
Private	254	90.7
Public	25	8.9
Missing cases	1	.4
Total	280	100.0
Coeducational or Women's		
Coeducational	164	58.6
Women's	116	41.4
Total	280	100.0
Religious or Nonreligious		
Religious	149	53.2
Nonreligious	130	46.4
Missing cases	1	.4
Total	280	100.0

Experience

More than 42% of the respondents had 11 to 20 years of experience in teaching and administration in higher education institutions, and research in research institutes, as shown in Table 7.

Table 7

Distribution of Respondents by Experience

Number of Years	Frequency	Percent
10 or less	79	28.2
11 to 20	118	42.1
21 to 30	64	22.9
31 to 40	17	6.1
41 or over	2	.7
Total	280	100.0

Salary

Variations in the monthly salary of respondents are shown in Table 8. The largest number of respondents, 44.6%, earned monthly salaries of between 1.7 and 2.2 million won ($2,180 and $2,820).

Highest Academic Degree

More than 77% of the respondents held doctorates as their highest academic degree, as shown in Table 9.

Table 8

Distribution of Respondents by Salary

Amount of Monthly Salary	Frequency	Percent
1.6 million won or less	54	19.3
1.7 to 2.2 million won	125	44.6
2.3 to 2.8 million won	71	25.3
2.9 to 3.4 million won	22	7.9
3.5 million won or more	7	2.5
Missing cases	1	.4
Total	280	100.0

Note. In 1992, 780 won = $1.00.

Table 9

Distribution of Respondents by Highest Academic Degree

Degree	Frequency	Percent
Doctorate	216	77.1
Master's degree	62	22.1
Baccalaureate	1	.4
Others	1	.4
Total	280	100.0

Origin of Academic Degrees

The origin of respondents' academic degrees was evenly distributed, as shown in Table 10. A little more than 50% of the respondents earned degrees in Korea and 49.6% earned degrees both in Korea and overseas.

Table 10

Distribution of Respondents by Origin of Academic Degrees

Origin	Frequency	Percent
In Korea	141	50.4
In Korea & overseas	139	49.6
Total	280	100.0

Field of Specialization

The respondents' fields of specialization for their highest academic degrees were diverse, as shown in Table 11. The field reported most frequently, 18.9%, by respondents was languages and literature. This was followed by arts,

Table 11

Distribution of Respondents by Field of Specialization

Fields	Frequency	Percent
Languages & literature	53	18.9
Humanities	13	4.7
Social sciences	26	9.3
Natural sciences	23	8.2
Home economics	45	16.0
Education	18	6.5
Medicine & pharmacy	34	12.1
Nursing	20	7.2
Arts, music, & gymnastics	48	17.1
Total	280	100.0

music, and gymnastics, reported by 17.1% of the respondents, and home economics, reported by 16.0%.

Teaching Field

As shown in Table 12, 95.4% of the respondents taught in their fields of specialization.

Table 12

Distribution of Respondents by Teaching Field

Teaching Field	Frequency	Percent
Specialization	267	95.4
Others	13	4.6
Total	280	100.0

Academic Rank

The academic rank of respondents was distributed in what could be described as an inverted pyramid, as shown in Table 13. The largest percentage of respondents, 56.4%, held the rank of full professor. The next largest percentage of respondents, 27.9%, held the rank of associate professor.

Characteristics of Women Faculty at Universities in Seoul

Based on the demographic data gathered in this study, women university faculty in Seoul were 41 to 50 years of age, married, had two children in their homes, and held

Table 13

Distribution of Respondents by Academic Rank

Academic Rank	Frequency	Percent
Full professor	158	56.4
Associate professor	78	27.9
Assistant professor	37	13.2
Full-time instructor	7	2.5
Total	280	100.0

the rank of full professor at private, coeducational, or religious institutions. They had doctorates which were earned in Korea in the field of languages and literature, and earned monthly salaries of between 1.7 and 2.2 million won ($2,180 and $2,820). They had 11 to 20 years of experience in teaching in their field of specialization, administration in institutions of higher education, and research in research institutes.

Satisfaction Level with Job Components

The second purpose of this study was to determine women university faculty's satisfaction level with components of their jobs. The respondents' satisfaction with components of their jobs was analyzed using the median scores of six job components of the JDI scale in order to prevent a biased index of individual satisfaction that could be the result of using mean scores (Balzer et al., 1990). The possible

neutral point was a score of around 27, which was the middle of the possible range of scores, 0 to 54. Scores well above 27 were regarded as satisfaction and scores well below 27 were regarded as dissatisfaction (Balzer et al., 1990).

As shown in Table 14, median scores were higher than mean scores on the JDI scale. The respondents were most satisfied with their jobs in general, followed by their work, co-workers, pay, and supervision. The respondents were, however, neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with their opportunities for promotion. This response could be attributed to the modal academic rank, full professor, of the respondents.

Table 14

Means, Medians, and Standard Deviations for the JDI Scale

JDI Scale	N	Mean	Median	SD
Work	259	41.46	44.00	8.86
Pay	250	33.15	36.00	11.55
Promotion	250	27.19	27.00	10.01
Supervision	213	33.50	34.00	12.85
Co-workers	251	36.07	39.00	12.22
Job in general	254	43.10	45.00	10.10

Predictors of Satisfaction With Job Components

The third purpose of this study was to determine predictors of women university faculty's satisfaction with

components of their jobs among the selected demographic variables. The demographic variables were age, marital status, children in the home, institutional type, experience, salary, highest academic degree earned and specialization in that degree, origin of academic degrees, teaching field, and academic rank. The demographic variables were designated as independent variables. The job components were the six subscales of the JDI, which were designated as dependent variables. The variables were analyzed using a one-way ANOVA. When a significant difference was found among the group means at the .05 level, the Scheffe' multiple comparison test was run to examine the relationships of the groups. A conservative level of significance was sought and a liberal level of significance was rejected by examining the variances and sizes of paired groups.

Age

As shown in Table 15, no significant difference was found among the JDI mean scores of the women faculty in different age groups. Women faculty were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with their opportunities for promotion. Women faculty who were 61 years or older were more satisfied with their work, pay, and supervision than were women faculty in all other age groups.

Table 15

One-Way ANOVA for the JDI Scale by Age

JDI Scale	M of Age Group				p
	1	2	3	4	
Work	40.35	41.13	42.65	45.90	.177
Pay	33.57	33.59	31.31	36.80	.428
Promotion	28.76	26.87	26.60	22.60	.242
Supervision	31.58	34.76	32.96	36.78	.403
Co-workers	35.93	36.70	35.08	35.75	.867
Job in general	42.43	42.99	43.40	42.30	.550

Note. Group 1 = 40 or less, Group 2 = 41 to 50, Group 3 = 51 to 60, Group 4 = 61 or over. df = 3.

Marital Status

The marital status of women faculty, as shown in Table 16, was not a significant variable of job satisfaction. The single group and the married group were similarly satisfied with their work, pay, promotion, and their jobs in general.

Number of Children in the Home

The number of children in the home, as shown in Table 17, was not a significant variable in determining the job satisfaction of women faculty. Women faculty with four or five children in their homes were slightly more satisfied with their work, pay, and promotion than were other respondents. The response was not meaningful because the women faculty with four or five children consisted of only 1.5% of the respondents. Women faculty with no children

Table 16

One-Way ANOVA for the JDI Scale by Marital Status

JDI Scale	M of Marital Status Group				p
	1	2	3	4	
Work	42.65	41.22	46.50	42.00	.702
Pay	32.78	33.32	44.00	24.25	.344
Promotion	27.88	27.20	28.00	20.25	.561
Supervision	36.31	33.25	6.00	.00	.052
Co-workers	32.61	36.42	45.00	49.00	.171
Job in general	42.79	43.12	45.00	44.00	.990

Note. Group 1 = Single, Group 2 = Married, Group 3 = Divorced, Group 4 = Others. df = 3.

in their homes were slightly more satisfied with their work, pay, supervision, and their jobs in general than were women faculty with three children.

Table 17

One-Way ANOVA for the JDI Scale by Number of Children in the Home

JDI Scale	M of Number of Children Group						p
	None	One	Two	Three	Four	Five	
Work	43.71	41.14	41.30	38.56	46.00	47.00	.144
Pay	34.38	31.85	33.53	31.32	48.00	48.00	.357
Promotion	26.64	28.13	26.87	26.58	38.00	38.00	.509
Supervision	36.92	31.02	33 83	31.97	15.00	43.00	.185
Co-workers	34.91	34.52	37.34	35.86	28.50	43.00	.618
Job in general	43.68	42.55	44.03	40.06	42.00	49.00	.440

Note. df = 5.

Private or Public Institutional Type

As shown in Table 18, the one-way ANOVA test revealed that private or public institutional type was a predictor of the work satisfaction and pay satisfaction of women faculty. Women faculty at public universities (*n* = 24, *M* = 45.50, *SD* = 4.90) were significantly more satisfied with their work than were their counterparts at private universities (*n* = 234, *M* = 41.09, *SD* = 9.07), at the .05 level. Although the numbers of the two groups were not comparable, there was no threat to retain the .05 level of significance. The test for homogeneity of variance was significant. Further, the larger variance was associated with the larger group and the smaller variance was associated with the smaller group (Hinkle et al., 1988).

Table 18

One-Way ANOVA for the JDI Scale by Private or Public Institutional Type

JDI Scale	*M* of Institution Group		*p*
	Private	Public	
Work	41.09	45.50	.020*
Pay	33.95	26.42	.002*
Promotion	27.02	28.79	.413
Supervision	33.07	37.60	.134
Co-workers	35.98	36.87	.740
Job in general	42.77	46.29	.103

Note. *df* = 1. *Denotes significance at .05 level.

The responses indicated that faculty at public universities enjoyed academic freedom more than their counterparts at private universities because they were public officials rather than employees of the institutions.

Women faculty at private universities (n = 225, M = 33.95, SD = 11.01) were significantly more satisfied with their pay than were their counterparts at public universities (n = 24, M = 26.42, SD = 14.04), at the .005 level. Although the test for homogeneity of variance was significant, the level of significance was lowered from .005 to .01, because the larger variance was associated with the smaller group and the smaller variance was associated with the larger group (Hinkle et al., 1988). It can also be assumed that women faculty at private universities were paid more than were their counterparts at public universities.

Coeducational or Women's Institutional Type

As shown in Table 19, women faculty in coeducational universities were more satisfied with all components of their jobs than were their counterparts in women's universities, but not at a significant level.

Religious or Nonreligious Institutional Type

As shown in Table 20, women faculty in religious universities were slightly more satisfied with their pay than were their counterparts in nonreligious universities.

Table 19

One-Way ANOVA for the JDI Scale by Coeducational or Women's Institutional Type

JDI Scale	M of Institution Group		p
	Coeducational	Women's	
Work	41.71	41.08	.574
Pay	33.57	32.53	.488
Promotion	27.80	26.25	.235
Supervision	34.54	31.93	.147
Co-workers	36.83	34.88	.217
Job in general	43.62	42.34	.323

Note. df = 1.

Religious affiliation of an institution was not a predictor of the job satisfaction level of women faculty.

Table 20

One-Way ANOVA for the JDI Scale by Religious or Nonreligious Institutional Type

JDI Scale	M of Institution Group		p
	Religious	Nonreligious	
Work	41.04	42.00	.388
Pay	34.50	31.86	.071
Promotion	26.83	27.58	.560
Supervision	33.49	33.50	.994
Co-workers	35.67	36.49	.599
Job in general	42.70	43.54	.510

Note. df = 1.

Experience

As shown in Table 21, length of experience in teaching and administration in institutions of higher education, and research in research institutes was not a predictor of the job satisfaction of women faculty.

Table 21

One-Way ANOVA for the JDI Scale by Experience

JDI Scale	M of Experience Group				p
	1	2	3	4	
Work	41.24	40.69	42.18	41.82	.788
Pay	33.55	32.14	34.35	32.44	.689
Promotion	27.72	26.65	28.92	22.19	.110
Supervision	32.97	32.64	35.24	35.47	.646
Co-workers	36.29	35.88	36.30	32.27	.701
Job in general	42.77	42.32	44.41	43.29	.691

Note. Group 1 = 10 years or less, Group 2 = 11 to 20 years, Group 3 = 21 to 30 years, Group 4 = 31 years or over. df = 3.

Salary

As shown in Table 22, salary was not a predictor of the job satisfaction level of women faculty. Women faculty who earned 2.9 to 3.4 million won ($3,718 to $4,359) were slightly more satisfied with their work, pay, supervision, and their jobs in general than were women faculty in all other salary groups. Women faculty who earned 3.4 million won or more were, on the contrary, slightly less satisfied

with their work, pay, promotion, co-workers, and their jobs in general than were women faculty in any other salary groups. Thus, it seems apparent that higher pay did not result in higher satisfaction with pay.

Table 22

One-Way ANOVA for the JDI Scale by Salary

JDI Scale	M of Monthly Salary Group					p
	1	2	3	4	5	
Work	40.20	41.76	40.98	44.67	39.67	.365
Pay	29.24	34.65	32.91	35.58	29.33	.054
Promotion	27.75	26.72	27.44	27.47	26.00	.970
Supervision	34.96	32.96	31.44	37.88	32.33	.435
Co-workers	36.33	36.52	34.98	34.94	34.57	.929
Job in general	40.90	43.36	43.90	45.86	39.57	.258

Note. Group 1 = 1.6 or less, Group 2 = 1.7 to 2.2, Group 3 = 2.3 to 2.8, Group 4 = 2.9 to 3.4, Group 5 = 3.5 or more (unit = million won). df = 4.

Highest Academic Degree

As shown in Table 23, highest academic degree was not a predictor of the job satisfaction level of women faculty. Women faculty who earned baccalaureates or degrees other than doctorates, master's, and baccalaureates as their highest degrees were slightly more satisfied with their work, co-workers, and their jobs in general than were women faculty in the other two groups.

Table 23

One-Way ANOVA for the JDI Scale by Highest Academic Degree

JDI Scale	M of Degree Group				p
	1	2	3	4	
Work	41.14	42.37	45.00	49.00	.630
Pay	33.11	33.32	32.00	32.00	.998
Promotion	26.81	28.54	22.00	30.00	.657
Supervision	33.20	34.20	47.00	33.00	.722
Co-workers	35.54	37.55	41.00	45.00	.603
Job in general	42.67	44.45	48.00	47.00	.630

Note. Group 1 = Doctorate, Group 2 = Master's Degree, Group 3 = Baccalaureate, Group 4 = Others. df = 3.

Origin of Academic Degrees

The one-way ANOVA test revealed that origin of academic degrees was a predictor of women faculty's work satisfaction. As shown in Table 24, women faculty who earned degrees in Korea and overseas (n = 127, M = 43.12, SD= 7.78) were significantly more satisfied with their work than were women faculty who earned degrees in Korea (n = 132, M = 39.86, SD = 9.56), at the .005 level. This significance may be attributable to the perception of Korean faculty members that those who have earned degrees in Korea and overseas tend to have different views toward work than do their counterparts.

Table 24

One-Way ANOVA for the JDI Scale by Origin of Academic Degrees

JDI Scale	M of Origin of Degrees		p
	In Korea	In Korea & Overseas	
Work	39.86	43.12	.003*
Pay	32.19	34.15	.181
Promotion	27.31	27.06	.839
Supervision	32.91	34.16	.495
Co-workers	35.83	36.24	.792
Job in general	41.91	44.31	.576

Note. df = 1. *Denotes significance at .005 level.

Field of Specialization

The one-way ANOVA test revealed that respondents' field of specialization for their highest academic degree, as shown in Table 25, was a predictor of satisfaction with their work and their jobs in general, at the .05 level. The Scheffe' multiple comparison test was run to make pairwise comparisons of the group means for the two job components. The four pairs of group means for work satisfaction were found at different levels of significance, as shown in Table 26. Women faculty in humanities (n = 13, M = 45.77, SD = 6.33) were significantly more satisfied with their work than were women faculty in medicine and pharmacy (n = 31, M = 33.65, SD = 7.38), at the .05 level. Women faculty in arts, music, and gymnastics (n = 43, M = 42.74,

Table 25

One-Way ANOVA for the JDI Scale by Field of Specialization

JDI Scale	M of Specialization Group									p
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Work	43.42	45.77	38.57	42.60	42.67	41.82	33.65	42.40	42.74	.000*
Pay	31.82	36.50	36.52	35.19	33.15	33.81	31.81	31.13	34.50	.594
Promotion	27.39	26.77	26.48	26.53	29.60	27.69	24.03	29.90	26.39	.495
Supervision	36.86	37.00	29.47	32.13	32.57	35.08	30.17	34.95	34.17	.439
Co-workers	36.75	38.15	31.26	37.38	38.95	38.19	34.32	33.60	35.24	.364
Job in general	42.24	47.38	40.70	42.53	45.55	44.29	36.25	46.10	45.37	.001*

Note. Group 1 = Languages & Literature, Group 2 = Humanities, Group 3 = Social Sciences, Group 4 = Natural Sciences, Group 5 = Home Economics, Group 6 = Education, Group 7 = Medicine & Pharmacy, Group 8 = Nursing, Group 9 = Music, Arts, & Gymnastics. df = 8. *Denotes significance at .05 level.

Table 26

Scheffe' Multiple Comparison of the JDI Work Scores by Field of Specialization

Mean	Group	7	3	6	8	4	5	9	1	2
33.6452	7									
38.5652	3									
41.8235	6									
42.4000	8									
42.6000	4									
42.6667	5	**								
42.7442	9	**								
43.4200	1	***								
45.7692	2	*								

Note. Group 1 = Languages & Literature, Group 2 = Humanities, Group 3 = Social Sciences, Group 4 = Natural Sciences, Group 5 = Home Economics, Group 6 = Education, Group 7 = Medicine & Pharmacy, Group 8 = Nursing, Group 9 = Arts, Music, & Gymnastics. *Denotes pair of group means significantly different at .05 level. **Denotes pair of group means significantly different at .01 level. ***Denotes pair of group means significantly different at .005 level.

SD = 8.72) were significantly more satisfied with their work than were women faculty in medicine and pharmacy (n = 31, M = 33.65, SD = 7.38), at the .01 level.

Women faculty in languages and literature (n = 50, M = 43.42, SD = 6.10) were significantly more satisfied with their work than were women faculty in medicine and pharmacy (n = 31, M = 33.65, SD = 7.38), at the .005 level. Women faculty in home economics (n = 42, M = 42.67, SD = 7.25) were significantly more satisfied with their work than were women faculty in medicine and pharmacy (n = 31,

M = 33.65, SD = 7.38), at the .01 level. The significance levels of these two paired groups were, however, lowered from the .005 level and the .01 level to the .01 level and .05 level, respectively. The larger variance was associated with the smaller group, and the smaller variance was associated with the larger group. Thus, in comparison with the satisfaction levels of women faculty in medicine and pharmacy, women faculty in languages and literature were significantly more satisfied at the .01 level, and women faculty in home economics were significantly more satisfied at the .05 level.

The responses may be attributable to three assumptions: First, women faculty in medicine were loaded with heavy schedules day and night for teaching, medical practice, and emergencies. Their work load was much heavier than that of faculty in all other fields. Second, they experienced greater role conflict than did their counterparts in all other fields. Third, women faculty in medicine and pharmacy were limited in their ability to conduct scholarly activities due to shortages in equipment and research funds.

The one-way ANOVA test at the .05 level revealed significant difference among the mean scores on job in general based on respondents' different fields of specialization. The Scheffe' multiple comparison test revealed that women faculty in home economics (n = 40, M = 45.55, SD = 8.34) were significantly more satisfied with

their jobs in general than were their counterparts in medicine and pharmacy (n = 32, M = 36.25, SD = 11.92), at the .05 level (see Table 27). Although the test for homogeneity of variance was significant, the .05 level of significance was rejected. The larger variance was associated with the smaller group, and the smaller variance was associated with the larger group.

Table 27

Scheffe' Multiple Comparison of the JDI Job in General Scores by Field of Specialization

Mean	Group	7	3	1	4	6	9	5	8	2
36.2500	7									
40.6957	3									
42.2449	1									
42.5263	4									
44.2941	6									
45.3659	9									
45.5500	5	*								
46.1000	8									
47.3846	2									

Note. Group 1 = Languages and Literature, Group 2 = Humanities, Group 3 = Social Sciences, Group 4 = Natural Sciences, Group 5 = Home Economics, Group 6 = Education, Group 7 = Medicine & Pharmacy, Group 8 = Nursing, Group 9 = Arts, Music, & Gymnastics. *Denotes pair of group means significantly different at .05 level.

Teaching Field

As indicated in Table 28, women faculty who taught in their fields of specialization were not significantly different from women faculty who taught in other fields.

Table 28

One-Way ANOVA for the JDI Scale by Teaching Field

JDI Scale	M of Teaching Field		p
	Specialization	Others	
Work	41.40	41.58	.652
Pay	32.99	37.00	.283
Promotion	27.20	26.80	.901
Supervision	33.33	36.90	.393
Co-workers	35.96	37.73	.640
Job in general	43.14	42.25	.767

Note. df = 1.

Academic Rank

As shown in Table 29, a significant difference was found among the mean scores of work based on different academic rank using a one-way ANOVA, at the .05 level. The Scheffe' multiple comparison test revealed that, as shown in Table 30, women faculty who were ranked as full professors (n = 142, M = 42.46, SD =7.33) were significantly more satisfied with their work than were women faculty who were ranked as assistant professors (n = 35, M = 35.69, SD = 12.02), at the .001 level. The .001 level of significance was lowered to the .005 level because of the too-liberal association of variances and group sizes.

Women faculty who were ranked as associate professors (n = 75, M = 41.88, SD = 9.08) were significantly more satisfied with their work than were women faculty who were

Table 29

One-Way ANOVA for the JDI Scale by Academic Rank

JDI Scale	M of Academic Rank Group				p
	1	2	3	4	
Work	42.46	41.88	35.69	45.29	.000*
Pay	34.44	31.27	32.51	32.00	.281
Promotion	27.58	27.48	24.92	28.29	.538
Supervision	34.55	32.30	31.48	38.57	.365
Co-workers	35.20	37.27	35.47	43.00	.334
Job in general	43.56	43.80	39.29	45.57	.108

Note. Group 1 = Professor, 2 = Associate Professor, Group 3 = Assistant Professor, Group 4 = Full-time Instructor. df = 3. *Denotes significance at .05 level.

Table 30

Scheffe' Multiple Comparison of the JDI Work Scores by Academic Rank

Mean	Group	3	2	1	4
35.6857	3				
41.8800	2	*			
42.4648	1	**			
45.2857	4				

Note. Group 1 = Full Professor, Group 2 = Associate Professor, Group 3 = Assistant Professor, Group 4 = Full-time Instructor. df = 3. *Denotes pair of group means significantly different at .01 level. **Denotes pair of group means significantly different at .001 level.

ranked as assistant professors (n = 35, M = 35.69, SD = 12.02), at the .01 level. The .01 level of significance was also lowered to the .05 level because of

the too-liberal association of variances and group sizes. It was assumed that the work load of women assistant professors was heavier than was the work load of women faculty at all other ranks.

Women faculty who were ranked as assistant professors were slightly less satisfied with their work, supervision, and their jobs in general than were women faculty at all other ranks. In addition, they were not satisfied with their opportunities for promotion.

Additional Findings

Valid cases for the supervision subscale were lower, by about 40 cases, than were those for other subscales. Comments from 24 respondents seemed to provide the attribution to the large omission on supervision: Eleven respondents stated, "No supervision exists in higher education." Thirteen respondents inquired, "Which administrator? Chairperson, dean, president, or seniors?" These comments may be attributable to Korean faculty's perceptions that academe should be participative and not bureaucratic governance, and that faculty do not recognize the existence of bureaucracy in higher education administration (Shin, 1991).

Summary

To determine the characteristics and the job satisfaction levels of women university faculty in Seoul,

modal scores and median scores were used, respectively. The typical women university faculty in Seoul were 41 to 50 years of age, married, had two children in their homes, and held the rank of full professor at private, coeducational, and religious institutions. They had doctorates which were earned in Korea in the field of languages and literature, and earned monthly salaries of between 1.7 and 2.2 million won ($2,180 and $2,820). They had 11 to 20 years of teaching experience in their fields of specialization, administration experience in institutions of higher education, and research experience in research institutes.

Women faculty were moderately satisfied with their work, pay, supervision, co-workers, and their jobs in general. They were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with their opportunities for promotion.

The following predictors of the women faculty's satisfaction with certain job components were determined by using a one-way ANOVA, at the .05 level: First, the predictors of work satisfaction were private or public institutional type, origin of academic degrees, field of specialization in highest academic degree, and academic rank. Second, the predictor of pay satisfaction was private or public institutional type.

Further, the following nine relationships were found among the predictors using the one-way ANOVA test and the Scheffe' multiple comparison test: First, women faculty at

public universities were more satisfied with their work than were women faculty at private universities, at the .05 level. Second, women faculty at private universities were more satisfied with their pay than were their counterparts at public universities, at the .01 level. Third, women faculty who earned academic degrees in Korea and overseas were more satisfied with their work than were their counterparts who earned academic degrees in Korea, at the .005 level. Fourth, women faculty in languages and literature were more satisfied with their work than were their counterparts in medicine and pharmacy, at the .01 level. Fifth, women faculty in arts, music, and gymnastics were more satisfied with their work than were their counterparts in medicine and pharmacy, at the .01 level. Sixth, women faculty in humanities were more satisfied with their work than were their counterparts in medicine and pharmacy, at the .05 level. Seventh, women faculty in home economics were more satisfied with their work than were their counterparts in medicine and pharmacy, at the .05 level. Eighth, women faculty who were ranked as full professors were more satisfied with their work than were their counterparts at who were ranked as assistant professors, at the .005 level. Ninth, women faculty who were ranked as associate professors were more satisfied with their work than were their counterparts who were ranked as assistant professors, at the .05 level.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter contains a summary of this study, and discussion and conclusions generated from the findings. Implications of this study and recommendations for future research are also included.

Summary

This study was designed to (a) describe the characteristics of women faculty at universities in Seoul, Republic of Korea, (b) determine the satisfaction level of women faculty with components of their jobs, and (c) determine the predictors of women faculty's satisfaction with components of their jobs among selected demographic variables. The limited amount of Korean faculty's job satisfaction literature available was supplemented with literature concerning the status of women faculty in Korea and the U.S., job satisfaction, and the predictors of faculty's job satisfaction.

The subjects of this study were 320 women faculty who were selected from the 1,157 Korean full-time women faculty at the 25 universities in Seoul. Of the 320 subjects, 87.5% or 280 completed two instruments: the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) and a faculty demographic data sheet (Appendix A).

Modal scores of the demographic data and median scores of the JDI scale were used to determine the characteristics of women faculty and their satisfaction with components of their jobs, respectively. A one-way ANOVA was used to determine the predictors of women faculty's satisfaction with components of their jobs. In addition, the Scheffe' multiple comparison test was run to examine the level of significance between paired group means when significant mean difference was found.

The findings, based on the analyses of this study, were as follow:

1. The typical woman university faculty in Seoul was 41 to 50 years of age, married, had two children in her home, and held the rank of full professor at a private, coeducational, or religious institution. She had a doctorate which was earned in Korea in the field of languages and literature, and earned a monthly salary of between 1.7 and 2.2 million won ($2,180 and $2,820). She had a total of 11 to 20 years of experience in teaching in her field of specialization, administration in institutions of higher education, and research in research institutes.

2. Women faculty were moderately satisfied with their work, pay, supervision, co-workers, and their jobs in general. They were, however, neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with their opportunities for promotion.

3. The predictors for women faculty's work satisfaction were private or public institutional type, origin of academic degrees, field of specialization in highest academic degree, and academic rank. The predictor of pay satisfaction was private or public institutional type. Among the predictors and job components, the following relationships were found: (a) Women faculty at public universities were more satisfied with their work than were women faculty at private universities; (b) women faculty who earned academic degrees in Korea and overseas were more satisfied with their work than were their counterparts who earned academic degrees only in Korea; (c) women faculty in humanities, languages and literature, home economics, arts, music, and gymnastics were more satisfied with their work than were their counterparts in medicine and pharmacy; (d) women faculty who were full professors or associate professors were more satisfied with their work than were women faculty who were assistant professors; and, concerning pay satisfaction, (e) women faculty at private universities were more satisfied with their pay than were their counterparts at public universities.

Discussion

The findings of this study are compared with studies that primarily dealt with women university faculty in Korea, the U.S., and other countries. This comparison is based on

research indicating that the variables of gender and environment, such as institutional type, significantly affect job satisfaction (Campbell, Converse, & Rodgers, 1976; Spencer, White, Peterson, & Cameron, 1989; Weaver, 1978).

Characteristics of Respondents

The first purpose of this study was to describe the characteristics of women university faculty in Seoul. The findings indicate that women comprise 14.6% of the 7,924 total full-time university faculty members in Seoul. The percentage of women faculty reported in this study is consistent with the National Institute of Educational Evaluation's (1990) report that women represent 13.8% of the 32,281 total full-time faculty members. The percentage of full-time women faculty in Korea, 13.8%, is one-half that of full-time women faculty in the U.S., 28.3% (American Council on Education, 1989).

The finding of this study on the modal age of full-time women university faculty in Seoul, 41 to 50, is consistent with that of studies by Lee (1985) and Shin (1981). The finding is also consistent with the modal age of U.S. full-time women faculty reported by the American Council on Education (1989). The largest number of women university faculty in Seoul are married and have two children in their homes. These findings are consistent with those of a study by Shin (1981). In a study of U.S. women faculty by Benoit

(1976), similar findings were reported on the marital status--married, but different findings were reported on the number of children--none.

This study revealed that women faculty are substantially underrepresented at public and coeducational universities. More than 40% of women faculty are employed by 6 women's universities, whereas almost 60% are employed by 19 coeducational universities. In addition, women faculty represent 5.6% of the total full-time faculty members at public universities, whereas women faculty represent 17.1% of the total at private universities. This finding supports research by Yu-Tull (1983), who found that discrimination was practiced against women in academe, especially in the process of hiring. This finding refutes research by Shin (1981), whose findings indicated that gender equality was practiced in academe. This finding is different from that of Donohue (1983), who reported that 60% of U.S. women faculty were employed by public institutions.

This research revealed the religious affiliation of universities in Seoul, which has not previously been the focus of researchers. More than one-half of the universities in Seoul are directly or indirectly affiliated with Christianity, Buddhism, Confucianism, or other religions.

The finding that women faculty have 11 to 20 years of experience is different from the findings of Balazadeh

(1981), Benoit (1976), Lee (1985), and Shin (1981), who reported the modal years of experience as less than 10 years. Difference may be attributed to the fact that this study included only university faculty members, whereas the studies by Lee and Shin included faculty at both universities and colleges.

The modal salary of women faculty in this study is 1.7 to 2.2 million won ($2,180 to $2,820). The women faculty in this study who reported high salaries are older and are engaged in medicine and religion. No other study of Korean women faculty's salary was located.

Results of this study indicate that a majority of women faculty hold doctorates, whereas studies by Benoit (1976), Donohue (1983), Lee (1985), and Shin (1981) revealed master's degrees as highest degrees held by women faculty. The findings of this study indicate that a woman needs to have a doctorate to become a full-time university faculty in Seoul. One-half of the women faculty in this study earned academic degrees overseas, whereas a study by the National Institute of Educational Evaluation (1990) revealed that 15% of women faculty earned degrees overseas. Based on the findings of this study, it is evident that more women university faculty in Seoul than Korean women faculty nationwide have earned their degrees overseas.

The modal field of specialization for women university faculty in Seoul is languages and literature. This finding

is skewed by the fact that one of the universities specializes in languages and literature. The next largest percentage of women university faculty in Seoul are engaged in home economics. This finding, which is consistent with the research findings of Kim (1975), Lee (1985), and Shin (1981), seems to suggest that women university faculty in Seoul hold traditional gender views. This finding is somewhat similar to the findings of Benoit (1976) who reported that the modal field of U.S. women faculty was humanities.

The findings of this study indicate that most women university faculty in Seoul teach in their fields of specialization. However, the number of women faculty who teach in fields other than their fields of specialization is probably larger among part-time women faculty than full-time women faculty in Seoul.

The findings of this study, that the modal academic rank of women university faculty in Seoul is full professor, are different from those of studies by Lee (1985) and Shin (1981). A study by Lee indicated that the modal rank of women faculty in Seoul was assistant professor, whereas a study by Shin revealed that the modal rank of Korean women faculty nationwide was full professor and assistant professor. Differences are attributed to the fact that more than 60% of the women ranked as full professors are concentrated in Seoul (National Institute of Educational

Evaluation, 1990). This finding is also different from the findings of Balazadeh (1981), Benoit (1976), and Donohue (1983), who found that the modal rank of U.S. women faculty was assistant professor.

Satisfaction Level of Respondents With Components of Their Jobs

The second purpose of this study was to determine the satisfaction level of women faculty with components of their jobs. The findings indicate that women university faculty in Seoul are satisfied with their work, pay, supervision, co-workers, and their jobs in general. They are, however, neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with their promotion.

A comparison of the findings of this study and those of a study of U.S. women university faculty in the midwestern region by Balazadeh (1981) indicates that the levels of work and pay satisfaction for Korean women faculty ($\underline{M}$ = 41.46, $\underline{M}$ = 33.15) and for U.S. women faculty ($\underline{M}$ = 41.75, $\underline{M}$ = 33.14) are similar. The satisfaction levels of promotion, supervision, and co-workers for Korean women faculty ($\underline{M}$ = 27.19, $\underline{M}$ = 33.50, $\underline{M}$ = 36.07) are, however, lower than are those for U.S. women faculty ($\underline{M}$ = 33.79, $\underline{M}$ = 41.58, $\underline{M}$ = 39.18).

A comparison of the findings of this study and those of a study of Jordanian women faculty by Tanash (1987) indicates that the satisfaction levels of work, pay, promotion, supervision, co-workers, and job in general

for Korean women faculty (M = 41.46, M = 33.15, M = 27.19, M = 33.50, M = 36.07, M = 43.10) are higher than are those for Jordanian women faculty (M = 32.6, M = 31.9, M = 22.8, M = 28.7, M = 27.4, M = 38.0). A comparison of the three studies reveals that U.S. women faculty, followed by Korean women faculty, are more satisfied with components of their jobs than are Jordanian women faculty.

The findings of this study on work and pay satisfaction seem to be consistent with previous research by Cheong (1982), which indicated that Korean women faculty had strong pride in their professions, even though they earned less than other professional women. The findings are, however, different from those of a study by the Gyosu Shinmoon (Staff, 1992, April 15), which revealed that Korean faculty were satisfied with their work but not with their pay. Difference can be attributed to previous research findings which indicate that women tend to be more satisfied with their work and pay than do men (Campbell et al., 1976; Hulin & Smith, 1964; Lawler, 1971; Pritchard et al., 1972).

Concerning satisfaction with their jobs in general, the findings of this study are consistent with those of Shin (1981), who found that Korean women faculty were moderately to highly satisfied with their jobs. Shin suggested that one of the attributions for women faculty's job satisfaction was the social status provided. Results of a study by the Gyosu Shinmoon (Staff, 1992, April 15) revealed that the job

satisfaction of only 7.6% of Korean faculty was attributed to social status, and that the job satisfaction of the majority of Korean faculty was attributed to the nature of their work. The fact that a low percentage, 7.6%, of faculty attributed their job satisfaction to social status seemed to be related to the low percentage, 9.8%, of women in the study. Research findings imply that the social status of the professoriate affects the job satisfaction of women faculty more than that of men faculty.

The findings of this study indicate that women faculty are neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with their opportunities for promotion. This finding can be viewed from five different perspectives: First, promotion satisfaction is irrelevant to Korean faculty because a tenure status is not applied to the professoriate in Korea (Jeong, 1992) and because more than one-half of the respondents in the present study were ranked as full professor. Second, Korean women faculty have a low need for promotion in order to maintain their priority of maintaining family life (Cheong, 1982; Shin, 1981). This perspective is true of a number of U.S. women (Locke, 1976). Third, the amount of women faculty in scholastic performance is less than is that of men (Shin, 1981). Fourth, women faculty are not satisfied with promotions because discrimination against women is practiced in the promotion process (Yu-Tull, 1983). This perspective, however, refutes research by Shin (1981),

who found that a majority of women faculty believed gender equalities were evident in promotions. Fifth, Korean women faculty are less competitive with their male colleagues for promotions than are U.S. women faculty with their male colleagues (Moon, 1992). The findings of this study are consistent with studies of U.S. women faculty, which have revealed that women faculty were not as satisfied with promotion as were their male colleagues (Fedler et al., 1983; Schaible & Russell, 1989).

Predictors of Respondents' Satisfaction With Components of Their Jobs

The third purpose of this study was to determine predictors of satisfaction with job components of women university faculty in Seoul. The one-way ANOVA test indicated that age is positively related to respondents' work satisfaction, but not at a significant level. This finding is somewhat consistent with research by Shin (1981), which revealed that age and job satisfaction were correlated but not at a significant level. This finding is different from the results of a study by Donohue (1983), who found that age was a predictor of pay and supervision satisfaction for U.S. nursing faculty.

Although earlier research (Astin, 1969; Koreman & Neumark, 1991; Simeone, 1987) revealed that marriage was less beneficial to the careers of women than of men, this study indicates that marital status is not a predictor of

job satisfaction for women university faculty in Seoul. The findings of this study refute research by Benoit (1976), Clark and Corcoran (1986), Jeong (1987), Simeone (1987), and Sudsawasd (1980). This finding also refutes research findings of Kazal-Thresher (1990), who reported that marital status was both a negative and positive variable of faculty's job satisfaction. This finding may be attributable to the fact that married women faculty and single women faculty do not differ in terms of their activities--teaching, research, and housework (Shin, 1981).

This study revealed that women faculty with no children in their homes are slightly more satisfied with their work, pay, supervision, and their jobs in general than are women faculty with three children in their homes. Number of children in the home, however, does not appear to be a predictor of the job satisfaction of women university faculty in Seoul. This finding is somewhat contrary to earlier indications in the literature that Korean women faculty have strong sense of obligation as nurturers and helpmates, and that their obligations to their children do not seem to affect their professional activities. This finding may be attributable to the fact that Korean women faculty have housemaids, mothers, and mothers-in-law who take care of their children and housework (Shin, 1981). This finding supports research by Morgenstern and Hamovitch (1977), Reiss (1983), and Tosti-Vasey (1987).

Private or public institutional type appears to be a predictor of work and pay satisfaction for women university faculty in Seoul. Significantly higher work satisfaction was reported by women faculty employed by public universities, whereas significantly higher pay satisfaction was reported by women faculty employed by private universities. These results support earlier research findings that pay tends to affect job satisfaction less for women than for men (Hulin, 1966; Hulin & Smith, 1964; Lawler, 1971). These findings are different from those of Donohue's (1983) study of U.S. nursing faculty, in which private or public institutional type was not a predictor. Results of a study by Chamberlain (1988), on the contrary, implied that institutional type was a predictor of women faculty's job satisfaction. Chamberlain found that U.S. women faculty earned much lower salaries than did U.S. men faculty at private institutions.

The findings of this study revealed that women faculty in coeducational and religious universities are more satisfied with all components of their jobs than are their counterparts in women's and nonreligious universities, but not at a significant level. Results of previous research, however, revealed that the job satisfaction of women faculty differs by institutional type. U.S. women faculty in research and doctoral-granting universities reported low levels of job satisfaction (Ethington, Smart,

& Zeltmann, 1989), but women faculty in women's institutions were more satisfied with their pay and promotion (Hill, 1983).

It appears that experience in teaching, administration, and research do not affect the job satisfaction of women university faculty in Seoul. The findings of this study support research by Donohue (1983) on the satisfaction of U.S. nursing faculty with their work, supervision, and co-workers, but refute her findings on pay and promotion. The findings also refute the results of research by Pacheco (1981), who reported that Puerto Rican women faculty with more than 21 years of experience were more satisfied with their jobs than were women faculty with less than 21 years of experience.

This study revealed that women faculty who earn 2.9 to 3.4 million won ($3,718 to $4,359) are slightly more satisfied with their work, pay, supervision, and their jobs in general than are women faculty in other salary groups. Women faculty who earn 3.4 million won or more are slightly less satisfied with their work, pay, promotion, co-workers, and their jobs in general than are women faculty who earn less than 3.4 million won. Salary, however, does not appear to be a predictor of women faculty's job satisfaction. This finding confirms previous research that pay dissatisfaction and turnover are less correlated for women than for men (Astin, 1969; Hulin, 1966; Hulin & Smith,

1964). This finding also confirms research findings that overpayment does not lead to satisfaction with pay (Pritchard et al., 1972).

The finding that highest academic degree is not a predictor of the job satisfaction of women university faculty in Seoul supports research by Donohue (1983) on work, pay, promotion, and co-workers, but refutes her findings on supervision. A study by Donohue revealed that the highest academic degree of women faculty was a negative predictor of supervision satisfaction. This finding also refutes research by Benoit (1976), Shin (1981), and Sudsawasd (1980), who found that the job satisfaction of women faculty was positively correlated with their highest academic degree.

The one-way ANOVA test revealed that women faculty who earned academic degrees in Korea and overseas are significantly more satisfied with their work than are their counterparts who earned degrees only in Korea. This finding seems consistent with research by Yu-Tull (1983), which indicated that Korean faculty who were exposed to overseas education had different views toward their jobs than did their counterparts. This finding is different from the results of studies on Thai faculty (Pasuwan, 1972) and Jordanian faculty (Tanash, 1987), which revealed that the origin of academic degrees does not affect faculty's job

satisfaction. No U.S. studies concerning origin of academic degrees were located.

The findings of this study indicate that a significantly higher level of work satisfaction is held by women faculty in humanities, languages and literature, home economics, arts, music, and gymnastics than by women faculty in medicine and pharmacy. The findings also indicate that women faculty in home economics are more satisfied with their jobs in general than are women faculty in medicine and pharmacy but not at a significant level. The findings are attributable to three assumptions: First, women faculty in medicine are loaded with heavier schedules than are women faculty in all other fields. Second, women faculty in medicine experience greater role conflicts than do women faculty in all other fields. Third, women faculty in medicine and pharmacy are limited in their ability to conduct scholarly activities due to shortages in equipment and research funds. Research has revealed that U.S. women faculty had less access to networks, funding gatekeepers, prestigious conferences, and research opportunities (Clark & Corcoran, 1986).

The findings of this study on field of specialization are consistent with the results of a study on U.S. men and women faculty. Wissman (1988) found that women faculty in male-dominated fields were less satisfied with their work than were their male counterparts. These findings are,

however, different from those of studies on U.S. women faculty. Hill (1983) also found that women faculty in health sciences were more satisfied with their jobs than were women faculty in all other fields. Balazadeh (1981) noted that women faculty in arts and the male-dominated fields of business and engineering were more satisfied with their jobs than were their counterparts in all other fields. Benoit (1976), however, reported that women faculty in home economics were less satisfied with their jobs than were their female colleagues in medical fields. Benoit also found that women faculty in arts and business were less satisfied with their jobs than were women faculty in all other fields.

The teaching field of women faculty, regardless of whether it is their field of specialization or not, does not appear to affect their level of job satisfaction. No studies were available for comparison with this finding.

The one-way ANOVA test revealed that academic rank is a predictor of work satisfaction for women faculty. The Scheffe' multiple comparison test indicated that full professors are more satisfied with their work than are assistant professors. It can be assumed that the work load of women faculty ranked as assistant professors is heavier than is the work load of women faculty at all other ranks.

This finding supports studies of Korean faculty by the Gyosu Shinmoon (Staff, 1992, April 15) and Shin (1981),

and studies of U.S. women faculty by Balazadeh (1981), Benoit (1976), Harrington (1980), and Hill (1983). This finding, however, refutes the results of studies by Donohue (1983) and Bowen (1980), which revealed no relationship between job satisfaction and academic rank. The findings of this study also revealed that associate professors are more satisfied with their work than are assistant professors. This finding is contrary to the findings of Benoit (1976).

Conclusions

Based on the findings of this study, the following conclusions are generated:

1. Full-time women university faculty in Seoul are satisfied overall with such components of their jobs as work, pay, supervision, co-workers, and job in general, and apparently do not consider opportunities for promotion to be a factor in job satisfaction.

2. Demographic variables of private or public institutional type, field of specialization in highest academic degree, origin of academic degrees, and academic rank affect the job satisfaction levels of full-time women university faculty in Seoul.

3. Full-time women university faculty in Seoul may be satisfied with their jobs for the social status rather than for the nature of the work.

4. Demographic variables of age, marital status, number of children in the home, coeducational institutional type, experience, salary, highest academic degree, and teaching field do not affect the job satisfaction of full-time women university faculty in Seoul.

5. Full-time women university faculty in Seoul are a diverse group.

6. Full-time women university faculty in Seoul are underrepresented at public and coeducational universities.

7. Full-time women university faculty in Seoul who are in need of more time, equipment, and funds for research tend to be less satisfied with their jobs.

Implications

The findings of this study on the characteristics of women faculty imply that the job satisfaction level of women university faculty in Seoul is different from that of women faculty at junior and senior colleges in Seoul and in other regions of Korea. Korean literature implies that the job satisfaction of part-time instructors is significantly different from that of full-time faculty. Although the number of faculty candidates who hold higher academic degrees has increased, the opportunities for faculty candidates to be hired as full-time instructors and higher rank is currently lower than 10 years ago. The pay of part-time instructors is one-third that of full-time instructors.

A review of the literature also leads to the implication that differences exist in the characteristics and perceptions of men and women toward the professoriate. Thus, the job satisfaction levels of women university faculty in Seoul may be different from those of their male colleagues. These results can be used to ameliorate gender inequalities of the Confucian-based academic atmosphere which purports that men are superior to women.

The comments of respondents on the supervision subscale of the JDI imply that some consideration should be given to restating the terminology of the JDI in order to provide for clear understanding when used for Korean faculty. Their comments also indicate that some women faculty members believe strongly in participative decision-making rather than bureaucratic decision-making in governance.

Recommendations

On the basis of the findings, conclusions, and implications of this study, the following recommendations are made to improve the job satisfaction level of Korean women faculty in Seoul, to ameliorate gender inequalities, and to create a more constructive academic atmosphere:

1. More women faculty should be hired by public and coeducational universities in accordance with equal employment laws.

2. Research on opportunities for promotion in institutions of higher education in Korea should be

conducted to determine attributions to women faculty's neutral attitude toward their promotion, and further to raise satisfaction with their opportunities for promotion.

3. Korean women faculty may need to exhibit greater commitment to their professions.

4. The present study should be replicated using Korean men and women faculty and part-time instructors at different types and levels of institutions in Seoul and in other regions of Korea in order to reveal their levels of job satisfaction and to facilitate a comparison among different faculty groups.

5. Consideration should be given to restating the term "supervision" as "administrators," or, more specifically, as "chairpersons," "deans," or "presidents," when used for Korean faculty.

APPENDIX A

SURVEY INSTRUMENTS

Demographic Data

Please provide the information or check on the blank line.

1. _____Your age

2. Your marital status
   _____Never married _____Married
   _____Divorced _____Others

3. _____Number of your children staying in your home

4. Your employing institution (check all that apply)
   _____Private _____Coed _____Religious
   _____Public _____Women's _____Nonreligious

5. _____Years of experiences in teaching and administration in institutions of higher education, and research in research institutes

6. Your average monthly salary in million won
   _____1.0 or less _____over 1.0 to 1.3
   _____over 1.3 to 1.6 _____over 1.6 to 1.9
   _____over 1.9 to 2.2 _____over 2.2 to 2.5
   _____over 2.5 to 2.8 _____over 2.8 to 3.1
   _____over 3.1 to 3.4 _____over 3.4 to 3.7
   _____over 3.7 to 4.0 _____over 4.0 or more

7. Your academic degrees earned (check all that apply)
   _____Doctoral _____Domestic _____Overseas
   _____Master's _____Domestic _____Overseas
   _____Bachelor's _____Domestic _____Overseas
   _____Others _____Domestic _____Overseas

8. Your academic field in highest academic degree
   _____

9. Your teaching field_____

10. Your academic rank
    _____Professor _____Assistant Professor
    _____Associate Professor _____Instructor

교수님에 관하여 옆의 빈칸에 해당사항을 기입 혹은 표시하여 주시기 바랍니다.

1. 만_____세 교수님의 연령

2. 교수님의 결혼여부
   _____ 미혼 _____ 기혼
   _____ 이혼 _____ 기타

3. _____명 교수님 댁의 동거자녀 수

4. 교수님께서 근무하시는 대학교 구분 (해당되는 모든 항목에 표시바랍니다.)
   _____ 사립 _____ 여자학교 _____ 종교재단
   _____ 국.공립 _____ 남녀공학 _____ 비종교재단

5. _____년 교수님의 현재까지 대학에서 하신 교수및 기타 연구 기관에서의 경력

6. 교수님의 월평균 보수 (보수, 연구비 및 상여금을 포함하여 주십시오.) *단위: 만원
   _____ 100 미만 _____ 100 이상 -- 130 미만
   _____ 130 이상 -- 160 미만 _____ 160 이상 -- 190 미만
   _____ 190 이상 -- 220 미만 _____ 220 이상 -- 250 미만
   _____ 250 이상 -- 280 미만 _____ 280 이상 -- 310 미만
   _____ 310 이상 -- 340 미만 _____ 340 이상 -- 370 미만
   _____ 370 이상 -- 400 미만 _____ 400 이상

7. 교수님의 취득 학위및 국내.국외 학위 구분 (해당되는 모든 항목에 표시바랍니다.)
   _____ 박사 _____ 국내 _____ 국외
   _____ 석사 _____ 국내 _____ 국외
   _____ 학사 _____ 국내 _____ 국외
   _____ 기타 _____ 국내 _____ 국외

8. _____ 교수님의 최종학위 전공분야

9. _____ 교수님의 담당과목

10. 교수님의 직명
    _____ 교수 _____ 부교수
    _____ 조교수 _____ 전임강사

THE JOB DESCRIPTIVE INDEX

(REVISED)

Company _____

City _____

Please fill in the above blanks and then turn the page . . . .

Code No. _____

Think of the work you do at present. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe your work? **In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write**

__Y__ for "Yes" if it describes your work

__N__ for "No" if it does NOT describe it

__?__ if you cannot decide

* *

WORK ON PRESENT JOB

_____ Fascinating

_____ Routine

_____ Satisfying

_____ Boring

_____ Good

_____ Creative

_____ Respected

_____ Uncomfortable

_____ Pleasant

_____ Useful

_____ Tiring

_____ Healthful

_____ Challenging

_____ Too much to do

_____ Frustrating

_____ Simple

_____ Repetitive

_____ Gives sense of accomplishment

Go on to the next page . . . . .

Think of the pay you get now. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe your present pay? **In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write**

__Y__ for "Yes" if it describes your pay

__N__ for "No" if it does NOT describe it

__?__ if you cannot decide

* *

PRESENT PAY

_____ Income adequate for normal expenses

_____ Fair

_____ Barely live on income

_____ Bad

_____ Income provides luxuries

_____ Insecure

_____ Less than I deserve

_____ Well paid

_____ Underpaid

Go on to the next page . . . . .

Think of the opportunities for promotion that you have now. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe these? **In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write**

__Y__ for "Yes" if it describes your opportunities for promotion

__N__ for "No" if it does NOT describe them

__?__ if you cannot decide

* *

OPPORTUNITIES FOR PROMOTION

_____ Good opportunities for promotion

_____ Opportunities somewhat limited

_____ Promotion on ability

_____ Dead-end job

_____ Good chance for promotion

_____ Unfair promotion policy

_____ Infrequent promotions

_____ Regular promotions

_____ Fairly good chance for promotion

Go on to the next page . . . . .

Think of the kind of supervision that you get on your job. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe this? **In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write**

__Y__ for "Yes" if it describes the supervision you get on your job

__N__ for "No" if it does NOT describe it

__?__ if you cannot decide

* *

SUPERVISION

_____ Asks my advice

_____ Hard to please

_____ Impolite

_____ Praises good work

_____ Tactful

_____ Influential

_____ Up-to-date

_____ Doesn't supervise enough

_____ Has favorites

_____ Tells me where I stand

_____ Annoying

_____ Stubborn

_____ Knows job well

_____ Bad

_____ Intelligent

_____ Poor planner

_____ Around when needed

_____ Lazy

Go on to the next page . . . . .

Think of the majority of the people that you work with now or the people you meet in connection with your work. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe these people? **In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write**

__Y__ for "Yes" if it describes the people you work with

__N__ for "No" if it does NOT describe them

__?__ if you cannot decide

* *

CO-WORKERS (PEOPLE)

_____ Stimulating

_____ Boring

_____ Slow

_____ Helpful

_____ Stupid

_____ Responsible

_____ Fast

_____ Intelligent

_____ Easy to make enemies

_____ Talk too much

_____ Smart

_____ Lazy

_____ Unpleasant

_____ Gossipy

_____ Active

_____ Narrow interests

_____ Loyal

_____ Stubborn

Go on to the next page . . . . .

Think of your job in general. All in all, what is it like most of the time? **In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write**

__Y__ for "Yes" if it describes your job

__N__ for "No" if it does NOT describe it

__?__ if you cannot decide

* *

JOB IN GENERAL

_____ Pleasant

_____ Bad

_____ Ideal

_____ Waste of time

_____ Good

_____ Undesirable

_____ Worthwhile

_____ Worse than most

_____ Acceptable

_____ Superior

_____ Better than most

_____ Disagreeable

_____ Makes me content

_____ Inadequate

_____ Excellent

_____ Rotten

_____ Enjoyable

_____ Poor

직무묘사지표

번호 _____

현재 당신이 하시는 일을 생각하십시오. 다음에 열거된 어휘가 당신의 일을 어떻게 적절히 묘사하고 있읍니까? 각각의 어휘 옆 빈칸에

당신의 일을 묘사하면 "O" 그렇지 않으면 "X" 결정할 수 없으면 "?"를 표시하십시오.

****

현재직무

_____ 대단히 좋다
_____ 기계적이다
_____ 만족하다
_____ 지루하다
_____ 좋다
_____ 창조적이다
_____ 높이 평가 받는다
_____ 불편하다
_____ 즐겁다
_____ 유용하다
_____ 지치게한다
_____ 건강에 좋다
_____ 도전적이다
_____ 직무량이 너무 많다
_____ 좌절적이다
_____ 단순하다
_____ 반복적이다
_____ 성취감을 준다

다음장으로.....

현재 당신이 받는 보수를 생각하십시오. 다음에 열거된 어휘가 당신의 현재 보수를 어떻게 적절히 묘사하고 있읍니까? 각각의 어휘 옆 빈칸에

당신의 보수를 묘사하면 "0" 그렇지 않으면 "X" 결정할 수 없으면 "?"를 표시하십시오.

****

현재의 보수

_____ 정상지출에 적절하다
_____ 적정하다
_____ 생활을 겨우 영위한다
_____ 나쁘다
_____ 호화생활을 영위한다
_____ 불안정하다
_____ 나의 능력에 비하여 적다
_____ 많이 받는다
_____ 적게 받는다

다음장으로.....

현재 당신의 승진기회를 생각하십시오. 다음에 열거된 어휘가 당신의 승진기회를 어떻게 적절히 묘사하고 있읍니까? 각각의 어휘 옆 빈칸에

당신의 승진기회를 묘사하면 "O" 그렇지 않으면 "X" 결정할 수 없으면 "?"를 표시하십시오.

****

승진기회

____ 승진기회가 많다
____ 기회가 다소 제한되어있다
____ 실력에 따라 승진된다
____ 승진이 전혀 없는 직이다
____ 승진찬스가 좋다
____ 승진방침이 부당하다
____ 승진이 드물다
____ 정기적으로 승진된다
____ 승진찬스가 아주 좋다

다음장으로.....

현재 당신의 근무처의 상사를 생각하십시오. 다음에 열거된 어휘가 당신의 근무처의 상사를 어떻게 적절히 묘사하고 있읍니까? 각각의 어휘 옆 빈칸에

당신의 상사를 묘사하면 "O" 그렇지 않으면 "X" 결정할 수 없으면 "?"를 표시하십시오.

****

상사

_____ 내게 조언을 구한다
_____ 만족시키기 힘들다
_____ 공손하지 않다
_____ 잘한 일은 칭찬한다
_____ 재치있다
_____ 영향력이 있다
_____ 현대적이다
_____ 직무이행을 다하지 않는다
_____ 편견이 있다
_____ 나의 위치를 알려준다
_____ 귀찮게한다
_____ 완고하다
_____ 직무를 잘 알고있다
_____ 나쁘다
_____ 지성적이다
_____ 기획에 서투르다
_____ 항상 도와주려고 한다
_____ 게으르다

다음장으로.....

현재 당신과 함께 근무하고있는 사람들 또는 당신의 직무관계로 만나는 사람들을 생각하십시오. 다음에 열거된 어휘가 그들을 어떻게 적절히 묘사하고 있읍니까? 각각의 어휘 옆 빈칸에

그들을 묘사하면 "0" 그렇지 않으면 "X" 결정할 수 없으면 "?"를 표시하십시오.

****

동 료

_____ 고무(鼓舞)시켜 준다
_____ 따분하다
_____ 느리다
_____ 도움이 된다
_____ 어리석다
_____ 책임감이 있다
_____ 빠르다
_____ 지성적이다
_____ 적을 쉽게 만든다
_____ 말이 많다
_____ 빈틈이 없다
_____ 게으르다
_____ 불쾌하다
_____ 잡담을 한다
_____ 활동적이다
_____ 관심사가 좁다
_____ 충실하다
_____ 완고하다

다음장으로.....

당신의 직무를 전반적으로 생각하십시오. 대체로 어떻습니까? 다음에 열거된 어휘가 당신의 직무를 어떻게 적절히 묘사하고 있읍니까? 각각의 어휘 옆 빈칸에

당신의 직무를 묘사하면 "O" 그렇지 않으면 "X" 결정할 수 없으면 "?"를 표시하십시오.

****

전반적인 직무

_____ 즐겁다
_____ 나쁘다
_____ 이상적이다
_____ 시간낭비다
_____ 좋다
_____ 바람직하지 못하다
_____ 보람있다
_____ 비교적 좋지 않다
_____ 마음에 든다
_____ 우수하다
_____ 비교적 좋다
_____ 마음에 들지 않는다
_____ 흡족하다
_____ 적합하지 않다
_____ 최상급이다
_____ 도덕적이지 못하다
_____ 재미있다
_____ 가치없다

설문지에 대답해 주셔서 고맙습니다. 준비된 봉투에 넣어 돌려주시기 바랍니다.

_____연구결과를 알고 싶으시면 "V"를 표시하십시오.

APPENDIX B

LETTERS GRANTING PERMISSION

Bowling Green State University

Department of Psychology
Bowling Green, Ohio 43403-0228
419-372-2301
Telex: BGSU OH

April 28, 1992

Myung S. Jeannie Pang
1500 W. Oak Street, Apt 9
Denton, TX 76201

Dear Ms. Pang:

You are hereby authorized permission to reprint 320 copies of the JDI provided you include the notation "Copyright, 1985, Bowling Green State University" on each copy.

Sincerely,

Patricia C. Smith sp

Patricia C. Smith, Ph.D.
Professor Emerita

sp

Bowling Green State University

Department of Psychology
Bowling Green, Ohio 43403-0228
(419) 372-2301
Cable, BGSUOH

March 17, 1992

Myungsuk Pang
1500 W. Oak Street Apt. 9
Denton, TX 76201

Dear Myungsuk Pang:

On behalf of Dr. Patricia C. Smith, thank you for your interest in the Job Descriptive Index (JDI). As you may already know, the JDI and Job in General (JIG) were revised in 1985. Unless you are particularly interested in translating the original scales, the following refers to the new revised scales.

In response to your request, you are hereby granted permission to translate the revised JDI and the JIG into Korean provided:

1. We receive a copy of the translations, and

2. Notation "Copyright Bowling Green State University, 1975, 1985" is included on each copy.

Enclosed you will find a copy of the revised JDI and JIG, the scoring key, norms, as well as cost and ordering information. Please note that pricing will be based on the number of copies you distribute in your survey.

Given the nature of the validation process of translated scales, we would appreciate your cooperation in providing us with information regarding the procedures followed in translating the revised JDI and JIG. In particular, we kindly request you provide us with as much of the following as possible:

a) A brief description of the translation and back-translation procedures (i.e., how many translators, whether the translation was back-translated into English by independent translators to check for problems, etc.);

b) The item level data (i.e., individual responses to each item) you collect using the translated instrument, along with demographic information for each subject. Typically, the JDI and JIG are accompanied by questions about job level, sex, tenure in organization, tenure in specific job, occupation, age, pay, education, and race; and,

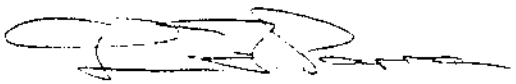
c) Anything else you consider relevant to the translation process.

We are very interested in research concerning the use of translated versions of the JDI and JIG. As per our recent telephone conversation, I am also including a copy of a Chinese version of the JDI so that you may discuss it with some of your Chinese colleagues. We are interested in finding out whether there are similar difficulties in translating certain items into Chinese and Korean. Please extend our gratitude to your colleagues for any comments they may have on this issue.

Please feel free to contact us to establish a mutually beneficial way to share information. We can be reached at (419) 372-8247 for voice messages, at (419) 372-6013 via Fax, at JDI@BGSUOPIE via Bitnet, or at JDI@opie.bgsu.edu via Internet.

We look forward to hearing from you soon.

Sincerely,



Luis Fernando Parra
JDI Research Group

Enclosures

KOREAN CONSULATE OF
EDUCATIONAL AFFAIRS AT HOUSTON

April 22, 1992

Dear Ms. Pang:

This letter is in response to your inquiry. I am pleased to know that you are engaged in studying the field of education in my region.

Concerning your inquiries, I would like to inform you that, because of the nature of your study, your research does not need any approval. The United States and Republic of Korea are countries that reserve the freedom of speech. Therefore, you can proceed your research as planned.

I wish you success in your research.

Sincerely,

Lee, Nam-jeong
Educational Attache'

주 휴 스 턴 교 육 원
(713) 961-4104

방 영 숙 씨 귀하

보내신 서신 잘 받았습니다.

저의 관한에서 교육학을 공부하고 계신다니 반갑습니다.

문의 사항 가운데 첫째사항인 논문을 준비함에 있어 귀하가 따라야 할 특별한 사항은 별도로 없음을 알려드립니다. 또한 두번째 "허락"에 대하여도 미국이나 한국이나 학문의 자유가 보장되어 있으며 논문 제목도 "허락"을 받아야 할 특수한 분야가 아니므로 계획하신 대로 일을 추진하시면 될 것 같습니다.

부디 원하시는 바대로 좋은 결실 있으시기 원하며 건투를 빕니다.

안녕히 계십시오.

1992. 4. 22

주 휴스턴 교육원장 이 남 정 Lee Nam Jung

DAN KOOK UNIVERSITY

May 26, 1992

Dear Ms. Pang:

I am responding to your request on be half of the President of this institution and the Director of the Division of International Affairs. Your request for the distribution of your instruments has been granted. A list of the women faculty at this institution is enclosed. You can mail and collect your instruments directly to and from them.

Sincerely,

Oh, Min-seok
Researcher
Division of International Affairs

Enclosure

방명숙 선생님께

총장님과 본교 국제교류처장님을 대신하여 실무자로서 답신을 보냅니다. 선생님께서 의뢰한 설문지 배분건은 허락이 되었으며, 본교에 재직중인 여성교수들의 명단과 소속학과명을 동봉하오니 직접 설문지를 발송,수거하시기 바랍니다.

1992년 5월 26일
단국대학교 국제교류처
연구원 오 민 석

SANGMYUNG WOMEN'S UNIVERSITY

May 13, 1992

Dear Ms. Pang:

I have received your letter through the President of this institution. She granted you permission to administer your instruments and asked me to assist you in that regard.

The number of women faculty at this institution is about 40, including the Cheonan campus. If you send me an appropriate quantity of the instruments, I will cooperate in the administration of them.

Sincerely,

Kim, Jae-geun
Chairperson
Department of Education

안녕하십니까?

귀하의 서신을 본 대학 총장님을 통해 받았습니다. 총장님이 허락하셨고 이를 본 교육학과에서 협조토록 당부를 받았습니다.

본 대학 재직 여교수는 약 40명 (천안 캠퍼스 포함) 이 됩니다.따라서 이 숫자만큼의 설문지를 보내주시면 협조해드리겠습니다.

1992년 5월 13일

상명여자대학교 교육학과 학과장 김재건

(P.S) 전화번호 기재 요.

Yonsei University

May 19, 1992

Dear Ms. Pang:

This letter is in response to your request. Although assistance with individual research is beyond the scope of the office of administrative affairs, I would like to help you within my limitations if you will visit my office.

Wishing you success in your study.

Sincerely,

Kim, Seong-gul
Department of Administrative Affairs

방 명 숙 귀하

귀하의 서신에 대해 행정 실무자로서 간단히 알려드립니다.

개인의 연구를 위한 설문지 배부 및 회수를 행정적으로 도와드리기는 곤란합니다.

학교 교무처 교무과로 오시면 제가 도와드릴 수 있는 범위 안에서 도움을 드릴테니 개별적으로 의뢰하도록 하십시오.

훌륭한 연구가 되기를 바랍니다.

1992. 5.

연 세 대 학 교 교 무 처 교 무 과

실 무 담 당 자 김 성 걸

APPENDIX C

LETTERS TO PRESIDENTS AND WOMEN FACULTY

May 4, 1992

Dear President _____:

I am currently in the process of preparing my doctoral dissertation at University of North Texas, Denton, Texas, U.S.A. The research topic is "Job satisfaction of women faculty at universities in Seoul, Republic of Korea."

Prior to distributing questionnaires to women professors in your institution, I would like to inquire about two things: (a) Are there any specific procedures I should follow? (b) Would you grant your permission for me to distribute them?

A letter from Dr. Howard W. Smith, Jr., who is my major professor, is attached for your information.

Thank you for your assistance and permission.

Respectfully yours,

Myung-suk Pang, M.Ed.

Enclosure

總長님귀하

本人은 현재 北텍사스 대학교 (University of North Texas, Denton, Texas, U.S.A.)에서 大學敎育行政學 博士學位論文을 준비하고 있읍니다. 논문제목은 "서울에 위치한 대학교내의 여성교수 분들의 職業 滿足度"입니다.

바쁘신 총장님께 이 글을 드리는 것은 첫째, 귀교의 여성 교수 분들께 說問紙 配分을 함에 앞서 제가 따라야 할 절차가 있으면 알려 주십사 함과 둘째, 제가 설문지를 배분할 수 있도록 許可를 내려 주십사 하고 부탁드리기 위함입니다.

저의 指導 교수님 Dr. Howard W. Smith, Jr.의 편지가 同封되어 있읍니다. 參照하여 주십시오.

총장님의 지도와 協助에 대단히 感謝드립니다.

1992년 5월 4일

방 명 숙 드림

University of North Texas

Office of Policy Studies
in Higher Education
College of Education

April 28, 1992

To Whom It May Concern:

This is to introduce Myung (Jeannie) Pang who is a Ph.D. candidate in Higher Education at the University of North Texas. Ms. Pang is in the process of collecting data for her dissertation, Job Satisfaction Among Faculty Women at Universities in Seoul, Korea, under my direction. In order for her to collect such data it will be necessary that she have your permission to do so at your institution. Your permission and assistance in this matter will be greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Howard W. Smith, Jr.
Professor and Director
Office of Policy Studies
in Higher Education

jm

P.O. Box 13857 • Denton, Texas 76203-3857
AC 817 565-2952

May 4, 1992

Dear Professor_____:

I am currently preparing my doctoral dissertation at the University of North Texas, Denton, Texas, U.S.A. The research topic is "Job satisfaction of women faculty at universities in Seoul, Republic of Korea." This study will be a significant data base by providing the job satisfaction level of Korean women university faculty in Seoul.

I hesitate to intrude on your busy schedule, but information from you is very important to this research. Your responses will be held in strictest confidence. I am required to observe the confidentiality policies of the university.

Please take 10 minutes to complete and return the questionnaires. A stamped, self-addressed return envelope is enclosed for your convenience. Your cooperation will be greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Myung-suk Pang, M.Ed.

Enclosure

敎授님귀하

교수님께서 하시는 모든 일에 幸運이 더욱 더 깃드시고 健康하시기를 祺願합니다.

本人은 현재 북텍사스 대학교 (University of North Texas, Denton, Texas, U.S.A.)에서 大學敎育行政學 博士學位論文을 준비하고 있읍니다. 논문제목은 "서울에 위치한 대학교내의 여성교수 분들의 職業 滿足度"입니다.

이 논문은 여성교수 분들의 地位向上에 대한 基礎硏究로써 그 연구의 意義가 있을 것입니다.

바쁘신 교수님께 이 글을 드리는 것은, 同封된 說問紙에 대한 교수님의 應答이 이 논문작성에 꼭 필요한 자료로 사용될 것이기 때문입니다. 교수님의 응답은 절대로 외부에 알려지지 않을 것임이 북텍사스 대학교의 논문檢閱機關에 登錄되어 있읍니다.

10분간의 시간을 내어 주셔서 설문지에 교수님의 응답을 기입하시고 동봉된 봉투에 넣어 보내주시기 바랍니다.

협조에 대단히 고맙습니다.

1992년 5월 4일

방 명 숙 드 림

APPENDIX D

SIGNATURES OF PARTICIPANTS IN TRANSLATING THE JOB DESCRIPTIVE INDEX

A List of Participants at Translating The Job Descriptive Index into Korean

Myongin Kye

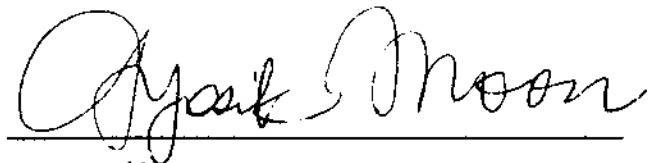
Jaechon Cho

Myungsook Lee

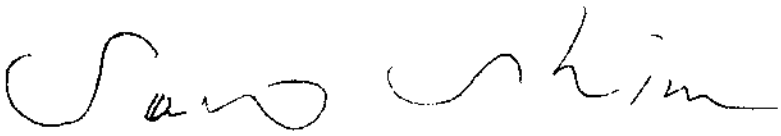
P. S. Jeong, Ph.D.

Koo-Hyun Kim

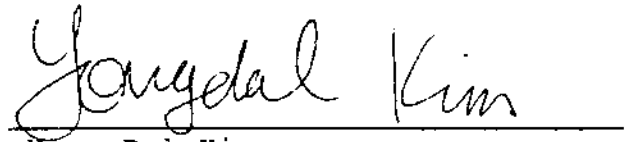
A List of Participants at Back-Translating the Temporary Korean Version of The Job Descriptive Index into English



Gyo Sik Moon

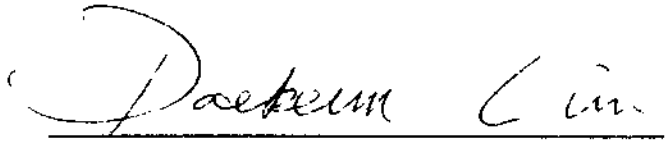


Song Woo James Shim



Yong-Dal Kim

Young-Jin Yoon



Daekeun Lim

Sangho Lee

A List of Participants at Back-Translating the Chinese Version of The Job Descriptive Index into English

Sai-Yong Zhang

Jian Huang

Guo-Qiang Wu

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