STUDENT AFFAIRS ADMINISTRATORS & WELL-BEING: EXAMINING TIME IN FIELD, POSITION LEVEL AND FACTORS THAT HAVE THE STRONGEST RELATIONSHIP TO WELL-BEING

by

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A Dissertation
Submitted to the
Graduate Faculty
of
George Mason University
in Partial Fulfillment of
The Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Philosophy
Education

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George Mason University
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Student Affairs Administrators & Well-being: Examining Time in Field, Position Level and Factors That Have the Strongest Relationship to Well-being

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Dedication

For my family, my pillars, my rocks – Helen, Bill, Heather and Bill

For my biggest and loudest cheerleader - Terry Harrison

For my mentors - Denise Taylor, Lynn Chessman & Jennifer McDonough

For someone who wanted to achieve this goal, but life had other plans – Brian Collins
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List of Abbreviations

Brief Inventory of Thriving ................................................................. BIT
Chief Student Affairs Officer .......................................................... CSAO
Comprehensive Inventory on Thriving ............................................. CIT
Control at Work .............................................................................. CAW
Home-Work Interface ..................................................................... HWI
Job Career Satisfaction ................................................................... JCS
Overall Quality of Working Life ...................................................... OVRL
Psychological Well-being ............................................................... PWB
Stress at Work ............................................................................... SAW
Subjective Well-being ................................................................. SWB
Work Related Quality of Life Survey .............................................. WRQoL
Abstract

STUDENT AFFAIRS ADMINISTRATORS & WELL-BEING: EXAMINING TIME IN FIELD, POSITION LEVEL AND FACTORS THAT HAVE THE STRONGEST RELATIONSHIP TO WELL-BEING

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Dissertation Director: Dr. Jaime R. Lester

The voice of higher education student affairs professionals is under-represented in the well-being literature even though these campus community members are responsible for providing key programs and services that facilitate the holistic development of students. In order to understand the role of well-being in the work-life of these professionals, a large (n=2,414) sample of student affairs professionals completed the Brief Inventory of Thriving (BIT) and the Work-Related Quality of Life (WRQoL) survey. Position level and time in field were considered for well-being differences with application of ANOVAs. Statistically significant differences were found in well-being for entry, midlevel, senior, and chief student affairs officers (CSAOs); there was a four point difference in well-being between entry-level and CSAOs. Years in field was not statistically significant until considering professionals who were in the field 12 or more years with those in the field less than 12 years. Through a hierarchical linear
regression, a number of factors displayed a robust relationship to well-being for student affairs professionals. Variables related to work showed the strongest relationship to the well-being of these professionals. The study also indicated that self-perceived level of health has a mediating effect on the level of stress; the higher the perceived level of health the lower the impact of stress. In addition, work-life balance does not have a significant relationship to well-being for this population. This study provides recommendations for practice of student affairs leadership and individuals to support the development of well-being among student affairs professionals.

*Keywords:* well-being, student affairs professionals, position level, time in field, health
Chapter One

Jane started in student affairs about fifteen years ago. When she entered the field as a newly minted Master’s student, she worked in housing and residence life at a private school in New Orleans, Louisiana. There she encountered numerous students who were struggling personally and academically. She was the first responder to students who had made suicide attempts; she helped students process through how they would reveal their sexual identity to their parents. During the midnight hours, she counseled students who cut themselves to relieve their anxiety. She handled any number of drug related incidents in the wee hours of the morning. While she helped these students through their tribulations, Jane was dealing with her own issues of well-being. She would sleep irregularly due to regular late-night phone calls and the all-night party culture associated with New Orleans. She had ended an engagement to a long-time partner; she also battled with significant depression and anxiety. Initially, Jane felt isolated in her struggles with achieving greater levels of well-being.

However, over the next 14 years in the field of student affairs she encountered other new and seasoned professionals who struggled with well-being issues of their own; they were not sleeping, or were feeling burned out, and they generally felt lost. She met many professionals who made their own well-being secondary to the pressing student issues and concerns, and the workload that never seemed to stop. Headlines in the media and
personal events seemed to support her experience as student affairs professionals were taking their own lives (Dobbs, 2013; Schneck, 2013). How do student affairs professionals effectively maintain their well-being? Why did her colleagues place their own well-being on the back-burner when it came to student, family, and work concerns?

As Hirt (2005, as cited in Fenske, 1980, p. 27) notes “student affairs ‘has never had a single functional focus, has never been stable in its role over significant periods of time, and has never had a consensual integrative philosophy’” (p.8). However, Dalton and Crosby (2011) advocate that the purpose of student affairs is “to provide services and programs that enhance the intellectual and ethical development of college students” (p.6). Like Jane, those in the profession of student affairs may serve in different functional areas in their career. These areas could include academic advising, student activities, housing, first-year experience programs, career services, international programs, health services, and disability services.

Depending on the role and area within the institution, student affairs professionals have different sets of skills that must be developed to support student services and programs. Kuk states (2012) “student affairs staff are often first responders and/or points of contact in addressing incidents (e.g. crime, sexual assaults, domestic violence, suicide, etc.) and their aftermath” (p. 4). He goes on to clarify that they often address these issues with little advance training or personal support for the tolls these encounters take on their personal lives. The lack of training and support when dealing with students and critical incidents can negatively affect a professional’s experience; this was certainly Jane’s reality and one that made her contemplate whether the field of student affairs was for her.
Her Master’s classes covered student development theory and organizational theory; they did not cover how to assist a student through the various issues related to the coming out process or the post-traumatic stress one might feel after responding to an attempted suicide. The classes also did not cover the importance of self-care when dealing with these difficult issues. While some student affairs preparatory programs include a counseling focus, many are theoretically based; some programs fall short in providing direct application of skills, which result in professionals feeling frustrated with how to apply what they have learned outside the classroom setting (Renn & Jessup-Anger, 2008). This can lead to staff feeling underprepared to deal with the serious issues and concerns students bring with them to campus. This may create role conflict and role ambiguity for the professional, which can lead to attrition from the field (Ward, 1995).

Tull, Hirt, and Saunders (2009) estimate that departures from the profession range from 20% to 40% within the first six years of the career. The attrition in the field is attributed to professionals who do not advance past the first five or six years within student affairs (Lorden, 1998). A study by Bender (1980/2009) found that 66% of student affairs professionals were satisfied with their positions, but only 35% intended to make student affairs their entire career. However, the study did not elaborate on why that 35% were more dedicated than others in the study. Bender also outlined other factors that may influence job satisfaction in student affairs, including “job security, fringe benefits, the correlation of responsibility with organizational authority, institutional flexibility, involvement with decision making, working conditions and the nature of performance reviews” (p. 554).
While attrition levels have remained a concern in student affairs for the past thirty years, current trends indicate growth in student support services personnel by 28% over the past year (Carlson, 2014). One reason for the growth in these professionals could be attributed to the wide and varying needs of today’s students (Carlson, 2014; Tull et al., 2012). These administrators need more specialized experience as student populations continue to diversify with veteran’s needs and mental health concerns; in addition, there is a shifting federal and state policy landscape that impacts their day to day work.

For example, the number of veterans entering colleges and universities has increased exponentially with the passage of the Post-9/11 GI Bill in 2008 (ACE, 2012; Schafer, 2014). In response, colleges and universities are implementing programs and services for military and veteran students, which rose from 49% of institutions to 71% of institutions (ACE, 2012). In addition, mental health issues among college and university students continue to rise in prevalence and severity (Hunt & Eisenberg, 2010). In a 2008 national study, 95% of the directors of counseling centers reported a significant increase in severe psychological disorders among their students (Hunt & Eisenburg, 2010).

Federal laws are influencing how institutions handle sexual assaults and mental health concerns with the recent modifications to Title IX through the Office of Civil Rights and the Dear Colleague Letter and Title II under the Americans with Disabilities Act. Not only do student affairs professionals have to contend with federal regulations, there are state regulations that add complexity to their roles. For instance, a new North Carolina law is governing how educational conduct hearings must offer students
opportunities to have legal representation present during their proceedings (Grasgreen, 2013).

In addition to coping with the externally imposed complexities of regulations and the changing student populations, student affairs professionals must work with the internal complexities of their institutions. For example, midlevel administrators report three sources of concern regarding the quality of their employment within colleges and universities, including the “midlevel nature of their role, their lack of recognition for their contributions and competence, and their limited opportunity for career growth and advancement opportunities” (Rosser, 2004, p. 318). These concerns influence their life and job satisfaction, and may ultimately lead to attrition (Rosser & Javinar, 2003).

Changes in (higher education) have led to increased demands on university staff because they have occurred in an environment of decreasing resources (Martin, 2008, p. 156). Today’s higher education landscape, along with Rosser (2004) and Bender’s (1980/2009) factors influencing job satisfaction and Jane’s personal experience, illustrate the complexity associated with the role of these professionals. In addition to considering these factors, one must also consider student affairs professionals within the holistic context of their individual well-being. Maintaining their well-being becomes important as they work outside the classroom to help students successfully navigate the complexities associated with the higher education landscape (i.e. financial aid, roommate conflicts, identity development, mental health issues, career choice, etc).

Well-being is a concept with a foundation in positive psychology. There are many and varying definitions of well-being. In this study, well-being is a multi-dimensional
construct that refers to a positive psychological state where one experiences more positive than negative emotions; it is interconnected to life satisfaction, meaning and purpose, autonomy, self-acceptance, and love, which may lead to a life of thriving or flourishing (Ciarrochi, Kashdan, & Harris, 2013; Diener, 1984; Diener & Seligman, 2004; Ryff & Keyes, 1995; Rath & Harter, 2010; Su, Tay & Diener, 2014). When one is flourishing or thriving in life, they report experiencing optimal well-being because they are positively functioning at their fullest range - mentally, physically, and socially (Rath & Harter, 2010; Seligman, 2011; Su et al., 2014). Overall, well-being can be thought of as a “complex concept that concerns optimal experience and functioning” of an individual (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 141). One has well-being when one feels good the majority of the time and regularly perceives life as going generally well (Cabrera, 2015).

This study on the well-being of student affairs professionals will provide a more holistic view of their functioning. Many of the studies about student affairs professionals focus on singular domains of well-being, like job satisfaction. Only focusing on one domain of these professional’s experience does not allow consideration for other factors external to the work environment to influence well-being. This study will assess positive and negative emotions, life satisfaction, self-acceptance and other factors external to the workplace to determine the well-being of student affairs professionals and the factors that have the most significant impact on their experience.

**Purpose of the Study**

Given the growth of the field and the sustained attrition levels in student affairs, this study aims to investigate the well-being of student affairs professionals to better
understand the impact of these trends. Specifically, the purpose of the study is to investigate the well-being of student affairs professionals by considering different factors like demographics and overall quality of work and their impact on the dependent variable of well-being.

The dependent variable is the score from the Brief Instrument of Thriving (BIT) published by Diener, Su and Tay (2014). This score will be used to investigate the level of well-being between various groups of student affairs professionals determined by their position and time in the field. The BIT is a validated instrument that integrates and measures several well-being concepts (including subjective well-being, relationships, engagement, mastery, meaning and optimism) to create a composite score that represents a “holistic view of positive functioning” (Su et al., 2014, p. 1).

In addition, the study will use other factors as outlined by the Work-Related Quality of Life survey (WRQoL) as independent variables. This validated survey provides several environmental factors to examine the predictability of well-being. These factors include: Home-Work Interface, Job Career Satisfaction, Control at Work, Working Conditions, Stress at Work, and Overall Quality of Working Life. Through the 10 items on the BIT along with the 24 items on the WRQoL survey, and several demographic variables, this study will lend insight into the current state of well-being of student affairs professionals. Factors that are considered include position level and time within the field. The study answers the following questions:

1) What is the well-being composite score of student affairs professionals? How does this score vary by time in field? By position level?
2) Is there a correlation between the well-being score and Work-Related Quality of Life score?

3) How do select Work-Related Quality of Life factors (Job Career Satisfaction, Control at Work, Stress at Work, Home-Work Interface and Overall Quality of Working Life) and demographic variables predict the well-being composite score on the BIT?

**Significance of the Study**

There are several reasons why the current study is important. First, student affairs professionals are integral to the operation of student services in higher education, yet the empirical literature does not effectively take these practitioners’ experience into account (Rhatigan, 2009). In other words, empirical literature is often lacking on the different issues and concerns faced by student affairs professionals. Indeed, and in support of Rhatigan’s observation, college and university administrators and faculty are typically the groups of employees who are studied in the higher education career literature (Anderson, Guido-Brito, & Morrell, 2000). Nevertheless, while the context of colleges and universities is similar for administrators and faculty, the job responsibilities and characteristics of faculty are varied and different from student affairs administrators. The two constituencies (academic faculty and non-academic administrative/support staff) rarely have similar jobs and supervisory structures. This gives rise to significantly different employee problems and concerns (Rothmann & Essenko, 2007, p. 135).

In a review of the literature on job satisfaction, life satisfaction, inter-role conflict and stress of student affairs administrators, the authors cited several studies related to faculty
(Anderson, et al., 2000). They used the justification of studying faculty because “so few studies have been conducted using student affairs administrators as subjects” (Anderson, et al., 2000, p. 100). However, this current study does not consider faculty due to the difference in job roles and structure. While faculty are not considered in this research, there is some consideration for non-faculty academic administrators due to some similarity in roles and responsibilities of the student affairs professionals.

Secondly, this study is important because while job satisfaction has been a prominent consideration within the context of student affairs, there is little research on how this construct relates to well-being. Job satisfaction of student affairs professionals only tells a small part of the attrition story, as it is only related to a singular domain within subjective well-being (Diener, Scollon & Lucas, 2004). Measuring a single domain gives a one-dimensional view of well-being; there is no consideration for positive and negative emotions, meaning, purpose, health, relationship status, leisure, and other important factors that contribute to one’s well-being (Diener et al., 2004).

Student affairs professionals are generally satisfied with their work, but some are unsure of their commitment to the field (Bender, 1980/2009; Blackhurst, Brandt & Kalinowski, 1998). Literature suggests many reasons why student affairs professionals are unsure of their career commitment, including: decreased job security, lack of time, lack of resources, lack of autonomy, lack of advancement opportunities, role conflict, role ambiguity, and job-related stress (Austin, 1985; Bender, 1980/2009; Blackhurst et al., 1998; Rosser, 2004; Tseng, 2004; Ward, 1995). However, little empirical research
mentions student affairs administrators’ level of well-being and its relationship to job satisfaction or attrition.

Lastly, this study is important because it will provide a context for well-being as it relates to student affairs professionals at varying levels within the field. By understanding the levels of well-being for entry level, mid-level, senior and chief student affairs officers, there can be further investigation into whether there are factors that may predict the well-being of these professionals. Understanding the factors that may or may not predict well-being within these populations will assist institutions in identifying ways to support the well-being of these administrators. This knowledge may also address the rising levels of attrition in student affairs within the first six years (Tull et al., 2009).

Definition of Terms

Several terms will be used in this study:

*Brief Inventory on Thriving (BIT).* The Brief Inventory of Thriving (BIT) is a subset of ten questions from the Comprehensive Inventory of Thriving (CIT) that assesses respondents along several theoretical dimensions of well-being that are captured by constructs in the foundational theories of positive psychology (Su et al., 2014.). Through the utilization of Self-Determination Theory (Ryan and Deci, 2001), Ryff and Keyes’ (1995) six core dimensions for positive psychological functioning, Seligman’s (2011) PERMA model of flourishing, and Scheier, Carver and Bridges (2001) research on optimism, Diener et al. (2014) composed the seven dimensions that make up the CIT; the BIT is a subscale within this larger assessment. These dimensions are:
“(1) subjective well-being (SWB) in the form of high life satisfaction and positive feelings, (2) supportive and enriching relationships, (3) interest and engagement in daily activities, (4) meaning and purpose in life, (5) a sense of mastery and accomplishment, (6) feelings of control and autonomy, and (7) optimism” (Su et al., 2014, p. 3)

The dimension not currently captured by the BIT is feelings of control or autonomy. However, this construct is captured through the Work-Related Quality of Life (WRQoL) Survey by the Control at Work factor.

*Entry Level Student Affairs Professional.* Typically focusing on a specialized area of student affairs (e.g. housing, student activities, or orientation), entry-level student affairs professionals consistently interact with students more regularly than other levels of student affairs administration (Mills, 2009). These professionals typically supervise student staff, while being responsible for executing programs, events, projects and daily tasks (Mills).

*Midlevel Student Affairs Professional.* Individuals in these positions have different goals that include the enhancement of quality for student life, support services and learning experiences in higher education (Rosser & Javinar, 2003). These goals link the vertical and horizontal levels of their organization, which require these midlevel professionals to manage people and processes sometimes with little decision-making authority (Mills, 2009). They are academic or non-academic support personnel with titles like director, associate director or coordinator of different programs and departments (Rosser & Javinar, 2003; Mills, 2009).
Senior Student Affairs Administrator. These professionals are in positions that give them oversight of multiple departments and/or functional areas. They may have directors, executive directors or associate deans reporting to them. Typically, the positions considered senior level include assistant or associate vice president/chancellor, and may include dean of students (Winegard, 2010).

Chief Student Affairs Officer. Persons within this position typically focus on divisional and institutional priorities at the macro-level of the institution (Mills, 2009). They typically report directly to the provost or the president/chancellor of the institution and are responsible for the various departments within the division of student affairs often headed by directors and deans or assistant vice presidents (Sandeen, 1991).

Conceptual Framework

This study is the first known of its kind on well-being and student affairs professionals. While researching well-being and student affairs literature, the researcher was unable to identify a dominant or existing framework for this study. Therefore, an adaptation of Astin’s I-E-O Model (1993) will be utilized as the framework. While the framework was initially developed by Astin (1993) to serve as a way to study a graduate program’s ability to produce PhD students, the model’s use in this study serves more as a way to organize the different variables that affect the well-being of student affairs professionals.
**Figure 1.** Astin’s (1993) Inputs-Environment-Outputs (I-E-O) Model.

**Inputs.** Inputs “refers to those personal qualities the student brings initially to the education program” (Astin, 1993, p. 18). Instead, in this study inputs refers to the personal qualities people initially bring to the workplace that influence their level of well-being. These personal qualities can include characteristics inherent and personal to the respondents (Tseng, 2004), like demographic variables and educational background. Many input variables emerged in the research, but this study refined the list to include the most common. Variables included are age, position level, gender, time in field, relationship status, educational attainment, type of institution, race/ethnicity, health and future plans. These variables are further outlined in the following chapter. For the purposes of this study, these are treated as independent variables.

**Environment.** Environment “refers to the student’s actual experiences during the educational program” (Astin, 1993, p. 18). However, in this study these experiences are related to the workplace, and not an educational program. There are many categories related to the work-place environment that emerged from the studies on student affairs
professionals. In order to make it more manageable, the Work Related Quality of Life (WRQoL) Survey provided a tool with which to assess these environmental variables. Job Career Satisfaction (JCS) includes having clear goals for work, using abilities, acknowledgement/praise by supervisor, professional development and training. Control at Work (CAW) is related to the concept of autonomy. It includes the ability to voice opinions to influence change and involvement in decisions that affect them or the people with whom they work. Home-Work Interface (HWI) includes facilities that allow flexibility for fitting work around family life, working patterns and hours that can be adapted to personal circumstances, and/or supervisors promoting flexible working hours. Stress at Work relates to the pressure or stress one feels in the workplace. A singular question asks the respondent to indicate the overall quality of their working life. The environmental antecedents from the WRQoL captured the factors and variables that came up most often in the student affairs literature. These are considered independent variables in this study.

**Outputs.** Outputs “refer to the ‘talents’ we are trying to develop” (Astin, 1993, p. 18). For the purpose of this study, well-being can be viewed as the “talent” and it is the dependent variable. In this study, well-being is a multi-dimensional construct that refers to a positive psychological state where one experiences more positive than negative emotions; it is interconnected to life satisfaction, meaning and purpose, autonomy, self-acceptance, and love, which may lead to a life of thriving or flourishing (Ciarrochi, Kashdan, & Harris, 2013; Diener, 1984; Diener & Seligman, 2004; Ryff & Keyes, 1995; Rath & Harter, 2010; Su, Tay & Diener, 2014.). When one is flourishing or thriving in
life, they report experiencing optimal well-being because they are positively functioning at their fullest range - mentally, physically, and socially (Rath & Harter, 2010; Seligman, 2011; Su et al., 2014). The score from the Brief Inventory of Thriving (BIT) is used to measure one’s well-being. This construct includes questions that measure life satisfaction, accomplishment, positive feelings, self-efficacy, self-worth, belonging, meaning, optimism, engagement, and support. This structure is informed by theories within positive psychology, which are briefly outlined in Chapter 2.

The constructs associated with Astin’s I-E-O Model (1993) are utilized to assist in organizing the literature with reference to subjective well-being concepts and psychological well-being concepts. Subjective well-being concepts include positive and negative affect, life satisfaction and domain satisfaction (Diener et al, 2004). Psychological well-being concepts include autonomy, environmental mastery, positive relationships with others, purpose in life, personal growth and self-acceptance (Keyes, Schmotkin & Ryff, 2002).

**Outline of Chapters**

Chapter Two presents a comprehensive review and synthesis of the literature within the context of student affairs as well as the literature’s relationship to subjective well-being, psychological well-being and study variables. Chapter Three explains the research methodology. Both ANOVAs and hierarchical regression are utilized to determine the identified variables’ relationships to well-being. In Chapter Four, the results of the analysis will be presented. In Chapter Five, the most important results will be reviewed with implications for practice and future research.
Chapter Two

The purpose of this study is to investigate the well-being of student affairs professionals through use of the Brief Inventory of Thriving, and to provide an exploration of this concept within this population. Although, researchers have examined the well-being of different groups of employees, such as nurses, pre-school teachers, and hotel staff (Alves, Neves, Coleta, & Oliveira, 2012; Hall-Kenyon, Bullough, MacKay & Marshall, 2014; Molinar, Martinez-Tur, Peiro, Ramos & Cropanzano, 2013), there are limited empirical studies that examine student affairs professionals and their holistic well-being. Much of the empirical well-being research on student affairs professionals is limited to concepts mostly related to subjective well-being, like job satisfaction, life satisfaction or unpleasant emotions (like stress). However, a more holistic understanding of well-being is important because it speaks to the overall health and engagement of this population in their work with students, administrators and other stakeholders. In order to understand the holistic well-being of these professionals, this literature review will examine the two main philosophical constructs of well-being: subjective well-being and psychological well-being. These two constructs form the foundation of the BIT and literature review; the majority of the literature is situated within concepts from subjective well-being.
**Well-being**

Well-being is a concept with a foundation in positive psychology. However, there is not one clear definition due to its multifaceted and complex nature (Moore, Bates, Brierly-Bowers, Taaffe & Clymer, 2012). For this study, well-being is defined as a multi-dimensional construct that refers to a positive psychological state in which one experiences more positive than negative emotions interconnected to life satisfaction, meaning and purpose in life, autonomy, self-acceptance, love and connectedness, all of which may lead to a life of thriving or flourishing (Ciarrochi, Kashdan, & Harris, 2013; Diener, 1984; Diener & Seligman, 2004; Rath & Harter, 2010; Ryff & Keyes, 1995; Su, Tay & Diener, 2014). When one is flourishing or thriving in life, they report experiencing optimal well-being because they are positively functioning at their fullest range - mentally, physically, and socially (Rath & Harter, 2010; Seligman, 2011; Su et al., 2014). This definition is grounded in the literature regarding subjective and psychological well-being.

While the understanding of well-being goes back to antiquity, the concept of well-being associated with positive affect emerged through Bradburn in 1969 (Moore et al., 2012). Bradburn’s (1969) definition conceptualized that someone had well-being when there was an excess of positive over negative affect, and was the first formal connection of well-being to general happiness. Building on Bradburn’s initial foundation of the definition, Diener (1984) grouped the definitions of well-being into three categories: external criteria, such as virtue or holiness; life satisfaction, which is personally subjective; and a preponderance of positive affect over negative affect. In 1995, Ryff and
Keyes found Bradburn (1969) and Diener (1984) did not consider the psychological components of well-being, which further contributed to the complications of defining it. While it is difficult to define, two significant schools of thought form the foundation of well-being – subjective well-being and psychological well-being.

**Subjective well-being or hedonic well-being.** Subjective or hedonic well-being (SWB) is mostly concerned with what causes pleasure and happiness. Waterman (1993, as cited in Page & Vella-Brodrick, 2009) states: “According to the hedonic approach, happiness stems from efforts to maximize pleasure and minimize pain” (p. 441). This perspective focuses on happiness and defines well-being in terms of pleasure attainment and pain avoidance (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 141). Also known colloquially as happiness, SWB is also described as a positive state of mind that involves the whole life experience (Page & Vella-Brodrick, 2009). Typically, attempts at measuring SWB comes from asking people about their feelings over some various time intervals (Moore et al., 2012).

Diener, Scollon and Lucas (2004) suggest that SWB researchers measure positive affect, negative affect, life satisfaction and domain satisfaction to gain a more accurate picture of one’s SWB. Positive and negative affect reflect the basic on-going experiences in one’s life; they assess things like joy and happiness or stress and worry (Diener et al., 2004). Satisfaction is measured by the importance individuals place on conditions in their lives like success, meaning, and fulfillment; these are commonly referred to as global life judgments or life satisfaction (Diener et al., 2004). Domain satisfaction is focused on components of one’s life, such as marriage, work, health and leisure, which
are all weighted differently in importance based on the respondent (Diener et al., 2004).

Table 1 summarizes subjective well-being with its definition and measurements.

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Commonly Agreed Upon SWB Concepts</th>
<th>Definition &amp; Measurement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive &amp; Negative Affect</td>
<td>Basic on-going experiences in one’s life; assess things like joy and happiness or stress and worry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Life Satisfaction</td>
<td>Global life judgments; the importance one places on conditions in life like success, meaning and fulfillment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domain Satisfaction</td>
<td>Components in one’s life; weighted differently depending on respondent. Includes marriage, work, health and leisure</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Diener et al. (2004) recommend that in order to “obtain a complete picture of an individual’s evaluation of his or her life, more than one component must be measured” (p. 71). Subjective well-being is multi-faceted and its level may be impacted by any number of variables, including but not limited to “income, demographic variables, behavior, personality and biological influences” (Diener, 1984, p. 29).

Overall, SWB refers to the scientific study of happiness and life satisfaction (Tov & Diener, 2008). It is a construct measured in a variety of ways and in multiple domains, such as work, marriage, health, and leisure (Diener et al., 2004). Due to its complex nature, there is not a simple answer as to what leads to SWB (Diener et al., 1999). In
addition, those who adhere to the eudemonic well-being and psychological well-being paradigms may find the happiness approach of SWB is not specific in its application (Page & Vella-Brodrick, 2009; Moore et al., 2012).

**Psychological well-being or eudemonic well-being.** The hedonic approach or subjective well-being (SWB) is different from the eudemonic or psychological well-being (PWB) (Page & Vella-Brodrick, 2009). Eudemonic well-being is “embodying a value judgment about whether a person is leading a commendable life” (p. 62), which makes it more about virtue and less about an individual’s cognitive judgments of satisfaction and appraisals of mood and emotions, like SWB (Kesebir & Diener, 2008; Moore et al., 2012). According to Keyes et al. (2002), the “psychological well-being (PWB) tradition draws heavily on formulations of human development and existential challenges of life” (p. 1008). Through a synthesis of Westernized personality theories, Ryff (1989) developed measurements for psychological well-being around six dimensions that include assessments for autonomy, environmental mastery, positive relations with others, purpose in life, personal growth, and self-acceptance (Ryan and Deci, 2000).

Each dimension is tied to meeting challenges of life in order to function positively (Keyes et al., 2002). The self-acceptance dimension assesses how people feel positive about themselves even with awareness of their own limitations. The positive relations with others dimension is observed through how one seeks to develop and maintain warm and trusting interpersonal relationships with others (Keyes et al.). In addition, one’s ability to shape the environment to meet personal needs is assessed through the environmental mastery dimension. An individual who seeks a sense of self-
determination and personal authority is sustaining the autonomy dimension. Also, the ability to find meaning in one’s life through efforts and challenges is related to purpose in life dimension. The personal growth dimension is related to the ability of a person to make the most of his or her talents and capacities (Keyes et al.). These dimensions attempt to articulate what it means to be psychologically well (Ryff & Keyes, 1995). Table 2 summarizes the dimensions and the definitions that combine to create psychological well-being (Ryff & Keyes).

Table 2
Keyes, Shmotkin & Ryff (2002) Psychological Well-being Dimensions and Definitions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Commonly Agreed Upon PWB Dimensions</th>
<th>Definition and Measurement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy</td>
<td>Seeking a sense of self-determination and personal authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental Mastery</td>
<td>Ability to shape one’s environment to meet personal needs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive Relationships with Others</td>
<td>How one seeks to develop and maintain warm and trusting interpersonal relationships with others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purpose in Life</td>
<td>Ability to find meaning in one’s life through efforts and challenges</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Growth</td>
<td>Ability to make the most of one’s talents and capacities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Acceptance</td>
<td>How people feel positive about themselves even with awareness of their limitations</td>
</tr>
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</table>

One argument within the well-being community is that PWB seems to remain ambiguous, as there is a wide array of PWB conceptualizations with unexplained and
unverified theoretical foundations especially as it relates to the workplace (Dagenais-
Desmarais & Savoie, 2012). In addition, PWB’s foundation in Westernized personality
theories has critics questioning its applicability across cultural contexts (Christopher,
1999). Many of the constructs examined in PWB relate to a more Westernized view of
well-being. For example, autonomy may not be valued as a construct in some collectivist
cultures where community and teamwork is emphasized over the importance of the
individual.

Both of these concepts form the foundation of well-being and supply the
framework for the literature review in this chapter. By utilizing these two concepts, the
literature reviewed in this chapter is classified into elements of either SWB or PWB. The
I-E-O Model (Astin, 1993) discussed in the previous chapter helps to organize the
variables examined within the literature to determine how to examine well-being in
student affairs professionals.

**Brief inventory on thriving.** The Brief Inventory of Thriving (BIT) developed
by Diener et al. (2014) examines the well-being of the respondents by integrating many
of these SWB and PWB concepts into an inventory for a more holistic understanding of
well-being. Su et al. (2014) utilize the scale to predict health outcomes as well as an
assessment of one’s overall psychosocial strengths and weaknesses. The dimensions
assessed by the BIT are as follows:

(1) subjective well-being in the form of high life satisfaction and positive
feelings, (2) supportive and enriching relationships, (3) interest and
engagement in daily activities, (4) meaning and purpose in life, (5) a sense of mastery and accomplishment, and (6) optimism” (Su et al., 2014, p. 2).

The BIT is part of a larger survey instrument called the Comprehensive Instrument of Thriving (CIT). Thriving is “the state of positive functioning at its fullest range – mentally, physically and socially” (Su et al., 2014, p. 6). This 42-question survey contains the 10 BIT questions that address the dimensions listed above. Based on the recommendation from Su, a co-creator of the survey, the composite score of the BIT can be adapted to measure the well-being of an individual. In addition, the BIT offers a comprehensive framework that allows for the amalgamation of subjective and psychological well-being concepts. This study utilizes the BIT as the dependent variable to give a more holistic perspective of the well-being of the respondents beyond measurement of a single factor or variable in the context of SWB or PWB. The BIT measures more than just job satisfaction, life satisfaction or happiness level – it incorporates major constructs from both well-being approaches, which will create a benchmark that offers a more holistic picture of the well-being of student affairs professionals.

Student Affairs Professionals Literature

There is a paucity of literature related to the intersection of well-being and student affairs. Much of this literature is dated; some of the seminal works reviewed were written in the early 1980s and 1990s with one from 1980 reprinted in 2009. Due to the limited number of studies available on the well-being of student affairs professionals, this literature review includes studies that are situated within the framework of subjective
well-being and one dimension of psychological well-being. The studies are classified into categories that include positive/negative affect, life satisfaction and domain satisfaction (as seen in Table 1), as well as psychological well-being’s purpose in life. Most of the literature cited in this review mention the word well-being in its text, but well-being is a concept not holistically explored beyond job satisfaction or stress level.

The 21 studies that form the foundation of this literature review are divided according to the subjective and psychological well-being concepts as outlined in Tables 1 and 2. In order to understand how the current study is constructed, the literature review examined the empirical student affairs works with the purpose of informing the research questions. Most of the studies had a similar methodological format that incorporated personal and environmental variables and focused exclusively on student affairs professionals. In addition, these variables were enumerated and classified by the I-O-E Model (Astin, 1993) to determine which would be selected for the final analysis in the research questions. An overview of these studies and variables are in Appendix G. Due to the lack of studies centered on student affairs professionals, the review includes a few studies that consider academic administrators whose roles may be similar to student affairs professionals (Rosser, 2004). Purposefully, there are no studies in this review that focus on faculty due to the significant variance in job responsibilities and job structure.

**Life satisfaction or global life judgments.** Affiliated with subjective well-being, life satisfaction or global life judgments include measurements of subjective evaluations like success and fulfillment (Diener et al., 2004). This subjective evaluation is typically
measured in empirical works through life satisfaction scales. However, one must measure more than life satisfaction to gain a holistic picture of one’s well-being.

Anderson, Guido-DiBrito, and Morrell (2000) examined factors that influence the general life satisfaction of student affairs administrators. Their review highlights job satisfaction, inter-role conflict and stress levels. Inter-role conflict is the connection between work and non-work domains. They state job dissatisfaction and stress may play a role in the life satisfaction of administrators (Anderson et al., 2000). Due to the limited amount of studies on student affairs administrators’ job and life satisfaction, the authors reference research on faculty. However, faculty and student affairs professional roles are distinctly different in responsibility and scope within higher education, thus Anderson et al.’s (2000) comparison between these two groups should not be considered equal. Their reliance on faculty studies illustrates the need for further research specific to student affairs professionals. Through their literature review, Anderson et al. (2000) highlight the interrelationship between job satisfaction and stress; they also consider how these factors affect the general life satisfaction of student affairs administrators. Their review provides factors to consider when examining well-being, some of which are incorporated into the BIT – like life satisfaction.

Cited in Anderson et al.’s (2000) review, Blackhurst, Brandt and Kalinowski (1998) examined life satisfaction of women student affairs administrators. However, Blackhurst et al. (1998) considered life satisfaction in connection with organizational commitment and career development. Through the utilization of several previously validated scales, they surveyed 200 women who had the title of assistant director or
above. They found that position title was the only independent variable that indicated there were significant differences in life satisfaction. Their analysis revealed that senior student affairs officers were slightly more satisfied with their lives than women that held associate or assistant positions. In addition, those senior student affairs officers and directors who were in the field for 20 years or more had greater life satisfaction than women in any other group. The lowest levels of life satisfaction were found in student affairs administrators who were in associate or assistant senior student affairs officer positions for five or more years, and for women in associate and assistant director level positions for fewer than five years.

Overall, the life satisfaction of women from this study appears related to their position and time spent within their organizations. This relationship between position and time in the institution may be related to the mid-level nature of their position (Rosser & Javinar, 2003). Anderson et al. (1998) speculate the lack of advancement opportunities could be one of the reasons for the lower ranking of life satisfaction, which is a commonly identified variable of dissatisfaction in the midlevel student affairs literature (Johnsrud, Heck, & Rosser, 2000; Rosser, 2000; Rosser & Javinar, 2003).

**Job satisfaction (Domain satisfaction).** Related to subjective well-being is the concept of domain satisfaction. One of the most prominent measures of domain satisfaction in the student affairs literature is job satisfaction. Diener et al. (2004) find that domains are important for researchers who have an interest in the effect of well-being in a particular area (p. 78). They state, “…domain satisfaction scores can provide information about the way individuals construct global well-being judgments; but they
can also provide more detailed information about the specific aspects of one’s life that are going well or going poorly” (Diener et al., 2004, p. 78). As it relates to student affairs professionals, multiple studies examine the domain of job satisfaction. This is important because job satisfaction promotes practitioner well-being (Lorden, 1998).

Tseng (2004) did a meta-analysis on 25 of the 125 studies focused on student affairs professionals’ job satisfaction. The factors that most prominently influenced job satisfaction were leadership style, positive job characteristics, and higher levels of career commitment. Leadership style is whether they were relationship-oriented or task-oriented in their leadership style. Tseng (2004) hypothesized that based on the task-focused nature of student affairs work, task-oriented leadership is a better predictor of job satisfaction versus relationship-oriented leadership. In addition, nine out of the 14 positive job characteristics in the analysis strongly correlate with student affairs job satisfaction. These include extrinsic rewards, intrinsic rewards, autonomy, relationships with co-workers, job security, pay, recognition, supervision one received and the work itself. The results also indicate that a person who is committed to work within student affairs is likely to have higher job satisfaction than someone with lower commitment to work.

Austin (1985) focused on mid-level student affairs professionals and their general job satisfaction. Two hundred and sixty mid-level administrators were surveyed at one research university. Through a step-wise regression analysis of personal, job-related and environmental factors, Austin (1985) found the following were significant predictors of job satisfaction of mid-level student affairs professionals: age and gender, autonomy,
skill variety, amount of feedback from the job itself, and a caring environment. In regards to age and gender, the results indicated that older female administrators were more satisfied than the younger or male administrators.

Additionally, by utilizing Hackman and Oldham’s (1980) Job Characteristics Model, Austin’s (1985) study indicated that autonomy, skill variety, and feedback all contributed significantly to job satisfaction. These contributed to 31% of the variance with the dependent variable. Autonomy encompasses the independence, freedom and personal responsibility that is associated with making independent decisions within the workplace. Skill variety is associated with how much the job provides different activities and the ability to use different skills, which assists in creating meaningfulness. Amount of feedback is related to the direct communication about the effectiveness of their work and their contribution to the work environment. Through establishing a survey of environmental factors, Austin (1985) discovered that an “environment that is characterized by a sense of personal concern and support among and between those working within it” is the most significant factor related to job satisfaction (p. 12). A caring environment explained 11% of the variation in job satisfaction scores in the study.

Bender (1980/2009) surveyed 145 student affairs administrators to assess their level of job satisfaction and to identify factors associated with their satisfaction. The results indicated that 66% of respondents are satisfied with their jobs in student affairs, while 34% were either undecided or dissatisfied. There was no statistical significance between the genders in job satisfaction. Over 90% of the respondents indicated they felt
a personal sense of accomplishment, enjoyed working with students and felt the job they did was important (Bender, 1980/2009).

Although the satisfaction of this particular group was high, only 36% of the respondents indicated they intended to make student affairs a life-long career. Those in age group 23-36 indicated higher levels of indecision about staying in the field than those who were 37 and older. Bender (1980/2009) reported that 47% of respondents were dissatisfied with their institutions’ system for determining salary increases. In addition, 52% of men and 67% of women were dissatisfied with the level of involvement in institutional decision-making. While autonomy was not a concern for this population, these findings would indicate that there is concern with control and relationships within the environment, which in turn affect the domain of job satisfaction (Diener et al., 2014).

Similar to Bender’s (1980/2009) research approach, Malaney and Osit (1998) also issued a survey to 541 general student affairs staff at a university in the Northeast to gauge their satisfaction with their work. Their results indicated that the highest differences in mean satisfaction related to salary and physically healthful workspaces. In addition, staff wanted communication to be more open and clear with clearly defined decision-making processes, so they would be able to be involved in future decision-making. When they analyzed the results based on gender and race, they found that white staff members were more satisfied with conference release time and funding than their non-white colleagues. The most notable differences came from differences between classified and professional staff. Close to 10% of classified staff saw teamwork in their work unit as important, but only 1.5% of professional staff saw it as important. Malaney
and Osit (1998) did their study at one institution in the Northeast, so they were able to incorporate the employment categories. This would difficult to do on a widely distributed survey because there is variance in job classifications across different types of institutions. However, consideration of salary, gender, race, and involvement in decision-making as common input and environment variables is useful within general job satisfaction research (Austin, 1985; Bender, 1980/2009; Tseng, 2004).

Tarver, Canada and Lim (1999) examined the relationship between job satisfaction and locus of control, through a correlational study on 327 student affairs administrators and 199 academic administrators. This study becomes important as locus of control is a personality variable related to well-being (Tarver et al, 1999). Lucas and Diener (2008) found that personality is more “strongly associated with subjective well-being in many instances than life circumstances” (p. 75). The results indicated the strongest relationship between job satisfaction and internal locus of control existed among the older student affairs administrators, but not the older academic administrators. The results of this study are correlational and would need further analysis in order to lend insight into the variables associated with these findings. However, it does provide awareness regarding the possible impact of personality variables on well-being.

Unlike the studies mentioned above, Johnsrud, Heck and Rosser (2000) did not examine job satisfaction directly, rather they considered it as a factor in their construct of morale. Instead of looking directly a job satisfaction, Johnsrud et al. (2000) considered job satisfaction as an individual construct, while morale is associated with the group’s satisfaction with the work environment. Johnsrud et al. (2000) suggest that morale is a
multidimensional construct, which includes job satisfaction as well as constructs like enthusiasm, commitment or loyalty to the institution, willingness to work, and dedication to common goals.

To further clarify the findings of Johnsrud et al. (2000), Rosser and Javina (2003) directly examined midlevel student affairs leaders and their intentions to leave by examining their satisfaction and morale. They found that professional development opportunities, perceptions of discrimination, working conditions, and department and external relationships had the strongest influences on levels of satisfaction and morale within the population. Their findings indicated midlevel student affairs professional’s relationships with students, faculty and the public were not as significant as compared to their relationships with co-workers and supervisors. Overall, the results of this study indicated that the perceptions that student affairs professionals have of their work life have a direct and significant impact on both satisfaction and morale (Rosser & Javinar, 2003, p. 822).

Like Johnsrud et al. (2000), and her earlier study with Javinar (2003), Rosser (2004) examined midlevel leaders’ work-life, satisfaction, morale and the intentions to leave the field. Through a national sample of 1,966 surveys, Rosser (2004) determined the impact of work-life factors on satisfaction, morale and intent to leave. While satisfaction is not the dependent variable of this study, it lends further insight into how one may situate satisfaction within the context of the student affairs research. Rosser’s (2004) approach to situating satisfaction separate from morale is different from Johnsrud et al.’s (2000) combination of morale and satisfaction four years earlier. Rosser’s (2004)
interest related to how satisfaction affects intention to leave. Through structural equation modeling, the results indicated that satisfaction had a significant effect on morale and on intent to leave. However, morale had a direct effect on intent to leave, but not on satisfaction. This finding relates to how satisfaction is perceived as an individual quality within the work units (Rosser, 2004). Midlevel leaders’ degree of satisfaction was also powerfully impacted by their perceptions of their professional and institutional work-life, which included the variables of career support, recognition for competence, external relationships, review/intervention of external processes, perceptions of discrimination, working conditions, and intra-departmental relations (Rosser, 2004, p. 330).

The work-life variables of perceptions of discrimination, working conditions, and intra-departmental relations did not provide an intervening effect on satisfaction in the study. As it related to perceptions of discrimination, Rosser (2004) attributed these findings to a more direct impact on intent to leave. In other words, those who experience discrimination are less likely to stay and maintain low satisfaction or morale if they felt subjected to discrimination. In regards to working conditions, Rosser (2004) postulated that those who worked in mid-level positions expected working condition deficiencies and are therefore more motivated by the intrinsic nature of the work. While intra-departmental relations had no significant relationship to satisfaction in this particular study, Rosser (2004) recommended that it still be considered an important work-life variable.

Mark and Smith (2012) also discussed the effects of stress, job characteristics, and coping on mental health and job satisfaction of university employees in the United
Kingdom. While their study is focused on the United Kingdom, their findings have implications for those who work in higher education in the United States. Mark and Smith (2012) found that high job demands were the only factor that significantly lowered job satisfaction; they also discovered that decision authority, intrinsic rewards, skill discretion and high social support were factors that predicted significantly higher job satisfaction. All of these variables are associated with job characteristics that should be considered for further study, as they are similar to those found in studies by Anderson et al. (1998), Austin (1985), Blackhurst et al. (1999), Rosser (2004) and Tseng (2004).

**Positive and negative affect.** In addition to domain or job satisfaction, positive and negative affect are also related to subjective well-being and reflect the immediate relationship to the good and bad conditions of one’s life (Diener et al., 2004, p. 78). Negative affect concepts highlighted in student affairs studies are stress, anxiety, depression or burnout; however, rarely have the studies addressed positive affect (Lagana, 2007; Martin, 2008; Rothmann & Essenko, 2007; Scott, 1992; Ward, 1995).

Berwick (1992) examined job satisfaction and hardiness in her study, but she utilized both positive and negative affect as independent variables to predict stress within the sample of student affairs administrators. Through a survey of 240 respondents, she found that job satisfaction was negatively correlated with three stress subscales, inferring that those with “higher levels of job satisfaction experience less work-related stress” (p. 14). In addition, she found that “work-related stress seemed to decrease with increased hardiness, job satisfaction, and commitment to the organization” (p. 16). Through a multiple regression analysis, she also determined that those who like their job, have been
in student affairs longer, score high on hardiness, are committed to their organization, work at smaller institutions, and are not in dual-career relationships will experience less work-related stress. Overall, she found that job satisfaction was the most significant predictor of work-related stress.

While Berwick examined the larger population of student affairs professionals, Scott (1992) studied the stress of chief student affairs officers (CSAOs), focusing more on the sources of stress and coping strategies. The study particularly highlights the gender differences between levels of stress and what causes the stress, as well as variation in coping strategies. Through a survey of 60 CSAOs, Scott (1992) determined individuals who were CSAOs at large schools (20,000+ students) were least stressed compared to CSAOs at smaller schools (1,000 students or less), who were the most stressed. In addition, female CSAOs showed higher levels of stress on 15 stress items, while males showed higher levels of stress on only eight items. Stress items included statements that could cause stress in the work and home environment like “unresolved interpersonal conflict with co-workers” and “death or serious illness of a family member or close friend.” The highest ranked coping strategy for male CSAOs was “involvement with a hobby” while the women ranked “arranging a quiet space at home” as their number one coping strategy. While gender was a significant factor in this study, Scott (1992) found that age and years of experience were not significant to explain differences in stress.

Similar to Berwick (1992) and Scott (1992), Ward (1995) was also interested in the stress of student affairs professionals, and how that might relate to the problem of
attrition in the field. She was particularly focused on role conflict and role ambiguity (together, referred to as role stress), which occurs “when an individual is confronted with incompatible or unclear expectations and thus cannot and will not behave in a prescribed way” (Ward, 1995, p. 36). Role ambiguity occurs when there is a lack of clear expectations and communication to guide one’s behavior. Role conflict happens when there are two or more incompatible expectations for one’s behavior. For example, a professional may be expected to address a student who violated a policy the professional does not agree with due to their personal values. When a professional’s role regularly conflicts with personal values in a higher education environment, the internal and external struggle may lead to attrition, anxiety, tension, and job dissatisfaction for the professional (Ward, 1995).

Through a survey of 158 student affairs professionals, Ward (1995) found that role ambiguity was a more reliable predictor of job dissatisfaction and propensity to leave than “role conflict, career mobility, work place formalization, task overload or dissonance between student development philosophies” (p. 41). This finding would suggest that leadership should establish clear expectations and communication regarding how staff should conduct themselves in the workplace. In addition, the study also indicated that those who are “satisfied with their level of decision-making autonomy are less likely to experience role stress and leave their positions” (p. 42). Autonomy becomes important in this study as it also was in Austin (1985), Bender (1980/2009), and Tseng (2004).

Rothmann and Essenko (2007) assessed the level of optimism, burnout, and ill health in their study of higher education support staff in South Africa. They examined job
characteristics that included job demands and job resources. While this study was focused on South Africa, their study has application to student affairs staff in the United States. Through structural equation modeling, they determined a lack of organizational support (support of colleagues and supervisors, role clarity, feedback and communication) is moderately related to exhaustion when one is overloaded. In addition, a lack of organizational support and growth opportunities were moderately related to cynicism. The growth opportunities factor included items assessing constructs like variety, autonomy, opportunities for growth and control on the job (Rothmann & Essenko, 2007, p. 140). Growth opportunities are negatively related to psychologically ill health, which means one’s ability to grow within their position may curb ill health. Additional results indicated those who perceived low job demands and high levels of job resources like organizational support are least likely to display burnout and ill health. A workplace that practices organizational support and offers growth opportunities for staff may have healthier employees, less cynicism, and a decrease in exhaustion.

Also, Rothmann and Essenko (2007) considered optimism as a mediator to stress. They define optimism as “expectancy that the future will be good, while pessimism is the generalized expectancy that the future will be bad” (Carver & Scheier, 2002 as cited in Rothmann & Essenko, 2007, p. 138). Optimism contributes to the subjective well-being of people after they go through significant life changes; in addition, optimism also lends resistance to depressive symptoms (Carver & Scheier, 2002, as cited in Rothmann & Essenko, 2007). They found optimism did not have an interaction effect with job demands or lack of job resources, but they did find that optimism had a direct effect on
exhaustion and cynicism of participants. One interpretation of these results could be that it does not matter how optimistic the participants are because job demands and lack of resources had too great an impact on their health; however, optimistic professionals may be less exhausted and cynical if job demands and lack of resources have not depleted them (Rothmann & Essenko, 2007).

Lagana (2007) examined how involvement with staff development activities may negatively affect one’s Margin in Life (MIL) and possibly produce higher levels of stress. MIL is defined as the amount of power one has available to handle stress (Lagana, 2007, p. 327). Through a self-developed questionnaire, the Professional Development Questionnaire (PDQ), Lagana (2007) completed a survey analysis and correlational study to determine how involvement in professional development activities may impact an individual’s MIL score. Lagana (2007) found no statistically significant relationship between involvement in professional development outlets and activities or between age with MIL. The results of this study may indicate that professional development may not draw upon one’s MIL, but instead has a positive impact. The study has significant limitations with sample size, one university sample, and lack of consideration for other variables outside of age and professional development activities. However, it does provide insight into how professional development activities may either inhibit or enhance the well-being and satisfaction of student affairs professionals (Lagana, 2007).

Martin (2008) examined the service climate that is developing in higher education and its possible impact of increased stress, tension and pressure on staff. The study is based in Australia, but has application to the United States as the philosophy in higher
education shifts to student as customer (Kreuter, 2014). Through structural equation modeling, Martin (2008) discovered something contrary to anecdotal evidence. Employees in a strongly emphasized customer service climate had lower levels of job tension, increased job satisfaction, and reduced psychological dysfunction. She speculated that this could be because of the high levels of pride associated with a service climate; the staff received fewer complaints and had fewer issues because they are serving their customers well. However, she does acknowledge there could be some problems with goodness of fit, and the results may not be generalizable beyond the one studied university.

Positive and negative affect are mostly related to the emotional health of the individuals within the studies. Other than Martin (2008) and Lagana (2007), most of the studies confirmed that the work environment within higher education may cause stress, anxiety, tension, and lower job satisfaction. Identifying factors that increase negative affect within the institution is important in discerning what factors contribute to well-being.

**Purpose in life.** “Meaning in life is the degree to which an individual makes sense of and sees significance in their life and believes his or her life to have an overarching purpose” (Steger, 2009, as cited in Steger, Sheline, Merriman & Kashdan, 2013, p. 245). Meaning and purpose are related to the feeling that generally what one is doing with their life is valuable and worthwhile (Seligman, 2011). Diener et al. (2014) measure the dimension of meaning by assessing one’s clear sense of purpose, their satisfaction with their purpose and the ability to identify what gives their life meaning.
Keyes et al. (2002) define it as the ability to find meaning in one’s life through efforts and challenges. While this concept does not have a prominent focus within the student affairs literature, it is important to the general well-being of student affairs professionals (Ryff & Keyes, 1995; Diener & Seligman, 2004; Ciarrochi et al., 2013; Huppert & So, 2013).

Moran (2001) published a review of clinical psychological research related to purpose in life. This review made specific recommendations for student affairs administrators while drawing upon Frankl (1959) as well as Crumbaugh and Maholick (1964). Utilizing their theories as a framework, Moran (2001) states “many of the constructs related to purpose in life are directly or indirectly related to aspects of identity development as well as to physical and psychological well-being…” (p. 271). Moran (2001) offers practical advice for student affairs professionals who are guiding their students in their quest for identifying purpose by providing implications and practical suggestions for these professionals. She stated, “Student affairs practitioners should spend time reflecting on their own values, beliefs, and purpose in life in order to be able to effectively lead students in doing the same” (p. 274).

Craft and Hochella (2010) took Moran’s work a step further and examined purpose in life of student affairs professionals through phenomenological qualitative analysis. The researchers were interested in exploring the faith development of student affairs professionals. Through interviews with 24 student affairs professionals, the interviewees indicated three specific sources of purpose. These sources include the following: spirituality and/or religion, individual pursuits and development, focus on
others. However, Craft and Hochella (2010) were intrigued by the large amount of the student affairs administrators in their study who were unable to identify a purpose for their lives. Spirituality and/or religion is tied to “obtaining spiritual and/or religious knowledge as well as living in submission and obedience to a higher power” (p. 4). Those who identified this as their sense of purpose did not need to identify it, as it was inherent to their belief system (Craft & Hochella, 2010). Those who find their purpose in individual pursuits and development find purpose in their identified goals (e.g. being a positive role model) or balancing roles (e.g. career and personal life). The participants whose purpose came from a focus on others were dedicated to helping and caring for others. Those who were unable to identify their purpose claimed they had not thought much about it much or had not determined some “big purpose” (Craft & Hochella).

In line with Craft and Hochella’s (2010) findings, Seifert and Holman-Harmon (2009) offer suggestions for student affairs professionals to help themselves and their students to discern life’s bigger questions. Through a survey of 1,500 student affairs professionals, Seifert and Holman-Harmon (2009) examined the relationship between personal sense of purpose and spiritual well-being, along with demographic variables. They found

a practitioner’s purpose in life had a statistically larger positive effect on the extent to which they engage in community building, modeling authenticity, and reflective practices with their students than their levels of spiritual well-being, existential well-being and religious well-being (p. 16).
In other words, a sense of purpose cannot be underestimated in the work of student affairs. This sense of purpose has a true impact on the work staff do with students on a day-to-day basis, more than spiritual/religious/existential well-being. Seifert and Holman-Harmon (2009) offer different suggestions for practitioners including examining their own life to discover purpose, and changing the discourse from spirituality to inner development.

Purpose and meaning are important to well-being (Diener et al., 2014; Moran, 2001; Seligman, 2011; Steger et al., 2009). These concepts are captured in the research on well-being as important contributors to one’s subjective and psychological well-being. The research within student affairs is limited in its exploration of purpose and meaning, as it is with other areas of individual well-being. Craft and Hochella (2010) point to a concern within the field that many student affairs professionals whom they interviewed were unable to identify their purpose, and the research by Siefert and Holman-Harmon (2009) offer suggestions to help develop it. This finding leads to further questions of how this lack of clarity may affect a professional’s overall well-being.

**Summary**

Holistic well-being is a complex construct with a foundation in subjective and psychological well-being. While there are limited studies on the holistic well-being of student affairs professionals, there are ample studies that provide variables for consideration in the examination of well-being within the population. As illustrated by the literature review, life satisfaction as an element of subjective well-being is considered by student affairs literature. However, job satisfaction (related to domain satisfaction)
and positive and negative affect had six or more studies that applied these elements. Psychological well-being is not as prominent in the student affairs literature, but three studies highlighted the element of purpose in life. By utilizing empirical research and the I-E-O Model as the foundation, well-being in student affairs professionals will be examined using inputs and environment variables while considering subjective and psychological well-being constructs (see Appendix G). Each of the reviewed studies were associated with some aspect of well-being, but none of them wholly captured both psychological and subjective well-being concepts. This study will capture both well-being concepts and provide an empirical foundation for the holistic study of well-being in the student affairs population. The next chapter describes the methodology used and how the researcher utilizes the inputs and environment variables highlighted in these studies to understand the output of well-being in this population.
Chapter Three

While current trends over the past year indicate a 28% growth in staffing for student support services (Carlson, 2014), an understanding of what factors may impact a professional’s well-being over the course of their career may offer insight into the ways to support this growing population’s well-being and retention. As mentioned, Tull, Hirt and Saunders (2009) estimate that departures from the student affairs profession range from 20% to 40% within the first six years of the career. Bender (1980/2009) also found that 66% of student affairs administrators were satisfied with their positions, but only 35% intended to work in student affairs over their entire career.

This chapter outlines the methodological procedures as well as the research design utilized to study well-being in student affairs administrators. The chapter specifically focuses on research questions, population, sample, data collection, instrumentation, and the statistical methodology implemented in the course of the data analysis. This quantitative approach, using student affairs professionals and their scores on the Brief Inventory on Thriving (BIT), Work-Related Quality of Life (WRQoL) factors and demographic variables, is intended to explore the overall well-being of the student affairs population. The study will examine variance in well-being as it relates to time in field and the individual’s position within the institution. In addition, the correlation between the WRQoL score and the BIT score will determine if the
instruments are measuring distinct, yet related concepts. Lastly, this quantitative study will consider five factors/variables from the Work-Related Quality of Life (WRQoL) scale to determine whether these instruments predict the well-being score of the population as measured by the BIT using hierarchical regression. To address these areas of exploration, a survey consisting of these two established scales and an assessment of demographic variables was electronically distributed to the sample population.

**Research Questions**

Within the context of this study, the following research questions are addressed:

1) What is the well-being composite score of student affairs professionals? How does this score vary by time in field? By position level?

2) Is there a significant correlation between the well-being score and Work-Related Quality of Life score?

3) How do Work-Related Quality of Life factors (Job Career Satisfaction, Control at Work, Home-Work Interface, Stress at Work, and Overall Quality of Working Life) and demographic variables (Position Level, Race, Gender, Plans, and Relationship Status) predict the well-being composite score on the BIT?

**Sample**

Student affairs administrators occupy various positions in higher education in the United States and abroad. Those in the profession of student affairs may serve in different areas, such as academic advising, student activities, housing, first-year experience programs, career services, international programs, health services, and disability services, to name a few. Therefore, the sample of student affairs professionals
for this study was obtained utilizing a combination of convenience sampling and snowball sampling to capture the diverse population. The survey was distributed via Survey Monkey to 5,190 participants via a direct email database comprised of National Association of Student Personnel Administrators (NASPA) members. In addition, survey links were posted on Facebook to student affairs groups (e.g. Student Affairs Professionals, Mid-Level Student Affairs Professionals), tweeted via the researcher’s Twitter account to different higher education affiliates (e.g. Association for the Study of Higher Education, American Association of University Women), as well as sent to various student affairs list servers, including Kent State University Higher Education Alumni, George Mason’s University Life group, and Student Affairs Assessment Leaders. The total useable sample size was N=2,414, which was an email response rate of 46%. Some respondents were omitted as they contained incomplete answers to questions that were necessary for the final analysis. Most of the incomplete answers were associated with the demographic variables that were not imputable. The description of the sample obtained for this study is outlined is in Table 3.

Table 3
Description of Study Sample of Student Affairs Professionals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Variable</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Position Level</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entry</td>
<td>719</td>
<td>29.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Midlevel</td>
<td>1178</td>
<td>48.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior</td>
<td>332</td>
<td>13.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chief Student Affairs Officer</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>1609</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
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<td>30.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variable</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transgender</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prefer not to answer</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>.5</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>On-call Responsibilities</th>
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<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>968</td>
<td>40.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>1412</td>
<td>59.3</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>Highest Degree Earned</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High School or GED</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some college, no degree</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trade/Technical/Vocational Training</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associates</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelors</td>
<td>256</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters</td>
<td>1,699</td>
<td>71.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctorate</td>
<td>394</td>
<td>16.5</td>
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<th>Salary Range</th>
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<tr>
<td>$19,000 and below</td>
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<tr>
<td>$20,000 to $29,999</td>
<td>117</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>$30,000 to $39,999</td>
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<td>$40,000 to $49,999</td>
<td>538</td>
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<tr>
<td>$50,000 to $59,999</td>
<td>342</td>
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<td>$60,000 to $69,999</td>
<td>253</td>
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<td>$70,000 to $79,999</td>
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<td>$80,000 to $89,999</td>
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<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$90,000 to $99,999</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$100,000 to $149,000</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>6.4</td>
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<td>$150,000 or more</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prefer not to answer</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>1.9</td>
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<tr>
<th>Region</th>
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<tr>
<td>North East</td>
<td>533</td>
<td>22.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Midwest</td>
<td>609</td>
<td>25.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South</td>
<td>815</td>
<td>34.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West</td>
<td>381</td>
<td>16.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alaska/Hawaii</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Out of Country</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>1.2</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt;=29</td>
<td>801</td>
<td>33.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-37</td>
<td>782</td>
<td>33.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38+</td>
<td>785</td>
<td>33.2</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>Years in Field</th>
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<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt;=4</td>
<td>774</td>
<td>32.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-11</td>
<td>836</td>
<td>34.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12+</td>
<td>802</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Race/Ethnicity</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>American Indian or Alaskan Native</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian or Pacific Islander</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Black or African American  259  10.7
Hispanic or Latino     169  7.0
White/Caucasian       1,897  78.6
Prefer not to answer  27   1.1
Other                 31   1.3

Top Five Types of Institutions
4 Year Public School  397   16.4
4 Year Public Non-Profit Not Religious  281   11.6
4 Year Public Not Religious  249   10.3
4 Year                    213   8.8
4 Year Private Non-profit Not Religious  190   7.9

Primary Functional Area
Academic Advising Programs  111   4.7
Administrative Support     59   2.5
Adult Learner Programs & Services  19   .8
Alcohol, Tobacco & Other Drug Programs  11   .5
Assessment Services       40   1.7
Auxiliary Services         12   .5
Campus Activities Programs 201   8.3
Campus Information & Visitor Services  3   .1
Campus Religious & Spiritual Programs  9   .4
Career Services            78   3.2
Chief Student Affairs Officer (e.g. VPSA)  143   5.9
Clinical Health Services  18   .7
College Unions              22   .9
Commuter & Off Campus Programs  8   .3
Conference & Event Programs  6   .2
Counseling Services        40   1.7
Dean of Students            58   2.4
Dining Service Programs     3   .1
Disability Resources & Services  31   1.3
Education Abroad Programs & Services  6   .2
Financial Aid Programs      15   .6
Fraternity & Sorority Life Advising Programs  56   2.3
Grad & Professional Student Programs & Services  53   2.2
Health Promotion Services  45   1.9
Housing & Residential Life Programs  502  20.8
International Student Programs & Services  23   1.0
Internship Programs        2   .1
Learning Assistance Programs  12   .5
Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual & Transgender Programs  15   .6
Master’s Level Student Affairs Prep Program  5   .2
Multicultural Student Programs & Services  77   3.2
Orientation Programs       60   2.5
Parent & Family Programs   6   .2
Recreational Sports Programs  32   1.3
Registrar Programs & Services  21   .9
Service-Learning Programs  32   1.3
Sexual Assault & Relationship Violence Prevention Programs  15   .6
Student Conduct Programs   101   4.2
Data Collection Procedures and Protocol

Participants were contacted via email or social media postings to participate (see Appendix A), which took them to the link of the informed consent form (see Appendix B). This form notified participants of the “risks” associated with completing the 95 item anonymous survey and asked participants to acknowledge the risks before taking the assessment. Those who elected to take the assessment were directed to the first questions, and those who opted out were sent to a page thanking them for their time.
The initial survey was distributed on December 1, 2014; a follow-up email was sent on January 5, 2015. The survey received 474 responses on the first night of its deployment with 1,969 responses complete by December 8, 2014. Over 3,043 respondents began or attempted the survey with the final N = 2,414, which is a direct email response rate of 46%. The survey closed on January 12, 2015 at 9:33 pm.

Preliminary power analyses determined that a power of 80% is a reasonable guideline in order to reject the null hypothesis and a small effect size is .02; there are approximately 14 predictors. A minimum sample size with a .05 probability level would be approximately 926 respondents (Soper, 2014; Warner, 2013). Sheehan (2004, as cited in Schmidt, Strachota, & Conceicao, 2006) found that on-line surveys average a 36.83% response rate. The survey received almost two and half times the number of responses needed for the analysis.

**Measures**

Two previously validated instruments are used in this study: the Comprehensive Inventory of Thriving, which contains the questions for the Brief Inventory of Thriving (Diener et al., 2014), and Work-Related Quality of Life Survey (Easton & Van Laar, 2012). Both are open-sourced instruments that are permitted for use in non-commercial research. An email outlining the purpose of the study was sent to Quality of Working Life organization and a response was received approving use of the survey (see Appendix C). In addition, the Comprehensive Inventory of Thriving website states: “Permission to use the scales is granted for free to all professionals (researchers and practitioners) if the scales are used for noncommercial purposes. Appropriate credit should be given to the
authors of the scale” (Diener et al., 2014). The lead author, Rong Su, was contacted regarding use of a composite score on the CIT or the BIT in the analysis. Due to the complex structure of the factors on the CIT, Su recommended a composite score only be used for the BIT and not the CIT (see Appendix F). For future research, the CIT analysis should occur through more sophisticated methods like structural equation modeling (Personal Communication, 2015).

**Work-Related Quality of Life Survey (WRQoL).** The purpose of the Work-Related Quality of Life Scale is to “capture perceptions of the working environment and employees’ responses to them” (Edwards, Van Laar, Easton & Kinsman, 2009, p. 207). Through the use of 24 questions, the instrument measures seven factors, including General Well-being, Home-Work Interface, Job Career Satisfaction, Control at Work, Working Conditions, Stress at Work, and Overall Quality of Working Life. Respondents indicate their level of agreement with statements using a range from Strongly Disagree (1) to Strongly Agree (5). The instrument is in Appendix E. The assessment includes three questions scored in reverse due to negative phrasing. This instrument has been validated in the United Kingdom in a variety of contexts including health care and higher education.

Edwards et al. (2009) found the support for a good fit of the WRQoL sub-scale structure within the context of higher education in the United Kingdom (CFI = .93, GFI = .92, NFI = .93 and RMSEA = .06). The overall Cronbach’s alpha co-efficient on the 23-item scale (omitting the overall quality of work life question) was .94, which is excellent (Edwards et al., 2009). The correlations between items on the survey ranged from .41 at
the lowest and .85 at the highest. Edwards et al. (2009) ran a first order and second order comparison between the measures and found that the multidimensional model has a significantly better fit than the uni-dimensional model ($\chi^2 (9) = 552.54, p < .01$). The sub-scale reliability of the six factors was good, but Edwards et al. (2009) had concerns about the low correlations with the Stress at Work and Control at Work sub-scales (.27). They propose further research to investigate this relationship. Overall, the 23 items are “substantially measuring the same underlying concept and indicates that the scale could be appropriately used with both individuals and other employee groups (DeVellis, 2003, as cited in Edwards et al., 2009, p. 216).

For the purposes of the study, five of the seven factors were chosen for the final regression equation. Reliability tests were run on each one of the sub-scales of the WRQoL scale and the sample population’s responses. Since this scale had been validated on several United Kingdom universities, the results of this study’s Cronbach alphas were compared to the Easton and Van Laar’s United Kingdom university samples in Table 4. In addition, the means and standard deviations are displayed for the current sample, as well as an explanation of the percentile range for the particular score. Important to note are the reliability scores of the five factors of interest for this study; they are Job Career Satisfaction, Control at Work, Home-Work Interface, Stress at Work and Overall Quality of Working Life.

**Job Career Satisfaction (JCS).** The Job Career Satisfaction (JCS) variable contains 6 items and measures “the level to which the workplace provides a person with the best things at work – the things that make them feel good, such as a sense of
achievement, high self-esteem and fulfillment of job potential (Easton & Van Laar, 2012, p. 15). It is generally associated with how happy one is with the ability to do their work (Easton & Van Laar, 2012). The Cronbach’s alpha for this sample is .82, compared to Easton and Van Laar’s result of nine UK universities at .86. This indicates a very good level of reliability (De Vellis, 1991).

**Control at Work (CAW).** The Control at Work (CAW) variable contains three items and measures “the level at which an employee feels they can exercise what they consider to be an appropriate level of control within the work environment” (Easton & Van Laar, 2014, p. 16). Similar to the Diener, et al.’s (2014) Comprehensive Instrument on Thriving (CIT), it measures the construct of autonomy. However, this construct was not measured by the BIT, so measuring it with the WRQoL survey minimizes the possibility of multicollinearity. The Cronbach’s alpha for this sample is .82, which is higher than the Easton and Van Laar’s sample at .72. The reliability for this sample is very good (DeVellis, 1991).

**Home-work interface (HWI).** The Home-Work Interface (HWI) contains three items and measures respondents’ agreement regarding whether “the organization understands and tries to help with pressures outside of work” (Easton & Van Laar, 2014, p. 14). This particular factor addresses “work-life balance and reflects the extent to which the employer is perceived to support the employees’ home lives” (p. 14). The Cronbach’s alpha for the student affairs administrator sample is .81, and the United Kingdom universities’ Cronbach’s alpha indicates .78. The reliability of this scale for this sample is very good (DeVellis, 1991).
**Stress at work (SAW).** Two items that measure how a respondent experiences stress within the workplace represent the Stress at Work (SAW) factor. This factor score is determined by “the extent to which an individual perceives they have excessive pressures and feels stress at work” (Easton & Van Laar, 2014, p. 19). The Cronbach’s alpha for the current sample population is .78, and the United Kingdom universities’ Cronbach’s is .82. The reliability of this scale for the sample population is respectable (DeVellis, 1991).

**Overall Quality of Working Life.** The final measured variable within the WRQoL survey is the overall satisfaction with the quality of their working life. This is measured by the final question on the 25 item survey, and has no Cronbach’s alpha because it is a singular question. However, the sample’s response to this question captures their overall satisfaction with their work-life; this has significant implications for student affairs administrator’s well-being, as will be discussed.

**General well-being.** The other factor measured by the WRQoL scale that is not included in this analysis because of multicollinearity is the General Well-being Scale (GWB). The GWB subscale and the BIT both measure similar concepts; this strong relationship is evident with the correlation of .81 between these two scales. The GWB scale assesses the “extent to which an individual feels good or content with their life as a whole…which is influenced by work” (Easton & Van Laar, 2014, p. 13). The BIT measures a “broad range of psychological well-being constructs that represents a holistic view of positive functioning” (Su et al., 2014, p. 1). It goes beyond the work-life context
Table 4  
*The Six Sub-scales of the Work-related Quality of Life Scale and Alpha Co-efficients Compared*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-scale</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Measure of:</th>
<th>No. Items</th>
<th>Example item</th>
<th>UK University Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
<th>Current Sample Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
<th>Sample Mean</th>
<th>Current Sample’s Percentile</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Job and career satisfaction</td>
<td>JCS</td>
<td>Job and career satisfaction</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>I have the opportunity to use my abilities at work.</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>22.07</td>
<td>60th</td>
<td>4.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>General well-being</td>
<td>GWB</td>
<td>Everyday happiness and satisfaction</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>I am satisfied with my life.</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>22.94</td>
<td>60th</td>
<td>4.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Home-work interface*</td>
<td>HWI</td>
<td>Accommodating family and work commitments</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>My manager actively promotes flexible working hours/patterns.</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td>11.23</td>
<td>60th</td>
<td>2.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Stress at work*</td>
<td>SAW</td>
<td>Demands in the workplace</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>I often feel under pressure at work.</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>6.40</td>
<td>50th</td>
<td>2.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Control at work*</td>
<td>CAW</td>
<td>Level of control employees feel they have over decisions at work</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>I am involved in decisions that affect me in my own area of work.</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>11.08</td>
<td>60th</td>
<td>2.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Working conditions</td>
<td>WCS</td>
<td>Physical working environment</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>The working conditions are satisfactory.</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>7.65</td>
<td>60th-.70th</td>
<td>1.55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*indicates measures used in this study
and examines one’s holistic well-being. The BIT is also the dependent variable that is examined.

**Conditions at work (CAW).** In addition, the Conditions at Work (CAW) factor was also omitted from the final analysis because it focused on issues such as lighting, dust and fumes that may come from working in a more industrial environment. Student affairs administrators typically work within an office environment and their exposure to occupational health and safety issues is much lower than those who are working in factories and other types of manual labor environments.

Table 4 also compares the United Kingdom reliability findings to the United States reliability findings of the WRQoL scale. All Cronbach alphas are in the respectable, excellent, or very good range for the United States’ sample. While the United Kingdom higher education environment is culturally different than the United States’ colleges and universities, it appears that the results are valid within the context of both cultures.

The biggest difference between Cronbach’s alpha appears between the Control at Work variable. The greater cultural emphasis on autonomy in America could explain why it tests more reliable in the States than in the United Kingdom from .72 to .82. In fact, comparing the means of the United Kingdom subscales to the current sample, the current sample scored higher on all means than those in the United Kingdom except Working Conditions. Further analysis of this lower score (3.45 to 2.55) would be necessary to determine why working conditions are perceived to be lower in the United States than in the United Kingdom; this is beyond the scope of the current study. All but
one of the current mean scores would indicate that student affairs professionals in the United States have a better quality of working life than the mixed university employee sample in the United Kingdom.

**Brief Inventory on Thriving (BIT).** This ten-item instrument developed by Diener et al. (2014) was developed with two specific goals in mind:

1. to measure the broad range of psychological well-being constructs and represent a holistic view of positive functioning; 2. to predict important health outcomes that are useful for researchers and health practitioners. (Su et al., 2014, p. 1).

This instrument contains six subscales and measures different dimensions of positive functioning as indicated by the literature. These dimensions are:

“(1) subjective well-being (SWB) in the form of high life satisfaction and positive feelings, (2) supportive and enriching relationships, (3) interest and engagement in daily activities, (4) meaning and purpose in life, (5) a sense of mastery and accomplishment, (6) optimism (Su et al., 2014, p. 3).

Participants indicate their level of agreement with statements by indicating their agreement on a Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree to 5 = Strongly Agree) as part of a larger assessment called the Comprehensive Inventory of Thriving (CIT). The 10 questions for the BIT are embedded in the larger CIT inventory. This instrument is in Appendix D.

Su et al. (2014) have recently validated the survey through testing on four samples with one retest on the same sample. The BIT displayed good internal consistency across
all four of the samples with alpha coefficients above .90 for all four cross-validation samples, and had a test-retest validity of .83 on the fifth assessment (Su et al., 2014).

“All 10 items appeared to be good indicators of the scale, with item loadings ranging from .58 to .84” (Su et al., 2014, p. 13). While this instrument has not been utilized in a particular work setting, Su et al. (2014) indicate that it could be applied in an organizational context to “enhance employee psychological well-being and relevant work outcomes” (p.20). Table 5 displays the questions of the BIT, the sample’s mean responses and standard deviations. In addition, it compares the BIT score of the sample to the norm as reported by the researchers. Overall, the sample scored the lowest on “feeling a sense of belonging in the community” and scored highest on “succeeding by putting the mind to the task.”

**Demographic Data.** In order to answer the research questions regarding well-being and work-life, the survey gathered information regarding one’s time in the field and position at the institution. Respondents entered the number of years they had been in the field to give maximum flexibility to determine distribution of groups in the analysis. It was explained that they should consider two years of graduate school as equal to one year, which is standard Placement Exchange protocol for NASPA when candidates begin their job search. Respondents were asked to round up or down from the six month mark. After a thorough cleaning of the data, three age groups were created through the binning of 12+ Years (n = 801). In addition, respondents were asked to self-report their position function in SPSS. The groups created were: <=4 Years (n = 772), 5-11 Years (n = 835)
### Table 5

*Item Statistics for the Brief Inventory of Thriving (BIT): Means, Standard Deviations, and Comparison*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Corresponding Dimension</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>BIT Norm</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>My life has a clear sense of purpose</td>
<td>Meaning &amp; Purpose</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am optimistic about my future</td>
<td>Optimism</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My life is going well</td>
<td>Life Satisfaction</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel good most of the time</td>
<td>Positive Affect</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What I do in life is valuable and worthwhile</td>
<td>Self-worth</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can succeed if I put my mind to it</td>
<td>Self-efficacy</td>
<td>4.36</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am achieving most of my goals</td>
<td>Accomplishment</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In most activities I feel energized</td>
<td>Engagement</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are people who appreciate me as a person</td>
<td>Support</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel a sense of belonging in my community</td>
<td>Belonging</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total BIT Score</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.71</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

level in the organization. The names of these designations were based on levels requested by NASPA when members complete their membership application. Based on
the well-being and student affairs literature, additional information was collected on other variables, including: gender, age, race/ethnicity, highest degree attained, time at current institution, region, salary range, on-call responsibilities, relationship status, type of institution, future plans, and overall health rating.

The demographic data in the final analysis is listed in Table 3 of this chapter and were examined in a regression equation as follows: “Plans” included four choices for the respondents and were coded to reflect the following: 1 = Leave the career of profession; 2 = Leave my current institution; 3 = Leave my current position; 4 = None of the above. Position level variables were also examined; dummy variable were created and entry, senior and chief levels were entered, with mid-level acted as the reference group. Dummy variables are essentially “an artificial variable created to represent an attribute with two or more distinct categories/levels” (Skrivanek, 2009, p. 1). The dummy variable categories were created for position levels to consider whether each level had a significant relationship to well-being. Race was examined, with the classification predictor of white and non-white. Gender was also included with women coded as the majority due to their large numbers in the study (n = 1,609 female vs. n = 760 male, transgender, or prefer not to answer). In addition, those who indicated they were in a significant relationships represented the variable relationship status if they were married, partnered or in a civil union. Finally, salary was also considered, as respondents were asked to select in $9,999 increments their current salary from “$19,000 and below” to “$150,000 and above.”
Data Analysis

This study utilized several multivariate methods to answer the associated research questions. All data was analyzed using SPSS Version 22 and the PROCESS macros (Hayes, 2014). The following section outlines these methods and how they were utilized to analyze the data.

Checking assumptions. Prior to examining the specific research questions, several tests were performed to ensure that the data are appropriate for multivariate analyses.

First, the researcher examined the data for univariate normality by checking for skewness and Kurtosis, as it is important to ensure that the data is normally distributed. Through examination of the relevant graphs, histograms, p-plots, descriptives and frequencies outputs from SPSS, the researcher determined the data was fairly linear and normal. However, it was slightly negatively skewed which was not unexpected due to the positive nature of the assessment (Kesebi & Diener, 2008; Su et al., 2014). Univariate outliers were discovered within the data. Upon further investigation it was determined the answers were valid responses for respondents who were struggling with their well-being. Additionally, due to the large sample size, the analysis was run with and without the outliers without noted significant difference. Respondents seemed to struggle most with support (feeling appreciated) and self-worth (feeling things they do are valuable and worthwhile), which had 66 and 50 outliers respectively; these outliers were indicated by the z scores higher than 3.29 or lower than -3.29 on these specific questions.
There were several univariate outliers on the BIT as indicated by the $z$ scores. In total there were nine outliers on the BIT that ranged in value from -6.17 to -3.54. These outliers were retained for the study, because removing them from the sample did not significantly impact the mean (40.58 to 40.64). The $z$ scores were negative because the outliers’ well-being scores were so far below the mean, which may indicate low rates of well-being for these particular administrators.

The data was examined for multivariate outliers through the calculation of Mahalanobis distance. By utilizing the Chi-square table at .001 and the number of independent variables (two), the researcher determined the cut off value of 13.82 and examined the data for potential multivariate outliers. The researcher identified 21 outliers by their Mahalanobis distance. After removing the outliers, no significant difference was seen in their mean scores (BIT 40.57 to 40.65; WRQoL 84.12 to 84.38), therefore, the outliers were left in the data set.

**Missing data.** The researcher encountered some missing data. Over 2,493 of the initial 3,043 respondents completed both the BIT and the WRQoL assessments, but did not complete any of the demographic variables. The researcher did not impute demographic variables because it may have produced biased estimates and inaccurate assumptions of race, gender, salary, relationship status, health or plans for the sample. The total sample size came to 2,414, which included mostly complete demographic variables of interest, and the completion of the BIT and WRQoL assessments.

For additional analysis, the researcher ran descriptives in SPSS by comparing the correlations across the BIT with personal variables of plans, position level, race
### Table 6
*Correlation Coefficients Amongst Study Variables (N=2414)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>11</th>
<th>12</th>
<th>13</th>
<th>14</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Plans</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Entry</td>
<td>-.18</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Senior</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>-.26</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Chief</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>-.19</td>
<td>-.11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Race</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>6. Relationship Status</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>-.26</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Gender</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>-.14</td>
<td>-.08</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>-.05</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Salary</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>-.50</td>
<td>.40</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>-.15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. JCS</td>
<td>.40</td>
<td>-.11</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>-.05</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. CAW</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>-.19</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>-.00</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>-.10</td>
<td>.28</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. HWI</td>
<td>.28</td>
<td>-.06</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>-.05</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>-.09</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td>.49</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>12. SAW</td>
<td>-.10</td>
<td>-.08</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>-.21</td>
<td>-.17</td>
<td>-.35</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. OVRL</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>-.11</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>.59</td>
<td>-.31</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Health</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>-.08</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.23</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>-.21</td>
<td>.30</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. BIT</td>
<td>.28</td>
<td>-.15</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>-.10</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>-.20</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>.38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: Bolded coefficients are significant at p<.05 or less
(white/non-white), relationship status, gender, salary, and health as well as environmental factors of Home-Work Interface, Job Career Satisfaction, Stress at Work, and Overall Quality of Work Life. The researcher examined the correlation table to determine if there was a possibility of multicollinearity between these variables by checking for r values greater than .60, and checked for statistically significant correlations by checking the p values (as illustrated in the Table 6). There were five correlations higher than .60, two of which were barely above at .64 and .67. These higher correlations mostly resulted from the question that inquired about overall job satisfaction, which one would expect to overlap with some of the same factors listed in the WRQoL variables. In addition, the correlations that were at the .73 and .75 levels were related to job career satisfaction and overall satisfaction. This indicates that job career satisfaction and overall satisfaction are related.

**Preliminary Analysis of Research Questions**

**Research question 1**: (a) What is the well-being composite score of student affairs professionals? (b) How does this score vary by time in field? (c) And position level?

**Research Question 1a**: The researcher examined each respondent’s score on the Brief Inventory of Thriving (BIT) as it relates to time in field and position level. There is currently no designated range of scores that indicates high well-being or low well-being; however, there are ranges that classify respondents into a particular percentile. Su et al. (2014) suggest respondents have a generally positive view about their psychological
well-being, especially as it relates to their social support and personal accomplishments. The mean of the score of the entire sample population will assist in benchmarking if there is a difference between and within groups as it relates to their time in the field and their position level.

**Research Question 1b and c:** As time in field is numeric, groupings informed by the empirical literature were established. Based on the level of response to the survey, three groups were established through the binning function in SPSS. The categories are as follows: <=4 Years (n = 772), 5-11 Years (n = 835) and 12+ Years (n = 801). In addition, position level labels were determined utilizing NASPA’s pre-determined categories for membership, which were Entry (n = 719), Mid-level (n = 1,178), Senior (n = 332) and Chief (n = 181). Table 4 presents the breakdown of these categories.

ANOVA s were deemed appropriate to run based on preliminary tests; one ANOVA was run on time in field (utilizing the three pre-established groups for time in field), and another ANOVA was run on the four groups regarding position level. Tukey’s post-hoc tests were examined to determine which groups in the sample differed, as the ANOVA test can only test that a difference exists (Warner, 2013). Both ANOVAs indicated significant differences between the time in field groups as well as the position level groups, which will be discussed in Chapter 4.

**Research question 2.** Is there a correlation between the well-being score and Work-Related Quality of Life score?

A Pearson’s correlational analysis was used to determine if there is a relationship between the score on one’s BIT and the score on one’s Work-Related Quality of Life
Scale (WRQoL). The relationship between these two variables was linear as displayed by the P plots. This relationship was also examined on a scatterplot, and the visual inspection showed a normally distributed relationship between these two variables (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003, p. 21).

The WRQoL and BIT both use five-point Likert scales and indicate the same level of agreement with 1 = Strongly Disagree and 5 = Strongly Agree. For reference, a maximum score on the BIT is 50 and a maximum score on the WRQoL is 120. These scores were converted to z scores through SPSS to consider correlations between the data where the scales have measurement at different levels (Moore et al., 2012).

**Research question 3.** How do Work-Related Quality of Life factors (JCS, CAW, HWI, SAW, and OVRL) and demographic variables (Plans, Position, Race, Relationship Status, Gender, and Salary) relate to the well-being composite score on the BIT?

In order to run a hierarchical ordinary least squares regression with the above variables, position was converted to dummy variables in order to use it within in the analysis. Race was also dummy coded and was designated as white and non-white. Gender was designated as female due to the significant response rate among female participants. Plans was recoded from the survey; the most extreme plans for the future (leaving the profession or field) was coded as one and the least extreme plans for the future (no plans) was coded as four; this measure was used as an ordinal level, continuous variable. This particular analysis of demographic variables provided insight into their relationship to the BIT score. Additionally, the contextual variables regarding work-life were considered continuous variables. Home-Work Interface (HWI), Job Career
Satisfaction (JCS), Stress at Work (SAW), and Overall Quality of Working Life (OVRL) were all standardized. In addition, self-reported Health was constructed so a person in excellent health ranked at four and a person in poor health ranked at one. The BIT score was also standardized.

The researcher performed hierarchical ordinary least squares regression in order to analyze how the different blocks influence the well-being score of the population. The first block contained the input variables, which were guided by the literature. The second block contained the environment variables composed of the WRQoL factors. The third block contained Health, which was designed by Su et al. (2014) to compare against the BIT. Thus, the equations are:

(1) BIT = b0 + b1(Gender) + b2(Race/Ethnicity) + b3(plans) + b4(entry) + b5(senior) + b6(chief) + b7(salary) + b6(relationship status)
(2) BIT = b0 + b1(Gender) + b2(Race/Ethnicity) + b3(plans) + b4(entry) + b5(senior) + b6(chief) + b7(salary) + b6(relationship status) + b7(HWI) + b8(JCS) + b9(SAW) + b10(OVRL) + b11(SAW)
(3) BIT = b0 + b1(Gender) + b2(Race/Ethnicity) + b3(plans) + b4(entry) + b5(senior) + b6(chief) + b7(salary) + b6(relationship status) + b7(HWI) + b8(JCS) + b9(SAW) + b10(OVRL) + b11(SAW) + b12(Health)

**Limitations**

There are several limitations anticipated with this study. First, the sampling procedure is not random. By utilizing one professional association (NASPA) and convenience sampling through social media, the received sample of student affairs professionals does not reflect a wholly representative sample. As represented by the
NASPA database in the fall 2014, most of the professionals in the field are entry (n = 1824) and midlevel (n = 3087), while senior and chief student affairs officers represent smaller groups (n = 332 and n = 181, respectively). Thirty-nine percent of entry-level employees responded with 38% of midlevel professionals responding; however, only about 26% of chief student affairs officers responded to the survey. Also, based on the entire sample size, midlevel professionals represented almost 49% of the total respondents. This could impact the BIT score for the entire population, as the score is highly influenced by the midlevel professionals in the survey due to the higher response rate compared to the entry, senior and chief levels.

Respondents self-selected to respond to this survey, which may create response bias. Some respondents were directly contacted by email, and others were influenced to take the survey through social media postings. In addition, professionals were asked to share the survey and the link with their wider network. There was not a way to determine what influenced the respondent to answer the questionnaire. Kesebir and Diener (2008) find that most respondents score themselves higher on assessments focused on positive constructs. This was evident in the slightly skewed data. Future studies may want to consider methods to reduce bias in the sample that may include more intentional sampling methods.

Respondents were also asked to self-identify position level within their organization. The researcher opted not to give title examples due to the variance between institutions. For example, a Dean of Students could be considered a chief student affairs officer on one campus, but could be considered senior level on another. What was
important in this context is not what the position actually does, but what the respondents think they do on a regular basis. However, this could also vary based on what a job description says one does and the actual duties one performs to support their institution. While NASPA asks members to choose a position classification category, the organization does not specifically define the categories to the member. Therefore, the respondents are left to define for themselves what their position level is within their organization. This leaves position level to be a less rigidly defined category and may create significant variance among position level responses.

Another limitation of this study is that it was administered at a singular time during the academic year in the beginning of December. It is a point in time survey, and does not measure the sustained or consistent well-being of the population. The ebb and flow of the academic year could have impact on the responses of student affairs professionals. For example, the beginning of the year could be much more stressful for some functional units as they serve many students during the first several weeks of school. However, the choice to administer the survey before the winter recess was purposeful in that most student affairs units (with some exceptions) see a decline in support services and programs as students prepare to take finals and go home for the winter break. This time of year might provide more time for these professionals to participate in a study.

Another possible limitation is the repetitive nature of some of the questions on both of the assessments. The WRQoL and the CIT both assess well-being. The WRQoL scale actually has six items that are assess the general well-being of the respondents.
Based on this, there are some items that may look similar to the reader, and could lead to some bias in responses. The respondents have already answered 42 questions about well-being, and then are asked to answer six more on another assessment. While this provides the opportunity for cross-validation of the scales, it could feel redundant to a respondent and may create a biased response. For example, if they already responded to 42 questions positively, they may respond to the next six positively as well, even if their workplace is not facilitating well-being.

Another limitation of this study is that the WRQoL survey has been utilized mostly in the United Kingdom at nine colleges and universities. Since there is a cultural difference between the United Kingdom and the United States, the results may not be generalizable between the two countries. For example, there are changes in higher education in the United Kingdom that have eroded the power of unions and professionals (Sporn, 2003). The scale will need validation on the population of student affairs professionals in the United States. While validated at institutions of higher learning in the United Kingdom, the scale’s results did offer a similar Cronbach’s alphas related to higher education in the United States. Further research on the reliability of the WRQoL scale within higher education in the United States is warranted.

Finally, the BIT is relatively new survey tool that has been validated only recently by Su et al. (2014) on a few groups. It is also part of a larger assessment called the Comprehensive Inventory of Thriving (CIT), which contains 42 items measuring well-being. This study is the first known time the BIT is being used as a composite score for measuring well-being. In addition, the assessment has not been administered in the
organizational context of higher education or with a particular professional group. Su et al. (2014) recommend validating this survey within professional groups. Due to these factors, there may be issues with reliability and validity with the sample. However, a reliability analysis was performed on the BIT for this population and the Cronbach’s alpha was .88, which suggests good internal consistency and reliability. Structural equation modeling would help determine if there is variance in how the different groups of student affairs professionals interpret items on the BIT, which would further validate this instrument.
Chapter 4

Chapter Three focused on the methodology used to answer the research questions. This chapter will present the results of the data for each of the tests and their relationship to the well-being of student affairs professionals. This chapter will explore the Brief Inventory of Thriving (BIT), which is the dependent variable of interest. It will also examine the BIT’s relationship to time in field, position level, and the factors that show a robust relationship with higher well-being within the sample population of student affairs administrators. Hierarchical ordinary least squares multiple regressions was selected for this study because it allows the researcher to control for different variables to determine which factors best predict the well-being of the sample population. This chapter reviews the analysis of the data collected through the survey, and will also provide an overview of the questions and a summary of the answers.

Question One: Brief Inventory on Thriving Score

The answers to the first question provide the foundation for answering the rest of the research questions. Question one: What is the well-being composite score of student affairs professionals? How does this score vary by time in field? By position level?

The main variable of interest for this question is the Brief Inventory of Thriving (BIT) score. This is the score used to measure the well-being of the individuals in the sample. The respondents had an average BIT score of 40.58 out of a maximum of 50
with a standard deviation of 4.94. The validated results of this scale by Su et al. (2014) place this sample’s mean between the fiftieth (3.80) and seventy-fifth (4.20) percentiles. The minimum for the sample was 10, and the maximum for the sample was 50. Means were skewed slightly left as indicated by the skewness statistic (-.536). This is not unexpected because people typically rank themselves high on positive construct tests (Kesebir & Diener, 2008). According to Su et al. (2014), the BIT has good internal consistency, with a Cronbach’s alpha coefficient reported for their five test groups varying from .75 to .93. In the current study, the Cronbach’s alpha coefficient was .87, which also indicated very good internal consistency for the sample (DeVellis, 1991).

To answer the first sub-question about well-being and time in field, the researcher explored whether there were statistical differences in well-being between the three groups, <=4 Years, 5-11 Years and 12+ Years. The researchers utilized a one-way between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) to explore the three groups for differences. There was a statistically significant difference at the p<.001 level in the BIT scores of the three groups $F(2, 2409) = 25.50$, p < .001 as outlined in Table 7. Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in the mean scores between these three groups was quite small. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .02. Post hoc comparisons utilizing Tukey’s HSD test indicated that the mean score for <=4 Years and the mean score for 5-11 Years were not statistically different from each other. However, 12+ Years differed significantly from the two groups who were in the field of student affairs for 11 years or less. Those with 12+ years in the field were 2.72 points higher in mean score than those in the field 4 or less years, and 1.12 points higher than
those in the field 5-11 years. The descriptives are outlined in Table 4. One indication of this data is that well-being scores may be similar when one has been in the field for 1-11 years. However, the well-being score becomes significantly higher for those who have been in the field 12 years or more.

Table 6
*Means, Maximum, Minimums and Standard Deviations of BIT by Years in Field*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years in Field</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt;=4 Years</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>38.79</td>
<td>4.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-11 Years</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>40.39</td>
<td>4.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12+ Years</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>41.51</td>
<td>4.88</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Further exploration was done to understand the relationship between position level within one’s organization and the BIT. This is an important distinction between time in field and position level, because administrators can be in the field of student affairs for longer than 12 years in an entry level position, or less than 5 years and be in a chief position. A cross-tabs analysis is displayed in Table 8 for illustration of this point. Also, position level distinctions vary by type of institution.

A one way between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was also conducted on position level to explore the level of well-being between these classifications. There was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .001$ level in the BIT of the four groups.
\[ F(3, 2406) = 42.54, \ p < .001 \] as outlined in Table 9 with the means and standard deviations. Due to the large sample size, the actual difference in the mean scores is quite

**Table 7**
*Cross-tabs Comparison of Student Affairs Administrators by Position Level and Time in Field*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position Level</th>
<th>&lt;=4 Years</th>
<th>5-11 Years</th>
<th>12+ Years</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Entry Level</td>
<td>574</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>718</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mid-level</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>627</td>
<td>366</td>
<td>1177</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Level</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>260</td>
<td>332</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chief Student Affairs Officer</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>181</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>772</td>
<td>835</td>
<td>801</td>
<td>2408</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 8**
*Means, Maximum, Minimums and Standard Deviations of BIT by Position Level*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position Level</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Entry Level</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>38.00</td>
<td>2.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mid-level</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>40.48</td>
<td>4.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Level</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>41.91</td>
<td>4.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chief Student Affairs Officer</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>43.39</td>
<td>4.47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
small. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .05. Post hoc comparisons through Tukey’s HSD test indicated that the mean scores for all four groups were statistically different from each other. Chief student affairs officers had a well-being score almost 4 points higher than those in the entry level positions. This analysis shows that those in higher level positions have significantly higher well-being scores than those in lower ranking positions.

Based on the ANOVA results, position level will continue to be utilized as the unit of analysis. Position level provides four distinct experiences from which to construct interventions and make recommendations, while the years in field analysis provides two areas of focus for creating well-being interventions -- before 12 years and after 12 years in the field. One’s experience with years in the field can vary quite widely based on their position-level, but position-level provides a framework of common experiences like supervision of professional staff, budget oversight, and greater job responsibilities as one moves up the hierarchy.

In addition, an exploration was conducted with a two way factorial ANOVA between age, position, and BIT score was run to determine if age had a significant impact on well-being. The analysis revealed that age as a continuous variable was not significant. When age was binned by SPSS into three categories (≤29, 30-37 and 38+) the relationship was significant. These results indicate position level and age covariate in this population.
**Question Two: Correlation Between BIT & WRQoL**

The Work Related Quality of Life (WRQoL) scale was analyzed to see if it correlated with the BIT in order to run the regression equations. This answered question two: Is there a significant correlation between the well-being composite score and Work-Related Quality of Life score?

Through an analysis of these two scales, a correlation of .72 indicated that there is a strong relationship between the WRQoL scale and the BIT. This correlation showed that the scales are related, but not overly correlated. The two scales are measuring separate concepts, which is an important distinction in order to analyze the work-life factors that influence the well-being of these professionals. The correlations of the WRQoL factors with the BIT are outlined in Table 7 in Chapter 3.

**Question Three: Factors Related to Well-being**

Hierarchical ordinary least squares regression helped to determine what factors best predicted the well-being of student affairs administrators. For each block of the analyses, the researcher selected groups of variables to enter based on theoretical reasons (Warner, 2013). Essentially, “one or more predictor variables are added to the model, and the predictive usefulness of each $X_i$ variable (or set of $X_i$ variables) is assessed by asking how much the $R^2$ for the regression model increases in the step when each predictor variable (or set of predictor variables) is first added to the model” (Warner, 2013, p. 560).

Based on theoretical support from I-O-E Model, three blocks were developed for the regression model. The first block included inputs variables that were inherent to the
respondents, which included their plans for the following year, their position level (with mid-level dummy coded), their race, gender, their relationship status, and their salary. The second block included the environment variables from the WRQoL scale that were inherent to work and included Job Career Satisfaction, Control at Work, Home-Work Interface, Stress at Work, and Overall Quality of Work Life. The third block included a personal variable and measured how the respondent viewed their health.

The variables and blocks listed above were entered into the model to determine the robustness of the relationship to the BIT. The total N for this sample was 2,255, because of the lower response rate in the demographic variables. Results for this hierarchical ordinary least squares regression are summarized in Table 10. The overall regression, including all the predictors was significant, \( R = .73, R^2 = .53, \) adjusted \( R^2 = .52, F(14, 2240) = 177.40, p < .001. \) Scores on the BIT could be predicted fairly well with this set of 14 variables, with approximately 52% of the variance in well-being accounted for by the regression equation.

To assess the individual contributions of each of the individual predictors, the \( t \) ratios for the individual regression slopes were examined for each variable in the step in which it was first entered into the analysis. In step 1, plans was statistically significant, \( t(2246) = 10.65, p < .001. \) The more stable one’s plans (e.g. not leaving job or institution) the higher their well-being. This had the strongest relationship to well-being in Step 1 next to the position level of Chief. Entry level was not statistically significant, nor was Senior, which indicated these position levels did not have a significant main
effect on well-being score. However, the Chief level was statistically significant at
$t(2246) = 3.04,$
Table 9
Hierarchical multiple regression analysis predicting well-being from demographic, contextual and overarching variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Model 1</th>
<th></th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>Model 2</th>
<th></th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>Model 3</th>
<th></th>
<th>Beta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b</td>
<td>SE</td>
<td></td>
<td>b</td>
<td>SE</td>
<td></td>
<td>b</td>
<td>SE</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plans</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.22**</td>
<td>-0.45</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>-0.08**</td>
<td>-0.39</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>-0.07**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entry</td>
<td>-0.10</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
<td>-0.35</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>-0.03</td>
<td>-0.27</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>-0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chief</td>
<td>1.39</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>0.08**</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>-0.89</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>-0.07**</td>
<td>-0.63</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>-0.05**</td>
<td>-0.76</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>-0.06**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>0.10**</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.09**</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.08**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.04*</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.03*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salary</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.14**</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.05*</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.05*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Satisfaction</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.31**</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.30**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control at Work</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.08**</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.08**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home Work Interface</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stress at Work</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>-0.03*</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Satisfaction</td>
<td>1.81</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.33**</td>
<td>1.59</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.29**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R Squared</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05  **p < .01
Those at the Chief level are predicted to have higher levels of well-being compared to the reference group (mid-level), which were indicated by the results of the ANOVA in research question one. Next to plans, this variable had the strongest relationship to well-being. In addition, race was statistically significant $t(2246) = -3.58$, $p < .001$. The negative sign for the slope for race indicates that being white is related to lower mean scores on the BIT than being non-white. Also, relationship status had a significant main effect $t(2246) = 4.80$, $p < .001$; persons in partnerships scored almost 1 point higher on the mean of the BIT if they were in a relationship versus if they were single, divorced or widowed, if everything else in the equation held constant. Gender was not significant within Step 1. However, salary was significant, $t(2246) = 3.83$, $p < .001$. Persons with a higher salary were more likely to have a higher score on the BIT than those with lower salary levels.

In Step 2, the WRQoL variables were added to the model and this changed some of the significance values of variables in Step 1. The addition of these variables accounted for 49% of the variance, whereas Step 1 only accounted for 12% of the variance. First, the WRQoL variables are reported followed by the variables with a shift in significance levels. The Job Career Satisfaction variable was statistically significant, $t(2241) = 11.92$, $p < .001$. One standard deviation increase in Job Career Satisfaction is associated with a 0.31 standard deviation increase in the BIT score. Control at Work was also statistically significant $t(2241) = 3.19$, $p < .001$. When control at work increased by one standard deviation, well-being score would increase by .08 standard deviation if all other variables were held constant. Interestingly, Home-Work Interface did not have a
significant relationship to well-being. Discussions about this result are highlighted in the next chapter. However, Stress at Work and Overall Quality of Work Life were both significant predictors of the well-being score. Stress at work had \( t(2241) = -2.05, p < .05 \). Essentially, the negative slope of this line indicates the well-being score would see a slight decrease in standard deviation at -.03, if there was a one standard deviation increase in stress. The strongest variable entered into the equation measured one’s overall satisfaction with their job. This was significant \( t(2241) = 13.61, p < .001 \). Well-being increased .33 standard deviations for every one standard deviation increase in overall satisfaction with one’s working life.

The addition of the WRQoL variables altered some of the significance values from Step 1. The chief position level no longer had a significant relationship with the well-being score. However, gender had a significant relationship with well-being in Step 2, \( t(2241) = 2.37, p < .05 \). These findings led the researcher to examine the equation for possible mediators, which is explored below.

In Step 3, health was the last variable added to the equation controlling for all other variables. This variable accounts for 3% of the variance in well-being score alone, bringing the model’s robust relationship to well-being to 53%. This health variable also had a significant relationship to the well-being score of the sample population with \( t(2240) = 12.56, p < .001 \), \( R^2_{\text{increment}} = .033 \). For one standard deviation increase in health, there was a .20 standard deviation increase in the well-being score of the respondents if everything was held constant. However, the addition of the health variable
also altered the significance level of some of the variables from Step 2. These changes also led the researcher to look for mediation occurring in Step 3.

First, the researcher tested variables in Step 2 for mediating effects, specifically related to Chief and Female. Chief went from being significant in Step 1 to being non-significant in Step 2. Female went from being non-significant in Step 1 to being significant in Step 2. First, the researcher tested the assumptions of mediation by running correlations between all the variables (Chief, JCS, CAW, HWI, SAW, OVRL and BIT as well as Female). The results revealed that all seven variables were significantly correlated with each other, p < .001 (see Table 6 for correlations). However, Female did not meet the assumptions of mediation as X₁ and Y did not have a significant relationship (Barron & Kenny, 1986). Therefore, a mediation analysis was not performed on Female. A mediation analysis was performed with Chief as the X₁ variable in the Baron and Kenny (1986) causal steps approach; in addition, a bootstrapped confidence interval for the ab indirect effect was obtained using procedures described by Hayes (2012). One complete mediation test was run on Chief in Step 2. Typically, quantitative variables are analyzed for a mediating effect; however dichotomous variables can also be used (Warner, 2012). Therefore, Chief is being used as a dichotomous variable in this analysis. The initial causal variable was Chief, which went from significant p < .002 level in Step 1 to non-significant with the addition of the WRQoL variables in Step 2 at p = .22. The outcome variable was the score on the BIT, or overall well-being; the proposed mediating variables were Home-Work Interface (HWI), Stress at Work (SAW), Job Career Satisfaction (JCS), Control at Work (CAW) and Overall Job Satisfaction
(OVRL). Since preliminary data screening suggested that there are no serious violations of assumptions of linearity and normality, the researcher ran Model 4 as specified by PROCESS (Hayes, 2014). See Figure 3 for the illustration of Model 4 and the variables’ position within the analysis. All coefficients reported here are unstandardized, unless noted otherwise.

**Figure 2. Mediation analysis of Chief, WRQoL variables and the BIT.**

**p < .01. ***p < .001**

**Mediating effects of select WRQoL variables.** The total effect of Chief on the BIT was significant, $c' = 3.303, t(2408) = 8.04, p < .001$; the position of Chief predicted three points higher in well-being than most other position levels. Chief was significantly
predictive of the hypothesized mediation variables JCS, SAW and OVRL; JCS is $a_1 = 2.25, t(2408) = 6.98, p < .001$; CAW is $a_2 = 1.87, t(2408) = 9.60, p < .001$; and OVRL is $a_5 = .48, t(2408) = 6.95, p < .001$. SAW was also significant through the $a$ path; $a_4 = .70, t(2408) = 4.50, p < .001$, but HWI was not significant through path $a$; $a_3 = .28, t(2408) = 1.39, p = .17$. When controlling for Chief, CAW, JCS and OVRL were significantly predictive of the hypothesized mediation variable BIT; JCS is $b_1 = .35, t(2403) = 11.65, p < .001$; CAW is $b_2 = .18, t(2403) = 4.10, p < .001$ and OVRL is $b_5 = 1.77, t(2403) = 13.72, p < .001$. HWI has a significant $b$ path; $b_3 = .08, t(2403) = 2.37, p < .05$, but SAW was not significant with $b_4 = -.040, t(2403) = -1.01, p = .31$. The estimated direct effect of Chief on the BIT, controlling for CAW, JCS and OVRL, was $c' = 1.06, t(2403) = 3.74, p < .001$. The BIT was predicted quite well from Chief, CAW, JCS and OVRL, with adjusted $R^2 = .23, F(5, 2403) = 376.02, p < .001$.

The indirect effect, $ab$, of CAW, JCS and OVRL was .34, .78 and .86 respectively. These were judged to be statistically significant by verification through the Sobel (1982) test; CAW was $Z = 3.75, p < .001$; JCS was $Z = 5.97, p < .001$; and OVRL was $Z = 6.18, p < .001$. Both HWI and SAW were insignificant in their Sobel scores, $p = .26$ and $p = .33$ respectively. In addition, bootstrapping was performed; 1,000 samples were requested. This test also confirmed the significance of CAW, JCS and OVRL as the intervals for these three variables did not cross over zero. However, the intervals for both HWI and SAW did cross over zero. The indirect effect of Chief on the BIT through CAW, JCS and OVRL was statistically significant. The direct path from Chief to BIT ($c'$) was also statistically significant; therefore, the effects of the Chief position on the
BIT were only partially mediated by CAW, JCS and OVRL. Overall, the comparisons of the ab paths (.34, .78 and .86) and the c’ (1.060) indicate only a small part of the effect of Chief on the BIT is mediated by CAW, JCS and OVRL. There are most likely other mediating variables, which may influence the Chief level BIT score.

**Mediating effects of health.** In addition, an analysis was run on Step 3 of the model. Stress at Work was a significant predictor of well-being in Step 2, but became a non-significant predictor when Health was added into the equation at Step 3. This led the researcher to conduct a mediation analysis on Step 3 of the equation considering these variables. The causal variable was Stress at Work (SAW) and the outcome variable was well-being measured by the BIT. The proposed mediating variable was Health as self-reported by the respondents (with choices ranging from Excellent, Good, Fair, and Poor). Refer to Figure 3 for the path diagram that illustrates this mediation hypothesis.

The total effect of SAW on BIT was significant at $c = -.509$, $t(2393) = -10.58$, $p < .001$; each 1 point increase in stress brought the well-being score down by about half a point. SAW was significantly predictive of the hypothesized mediating variable, Health; $a = -.06$, $t(2393) = -10.50$, $p > .001$. When controlling for SAW, Health was significantly predictive of the BIT; $b=2.76$, $t(2392) = 18.51$, $p < .001$. The estimated direct effect of SAW on BIT, controlling for Health, was $c’ = -.33$, $t(2392) = -7.17$, $p < .001$. 


The BIT score was not predicted that well from SAW and Health, with adjusted $R^2 = .164$ and $F(2, 2392) = 235.19, p < .001$. The indirect effect, ab, was -.074. This was verified to be statistically significant through the Sobel (1982) test at -9.12, $p < .001$. To further confirm the findings, bootstrapping was performed with 1,000 samples requested. The confidence intervals did not cross over zero, which also confirmed the significance of the indirect effect. Therefore, the indirect effect of SAW on the BIT through Health was statistically significant. The direct path of SAW to the BIT ($c'$) was also statistically significant; therefore, the effects of Stress on the BIT score were only partially mediated by Health. Through a comparison of the path coefficients for the direct versus the indirect path ($c' = -.330$ vs. $ab = -.074$) suggests that only a very small part of the effect of stress on the well-being score is mediated by one’s self-perception of health. In words, stress is only slightly impacted by one’s view on their health. If one has a more positive view on their health, it could lower their level of perceived stress and pressure experienced at work.

*Figure 3. Mediation model displaying SAW is mediated by perception of health.*
***$p<.001$*
Chapter 5 reviews the results of the statistical analysis and suggestions for application and practice. The chapter will examine how position level and time in field vary, and why this is important for consideration in planning interventions for well-being. In addition, through the application of literature and results, the factors and variables that predict the well-being of student affairs administrators are explored. The chapter concludes with limitations and recommendations for further research.
Chapter Five

This study contributes to the current literature of student affairs by 1) proposing a baseline measurement for the well-being of the profession, 2) differentiating how distinct position levels in student affairs experience well-being, and 3) discovering how work-related experiences have a significant impact on the well-being of student affairs professionals. This chapter will highlight the most significant findings from the results of the study. It will discuss the implications for implementation of the study results within the field of student affairs. Lastly, the chapter will highlight other areas for consideration for future studies on this topic.

Summary of Findings

**Baseline measurement for well-being.** This study provided the first known baseline measurement for the well-being of a large sample of student affairs professionals. With the Brief Inventory of Thriving (BIT), a well-being composite score of 40.58 out of 50 is presented for the profession, which placed the sample of approximately 2,400 professionals between the fiftieth and seventy-fifth percentile (Su et al., 2014). This score indicates that student affairs professionals have some room for improvement on their well-being score. However, this group of professionals scored higher on the assessment (4.05), than Su et al.’s (2014) initial test groups (3.71). The well-being score will also provide a comparison point or benchmark for this or other
well-being related assessments. In addition, this was the first known measurement of student affairs professionals using the BIT. Since the BIT is a relatively new assessment (first published in 2014), there is the opportunity to use this study’s initial assessment as a way to further validate the tool. In addition, Su et al. (2014) recommended that future use of their inventory be tested in an organizational context, and this study provides a benchmark for future research on this population.

**Well-being related to position level.** Though the effect size was small, another contribution to the literature is the significant difference discovered between the well-being scores based on position level. This is in contrast to the examination of well-being scores related to years in the field of student affairs. The well-being scores based on position level were significant at each level in contrast to the well-being scores based on years in the field. No significant difference occurred until student affairs professionals reached 12+ years in the field. There was no statistically significant difference between those in the field from 1 – 5 years or from 6 – 11 years. This is surprising given the Tull et al.’s (2009) statistic that 20% to 40% of student affairs professionals leave the field within the first six years. Based on this statistic, one would have expected to see those in the first few years (1-5 years) to have a lower well-being score than those at 6 or more years.

What these results reveal is that position level matters more to well-being than time in the field. This conclusion is confirmed by some of the studies related to job satisfaction, which is considered a domain of well-being (Diener et al., 2004). For example, Blackhurst et al. (1998) found that senior student affairs officers were more
committed to their institutions than directors, or associate directors, or assistant directors.

Anderson et al. (2004) cited studies that entry-level professionals were the least satisfied with their positions than other student affairs professionals. Austin (1985), Rosser (2004), and Johnsrud et al. (2000) exclusively examined midlevel student affairs professionals because of the unique professional experiences of this population. In addition, the studies also found that time in field did not cause groups to vary significantly until examining higher number of years committed to higher education (Anderson et al., 2004; Blackhurst et al., 1998; Rosser, 2004; Tseng, 2004). However, this lack of variation could be related to the level of attrition associated with the profession during the first six years; depending on the study, this rate can range from 20% to 40% (Tull et al., 2009).

One of the most notable outcomes from the comparisons of well-being scores across groups is the level attained by Chief Student Affairs Officers (CSAOs). The four point difference between Entry level and the Chief level is statistically significant. Even when the position levels were compared in the regression equation, Chief was the only position level compared to the reference group of mid-level that was significant when controlling for all other demographic variables. Comparing CSAOs general experiences to the struggles of mid-level professionals may contextualize some of the differences between these position levels. First, Rosser and Javinar (2003) speak to improving the experience of midlevel professionals:

…institutions need to provide support for their (midlevel) professional activities and career development; recognize their skills, competence and expertise;
emphasize the importance of fostering positive relationships with faculty members, students, senior administrations and the public; and minimize the effects of bureaucratic and political intervention (p. 334).

The comparison and contrast between these two groups’ general experiences will display why there is a significant difference between scores based on position level while using Rosser and Javinar’s (2003) recommendations listed above. Since most student affairs divisions are run by the CSAO, these Vice Presidents, Vice Chancellors or Deans may make decisions and create policy with appropriate personnel on the professional activities and development of the staff in the larger division of student affairs. For example, at a large state institution student affairs professionals travel budgets may be frozen, or there may be a policy that allows only one person from each functional unit to attend a conference. While these regulations may impact the CSAO, this person is typically in conversations about these decisions and has the opportunity to more fully understand the impact, whereas mid-level professionals may only speculate why the senior person in their office gets to attend a conference and they do not.

As indicated by Rosser & Javinar (2003) above, recognition is a resoundingly important part of job satisfaction literature (Tseng, 2004). However, recognition typically comes from the top of the organization. If midlevel professionals are not receiving recognition from their immediate supervisor, they can be isolated from the satisfaction that comes from a job well-done. Also, their direct supervisor may not be able to reward or show appreciation by assigning them to higher-level tasks based on their contributions; since depending on the organization, a direct supervisor may need
approval by persons with more authority. CSAOs are able to more easily recognize competence and skills in their staff members by making decisions to promote, give recognition or assign more meaningful responsibilities than the midlevel professional or their direct supervisors based on the organizational culture of higher education.

Rosser and Javinar (2003) also recommend that midlevel professionals connect with people outside the student affairs hierarchy to help increase their morale and job satisfaction. CSAOs typically interact with higher level academic administration, senior administrators and the public, as their position puts them in places where this is possible. Midlevel professionals must work harder to find ways to connect their work with faculty and senior administrators, and sometimes their work takes them out of direct interaction with students. Also, depending on the functional area a midlevel professional may not have the opportunity to interact with the public.

Lastly, CSAOs have the ability to help minimize the effects of bureaucracy and political intervention in a way that midlevel professionals do not. Typically, midlevel professionals are the staff members who must follow the directives of the CSAO in implementation of new regulations with their staff and students. While there sometimes may be conversations and dialogue regarding changes in a policy or protocol, there are instances where the midlevel professional simply receives instruction from the CSAO to implement a policy or action.

The comparison between midlevel professionals’ experiences (Rosser & Javinar, 2003) and CSAOs (Berwick, 1992; Scott, 1992) above illustrates more concretely the differences between their positions. While they occupy the same higher education
environment, their experiences are very distinct. CSAOs have the benefit and sometimes drawback of being at the top of the student affairs hierarchy. Their position comes with a level of autonomy, decision-making, and responsibility not held in other positions within student affairs (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Scott, 1992; Slemp & Vella-Brodrick, 2013). While it cannot be denied that the stress level of CSAOs is high, their well-being is supported because they also have higher job-career satisfaction, higher control at work, and higher overall career satisfaction than the other position levels (Scott, 1992). However, when the work-life variables are controlled for in this study’s regression equation, CSAOs are no longer significant in their well-being. In other words, as this current study indicates when other positions have high job-career satisfaction, higher control at work and higher overall job satisfaction, their well-being levels are near the same as a CSAO. Therefore, strategies for helping to raise job-career satisfaction, control at work, and overall career satisfaction of all student affairs professionals will assist in raising the well-being of the student affairs population. These implications are discussed later in this chapter.

**Work-life related to well-being.** The last significant contribution of this study is the idea that well-being is inextricably linked to the quality of one’s work-life; this is supported by the fact that 37% of the total 52% variance in well-being is accounted for by the work-life variables in the regression equation. This link exists as people may spend more than 40 hours a week in their workplace, which does not account for commuting, day-care, constant connection to technology, and on-call responsibilities. The work life variables considered in this study include: Job-Career Satisfaction, Control at Work, Home-work Interface, and Overall Quality of Working Life. Table 11 highlights what is
measured within each variable. There has been a movement within student affairs to focus on work-life balance; student affairs professionals report that a shortage of time coupled with the demands of multiple roles impacts their personal well-being and career satisfaction (Cameron, 2011). However, this point of view can imply that “work” competes with “life,” when instead life is an intersection of work, home, community and self (Friedman, 2014). While an emphasis on work-life balance may indeed make people more satisfied with their work environment, this study indicates it does not have a significant impact on well-being.

Table 10
*Measured Constructs Within Environment Variables*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Work-Life Variables</th>
<th>Measures</th>
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| Job Career Satisfaction | • Clear goals  
• Use abilities at work  
• Contributions acknowledged by supervisor  
• Encouraged to develop new skills  
• Satisfied with opportunities  
• Satisfied with training |
| Control at Work | • Able to voice opinions and influence changes  
• Involved in decisions that affect them  
• Involved in decisions that impact the public in their area |
| Home-Work Interface | • Adequate facilities and flexibility to fit work around family life  
• Current working hours/patterns suit personal circumstances  
• Manager promotes flexible working hours |
| Stress at Work | • Feel under pressure at work  
• Feel excessive levels of stress |
The findings may be surprising to some work-life balance advocates because home-work interface or work-life balance does not significantly increase the well-being of student affairs professionals. This study proposes a shift in the paradigm of work-life balance advocacy for student affairs professionals. The term work-life balance would indicate that one is taking something from work or home and applying it to the other (Lewis & Cooper, 2005). Balance would also insinuate that work is not part of one’s life but is something separate from it (Lewis & Cooper). Even with the advent of policies that promote flexible hours and day care facilities, evidence has shown they are only moderately helpful to the employees. (Lewis & Cooper).

However, it is a combination of job career satisfaction, control at work, and overall career satisfaction that eliminate work-life balance’s impact. When one is completely satisfied with their work-life then the home-work interface (or work-life balance) becomes less impactful; one can assume this is achieved as these individuals have found ways to integrate the two (Friedman, 2014). Also, if one enjoys what they do, there is no need to draw strict lines (Vanderkam, 2015). Friedman (2014) may argue that these professionals may have learned to integrate work, home, community and their private self. This integration may come with organizational change, or may come with an individual finding an organization that allows for this work-life integration (Lewis & Cooper, 2005). This integration may also come gradually with a shift in how work is being done in the world today, especially because of 24/7 nature of technology (Vanderkam, 2015).
Overall, demographic variables and the overarching variable of health only account for 15% of the total variance of 53% in the relationship to well-being. This means that while demographic variables like position level, salary, race and gender are important – what becomes most important to the well-being of these professionals is their ability to have autonomy in their work, support from their supervisors, the opportunity to use their skills and to advance, professional development and training, feedback from supervisors, and satisfaction with their work overall. These variables have a stronger relationship to well-being than one’s relationship status, salary level or how one views their health. Well-being is inextricably linked to work-life. Colleges and universities should recognize this significant impact on their student affairs professionals’ well-being and look for ways to address this within the population. As mentioned by Lorden (1998), there is no single way to improve job satisfaction for student affairs professionals – just as there is no single way to improve their well-being. The next section will offer implications of these findings for practice and further research.

**Implications for Practice**

There are significant implications for practice based upon this study’s findings. Since the purpose of student affairs in higher education is to provide services and programs that enhance the intellectual and ethical development in addition to promoting the well-being of college students (Dalton & Crosby, 2011; Moran, 2001), a low well-being score for professionals may impact the experience of students outside the classroom (Malaney & Osit, 1998). This is also important because research on the well-being of university employees in Australia and the United Kingdom report that both
academic and general staff are reporting higher levels of stress than the general population (Mark & Smith, 2012; Martin, 2008). Low well-being may contribute to low job satisfaction, which in turn could have an impact on attrition, productivity and performance of these professionals (Austin, 1985; Berwick, 1992; Diener & Seligman, 2004; Johnsrud et al., 2000; Lorden, 1998; Rosser, 2004; Rosser & Javinar, 2003). High levels of attrition may become an expensive and taxing occurrence for an organizations, as remaining staff experience job overload during staffing shortages and a significant amount of time and resources is allocated towards the recruitment and training of new staff (Lorden, 1998; Rothmann & Essenko, 2007). According to Rosser and Javinar (2003), “when turnover is high, units lose efficiency, consistency, and quality in the delivery of services, as well as the investment made in the knowledge base of the institution or unit” (p. 825). A more developed understanding of the well-being score of student affairs professionals may help address some of the concerns that lead to job dissatisfaction, attrition, and lack of productivity. Most importantly, this knowledge will help professionals in their role of assisting students in their intellectual and ethical growth experiences outside the classroom.

Several strategies can be implemented at the department or division level for student affairs professionals. Some of these recommendations would have the greatest impact on the well-being of persons in entry or midlevel positions. While the supervisors or leaders of the respective departments ideally implement most of these, there is the opportunity for student affairs professionals to role model and promote these recommendations to their leadership.
Set clear goals. Units, departments, and the divisions should know the goals of their respective organizations. While the mission of student affairs has shifted over the past several years – the goal has remained consistent. It is to “provide services and programs that enhance the intellectual and ethical development of college students” (Dalton & Crosby, 2011, p. 6). The manner in which each unit works to achieve this goal is specific to that unit’s purpose. A professional who works in housing will enhance the intellectual and ethical development of their students through hall programs, code of conduct hearings, and roommate mediations to name a few. Someone who works in new student orientation will do this using educational sessions for students in transition, providing student leadership training, and facilitating a student’s first course schedule.

When employees have a clear set of goals or aims, it enables them to do their job more efficiently and effectively (Easton & Van Larr, 2014). In short, it also gives one a sense of purpose. Identifying a sense of purpose benefits the professional, but may also have direct benefit on the students because professionals can guide students in identifying their own goals and sense of purpose (Austin, 1985; Moran, 2001). However, these clear goals for professionals need to come from a common source and remain as consistent as possible. When goals continuously shift and staff does not understand how they individually contribute to the goals, these situations may increase stress and role ambiguity, leading to a decrease in job satisfaction and well-being (Rothmann & Essenko, 2007; Ward, 1995).

Provide opportunities to use abilities and develop skills. While using abilities and developing skills are separate concepts, they are interrelated. Supporting the use of a
staff member’s abilities in the workplace allows people to display their competence (Rosser, 2004). Presenting opportunities for staff to engage in skill development not only benefits the individual, but also benefits the organization (Austin, 1985; Bender, 2009; Lorden, 1998; Mark & Smith, 2012). The student affairs professional literature reviewed for this study overwhelmingly advocates for the professional development of individuals because it increases job satisfaction (Bender, 2009; Johnsrud et al., 2000; Lagana, 2007; Lorden, 1998; Rosser & Javinar, 2003; Tseng, 2003). Professional development does not have to be in the form of large professional conferences. It can be implemented at the unit, department or institutional level.

Professional development does not have to cost anything for the individuals or institutions, and can capitalize on staff members’ abilities and skills. Someone in student conduct may present how they are addressing Title IX investigations over a cup of coffee, or one could facilitate a discussion about a trend in student affairs over a brown bag lunch. Both of these examples offer opportunities for staff to continue to learn and grow, and allow people with specialized abilities and skills to showcase them to their institution’s stakeholders. Encouraging staff to attend different presentations and programs sponsored by academic partners is not only a good way to grow professionally, but also to network with the faculty and academic administrators for future collaborations. Beyond the institution level, there are any number of local, regional, state and nationwide opportunities for professional development at both the functional level and the general student affairs level. The opportunity to work in a position that
capitalizes on one’s abilities and also develops one’s skills as a professional will contribute to their job satisfaction and well-being (Easton & Van Laar, 2014).

**Acknowledge good work of staff.** When one receives acknowledgment of a job well done, it assists in boosting morale and instills feelings of gratitude within the staff (Austin, 1985; Johnsrud et al., 2000; Rosser, 2004; Rosser & Javinar, 2003; Rothmann & Essenko, 2007). Morale and gratitude increase with positive or constructive feedback from colleagues, but the impact can be even more significant when the feedback comes from those higher in the student affairs hierarchy (Bender, 2009; Easton & Van Laar, 2014). While formal awards, notes, and certificates are helpful, a personal interaction punctuated with “nice job” and “thank you” may have the same impact.

When acknowledging a staff member’s good work, it is important for managers to inquire how one likes to be recognized. While some like a public pat the back, others appreciate a handshake and a “well done” in the privacy of their office. Latent in this acknowledgement recommendation is the appropriate amount of recognition. Too much acknowledgement of a job well done may lead to complacency because everything someone does is good enough to be acknowledged, and too little acknowledgement may lead to a lack of engagement with the work. Neither option is ideal, and requires that student affair leadership get to know their staff members, their working styles, and understand what is meaningful to them about their work. Discovering the right balance of appropriate acknowledgement will be different for every team, unit or institution. When this discovery is made, leadership can reap the rewards of higher morale and well-
being among their staff (Austin, 1985; Johnrud et al., 2000; Rosser, 2004; Rosser & Javinar, 2003; Rothmann & Essenko, 2007).

**Provide opportunities for staff to be involved in decisions, voice opinions and influence change.** This recommendation is related to fostering staff autonomy within the workplace, and this study supports its importance in the well-being of student affairs professionals (Mark & Smith, 2012; Rothmann & Essenko, 2007). This concept is related to “the level at which employees feel they can exercise what they consider to be an appropriate level of control on their work environment” (Easton & Van Laar, 2014, p. 16). However, the leadership in student affairs has to communicate with staff what they feel is an appropriate “level of control” in their work environment. Otherwise, role stress may occur (Ward, 1994). Roll stress happens when an individual is confronted with incompatible or unclear expectations, and thus cannot behave in a prescribed way (Kuhn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek & Rosenthal, 1964, as cited in Ward, 1995). As Ward (1995) found in her study, there is a correlation between role stress and autonomy. This can be especially challenging for professionals who experience varying levels of autonomy when they change their positions, their supervisors or their institutions. For example, a midlevel manager may be able to make the decision to spend $5,000 on a program without varying levels of approval, but when the manager changes institutions he or she may need two or more signatures to spend $1,000 on a program. This perception of loss of autonomy may cause role conflict for the staff member (Ward, 1995).

This recommendation of providing opportunities for staff to be involved in making decisions, voicing opinions, and influencing change are dependent on the
institution and its culture. This approach may be more welcome at some colleges and universities than others. It becomes incumbent upon the professional applying for a position within that institution to determine if the institutional culture surrounding autonomy is something they can accept, and to work within the boundaries. However, even if the institution does not foster individual autonomy, there are ways to foster it within a unit or division. For example, a director may meet with their individual staff teams and discuss ways they would like to do a program differently. Or an associate dean may meet with their larger team to brainstorm different ideas for staff development for the following academic year. While autonomy is important to job satisfaction and the well-being of student affairs professionals, reducing role conflict can be achieved through setting clear expectations regarding levels of autonomy, providing staff the opportunity for feedback, and involving them in decisions and changes (Austin, 1995; Bender, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Ward, 1995).

Encourage healthy living. As this study has shown, stress is mediated by how an individual views their health. One’s health is related to their well-being (Diener et al., 2004). The health of staff members is important in delivering quality services to students (Rothmann & Essenko, 2007). High levels of stress, a lack of purpose, and how one perceives their workload all lead to a decline in health (Anderson et al., 2000; Craft & Hochella, 2010; Tarver et al., 1999). Mark and Smith (2012) found that those who worked at universities had higher levels of depression, gastrointestinal issues, and other health related problems than the general population in the United Kingdom. In order to help encourage healthy living, there are the traditional routes of advocating for attention
to diet, exercise, and sleep. Some institutions offer free or reduced prices to the recreation centers for their staff. Other institutions offer programs and services that encourage their faculty and staff to embrace exercise or other healthy habits. Some universities offer meditation, which would allow staff to develop contemplative practices which also helps with improving health (Barbezat & Bush, 2013).

The constantly changing landscape of higher education and student affairs is not going to reduce the stress of student affairs professionals (Torres & Walburt, 2010). The fact is that most signs point to higher levels of stress and more job demands as units, departments, and institutions are asked to do more with less. However, this stress can be mediated by focusing on one’s health as much as possible. While leaders may not be able to buffer all the stress that comes with the shifting landscape of higher education, there are ways to help bolster the well-being and health of employees by encouraging a healthy lifestyle and adapting some of the practices listed above. Since health is impacted by the way one perceives work, student affairs professionals can work on their perceptions as well as adapt some of the strategies discussed earlier (Tarver et al., 1999).

Through setting clear goals, providing opportunities to use abilities and develop skills, acknowledging good work, providing the ability for autonomy, and encouraging healthy living, student affairs professionals may move the needle to the positive side of their well-being. While these are externally related suggestions, there are also internally related factors interconnected to well-being that are inherent to the individual. Even if leaders do all the things recommended above, the individual has to receive some level of satisfaction from their work within student affairs. In other words, the responsibility of
increasing the well-being of student affairs professionals does not fall solely on the leadership and the institution. The other part of the equation is that the professionals themselves have to be invested in remaining in the field and dedicated to the work, as difficult and thankless as that work may be at times.

**Implications for Future Research**

Student affairs professionals’ well-being was measured by looking at certain demographic and work-related variables. In order to gain further insight into the well-being of this population, other approaches and variables could be considered. For example, this survey was administered around the time of winter break in 2014. If the survey was administered in the beginning of the academic year or the end of the academic year, the well-being levels could be different. It could also vary by functional area based on when units may be prepping to serve their students. In the beginning of the year, most units are training student staff and welcoming new students; their services are in full swing. At the end of the year, some units have wrapped up their final programs and their services are ramped down for summer planning to occur.

Different demographic variables can also be considered. This analysis was not run on different functional areas. However, if given an adequate sample size per functional area, there could be analysis done on the well-being of those who work in housing compared to more traditional 9:00 am to 5:00 pm units. A future study may also want to consider collecting more specific information about spiritual or religious beliefs as well as exercise habits, as studies have shown these have implications for well-being (Craft & Hochella, 2010; Diener, 1984; Moran, 2001). Also, the environmental variables
could also change. Some of the surveys distributed in student affairs literature looked most closely at the home-life of the professionals (Scott, 1992). For example, the number of dependents (e.g.: children or aging parents) at home may have an impact on the well-being of the professionals, as they did in Scott’s (1992) study of chief student affairs officers’ stress levels. Considering how much of the home-life the professionals are responsible for managing could also impact well-being levels (Scott, 1992).

Other formal measures could be considered to identify factors that contribute to well-being. For example, including a scale about resilience, grit or hardiness might reveal underlying latent factors in the population that could lend more insight into the well-being of these professionals. In addition, different scales assessing the health of the respondents could be included with attention to health questionnaire regulations. Scales that assess psychological concepts such as anxiety and depression could be considered, as well. Su et al. (2014) conceptualized that the Brief Inventory of Thriving (BIT) could be paired with other health assessments to help health professionals determine whether there was an immediate concern for the well-being of the respondent.

In addition, other measurements of well-being could be utilized to gauge the well-being of the student affairs population. Diener (2009) outlines multiple assessments in his book regarding subjective well-being, while Su et al. (2014) offer the scales they drew upon to help them construct the Brief and Comprehensive Inventories of Thriving. Well-being in this study was measured as a composite score, but there are more sophisticated statistical methods that would allow a deeper exploration of this concept.
The construct of well-being is a latent construct, which means it is not directly observable (Dimitrov, 2012). The variables utilized in the Work Related Quality of Life (WRQoL) scale to measure work-life impact are also latent. These variables lend themselves to more sophisticated statistical analysis through structural equation modeling, either through path analysis, confirmatory factor analysis, or structural regression models (Rayov & Marcoulides, 2006). Standard regression ignores potential measurement error which may alter the results, while structural equation modeling (SEM) actually takes into account measurement error in both the dependent and independent variables for a more accurate result (Royov & Marcoulides, 2006). These sophisticated methods would allow for a deeper exploration of the well-being construct and other collected data.

Another area for exploration could be a mixed methods or qualitative approach to this study. There would need to be a way to initially identify those high or low in well-being; this method would likely be quantitative. Then interviews could be conducted with the individuals who were at the top of their well-being scores to detect patterns in the behavior of those who indicate high levels. In contrast, those with lower well-being scores could be interviewed to determine the common themes that lead to lower levels of well-being. These could be studies on their own, or could be paired with additional data on well-being. This study’s use of the BIT could provide the initial starting point for the implementation of these mixed methods or qualitative studies.
Summary

This chapter summarized the most significant findings of the study which included a well-being score for a large sample of student affairs professionals; an indication that position level is more influential on well-being than years in the field. In addition, Chief Student Affairs Officers have significantly higher well-being than professionals in other positions; and work and well-being are inextricably linked for student affairs professionals. In addition, implications were discussed for student affairs leadership and professionals that included recommendations for setting clear goals, providing opportunities to use abilities and develop skills, acknowledging good work, fostering autonomy where possible, and encouraging healthy living. Though all recommendations are implementable by leadership within student affairs, it is also inherent to the individual professional to foster their own well-being. Lastly, implications for future research were discussed including additional consideration for personal and environmental variables, as well as different methodologies for measurement of well-being in student affairs.

Well-being is a complex construct that has been explored throughout this study. This study has barely scratched the surface of how this construct is related to student affairs professionals, but can serve as a foundation for future explorations of this important topic. As the landscape of higher education continues to shift and change, and the role of the student affairs professional continues to evolve, it will be important to keep the voice of the student affairs professional audible in the well-being conversation. These professionals’ role in providing services and support for students will not change,
and role modeling behaviors associated with well-being will be paramount in helping prepare students to be successful, intellectual, and ethical graduates of higher education.
Appendix A

Student Affairs Administrators: Examining Well-being Related to Time in Field and Position

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

RESEARCH PROCEDURES
This research is being conducted to examine the factors influencing the well-being of student affairs professionals related to time in field and position level. If you agree to participate, you will be asked to take part in a 15-20 minute electronic survey.

RISks
There are not foreseeable risks for participation in this research.

BENEFITS
There are no benefits to you as a participant. This research is expected to yield general knowledge pertaining to the factors that influence the well-being of student affairs professionals.

CONFIDENTIALITY
The data in this study will be confidential. The surveys are anonymous. There will be no way to link data to individual respondent’s identity.

PARTICIPATION
Your participation is voluntary, and you may withdraw from the study at any time and for any reason. If you decide not to participate or if you withdraw from the study, there is no penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled.

CONTACT
This research is being conducted by Hollie Chessman, who is a doctoral student at the College of Education and Human Development at George Mason University. Hollie can be contacted at 703-993-9240. The project is being supervised by Dr. Jaime Lester, who may reached at 703-993-7065. You may contact the George Mason University Office of Research Subject Protections at 703-993-4121 if you have questions or comments regarding your rights as a participant in the research.
This research has been reviewed according to George Mason University procedures governing your participation in this research.

CONSENT
I have read this form and agree to participate in this study and by clicking “I agree” I will begin the assessment. If you would like a copy of this consent form, please print a copy from your browser, or you can email Hollie Chessman at holliemchessman@gmail.com and she will send you an electronic copy.

__________________________
Name

__________________________
Date of Signature

Version date:
Hello:

My name is Hollie Chessman, and I am a PhD student at George Mason University. My research is based on student affairs professionals in American universities and their well-being related to their work-life. I am planning to use a validated instrument called the Comprehensive Instrument of Thriving (CIT) by Diener, Su, and Tay (2014) paired with your Work-Related Quality of Life Scale to look at correlations and to see if we can predict well-being based on the factors in your QOWL scale. I am especially interested in pulling out some of the factors of the QOWL and looking at them individually as it relates to the CIT.

My plan is to distribute these two assessments electronically to several thousand student affairs professionals. There are currently 6000 in the organization I am contacting for permission to use their database.

I would be happy to share the data. Thank you for your consideration, and I look forward to hearing from you!

Sincerely,

Hollie M. Chessman

The response:

To: Hollie M Chessman; Darren Van Laar <darren.van.laar@port.ac.uk>

Dear Holly, it all sounds very interesting. Please let me know if we can help further.

Good luck with your research,

Darren
Appendix C

Work-Related Quality of Life Scale

Your response is very important to us! Please note that no one from your organisation will see your questionnaire. A summary may be provided to your employer but no information will be released that might identify any individual. Please do not take too long over each question; we want your first reaction not a long drawn out thought process. Please do not omit any questions. This isn’t a test; simply a measure of your attitudes to the factors that influence your experience at work.

Please indicate your answers by filling in the circles like this: ☐. If you make a mistake do this: ✗.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>To what extent do you agree with the following?</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Please fill in the appropriate circle</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. I have a clear set of goals and aims to enable me to do my job</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I feel able to voice opinions and influence changes in my area of work</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I have the opportunity to use my abilities at work</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I feel well at the moment</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. My employer provides adequate facilities and flexibility for me to fit work in around my family life</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. My current working hours / patterns suit my personal circumstances</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I often feel under pressure at work</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. When I have done a good job it is acknowledged by my line manager</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<tr>
<td>9. Recently, I have been feeling unhappy and depressed</td>
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<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I am satisfied with my life</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. I am encouraged to develop new skills</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. I am involved in decisions that affect me in my own area of work</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. My employer provides me with what I need to do my job effectively</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. My line manager actively promotes flexible working hours / patterns</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. In most ways my life is close to ideal</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. I work in a safe environment</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Generally things work out well for me</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. I am satisfied with the career opportunities available for me here</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. I often feel excessive levels of stress at work</td>
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<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<tr>
<td>20. I am satisfied with the training I receive in order to perform my present job</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Recently, I have been feeling reasonably happy all things considered</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. The working conditions are satisfactory</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. I am involved in decisions that affect members of the public in my own area of work</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. I am satisfied with the overall quality of my working life</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix D

Comprehensive Inventory of Thriving (CIT)

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Reference:


*The Brief Inventory of Thriving (BIT) is indicated by statements in italics.*

Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with each of the following statements using the scale below.

1 Strongly Disagree  
2 Disagree  
3 Neither Agree nor Disagree  
4 Agree  
5 Strongly Agree

I. Relationship

**Support**

1. There are people I can depend on to help me  
2. There are people who give me support and encouragement  
3. *There are people who appreciate me as a person*

**Community**

1. I pitch in to help when my local community needs something done  
2. I invite my neighbors to my home  
3. I look for ways to help my neighbors when they are in need
Trust

1. I can trust people in my society
2. People in my neighborhood can be trusted
3. Most people I meet are honest

Respect

1. People respect me
2. People are polite to me
3. I am treated with the same amount of respect as others

Loneliness

1. I feel lonely
2. I often feel left out
3. There is no one I feel close to

Belonging

1. I feel a sense of belonging in my community
2. I feel a sense of belonging in my state or province
3. I feel a sense of belonging in my country

II. Engagement

Engagement

1. I get fully absorbed in activities I do
2. In most activities I do, I feel energized
3. I get excited when I work on something

III. Mastery

Skills

1. I use my skills a lot in my everyday life
2. I frequently use my talents
3. I get to do what I am good at everyday

**Learning**

1. I learned something new yesterday
2. Learning new things is important to me
3. I always learn something everyday

**Accomplishment**

1. *I am achieving most of my goals*
2. I am fulfilling my ambitions
3. I am on track to reach my dreams

**Self-Efficacy**

1. *I can succeed if I put my mind to it*
2. I am confident that I can deal with unexpected events
3. I believe that I am capable in most things

**Self-Worth**

1. *What I do in life is valuable and worthwhile*
2. The things I do contribute to society
3. The work I do is important for other people

**IV. Autonomy**

**Control**

1. Other people decide most of my life decisions (R)
2. The life choices I make are not really mine (R)
3. Other people decide what I can and cannot do (R)

**V. Meaning**

**Meaning and Purpose**
1. *My life has a clear sense of purpose*
2. I have found a satisfactory meaning in life
3. I know what gives meaning to my life

**VI. Optimism**

**Optimism**
1. *I am optimistic about my future*
2. I have a positive outlook on life
3. I expect more good things in my life than bad

**VII. Subjective Well-Being**

**Life satisfaction**
1. In most ways my life is close to my ideal
2. I am satisfied with my life
3. *My life is going well*

**Positive feelings**
1. I feel positive most of the time
2. I feel happy most of the time
3. *I feel good most of the time*

**Negative feelings**
1. I feel negative most of the time (R)
2. I experience unhappy feelings most of the time (R)
3. I feel bad most of the time (R)

Note. Reversely scored items are noted with an (R). The CIT subscales may be used alone or in combination with each other. Dimension names and subscale titles are presented for clarification purpose and were removed during data collection in the current study.
Appendix E

Survey Instrument

To better understand the diversity in student affairs professions that are captured in this survey, please provide information about your current position.

1) What is your position level in your organization?
   a. Entry Level
   b. Mid-Level
   c. Senior Level
   d. Chief Student Affairs Officer

2) How many years have you been in the field (2 years of graduate school equals 1 year; please round up or down from the 6 month mark)?
   a. Numerical

The following questions are looking to capture information about how you generally feel. For each phrase below, mark one of the responses to indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the statement. Select the best answer for each.

The scales indicate as follows – 5= Strongly Agree and 1=Strongly Disagree.

3) My life is going well. (SWBLS)
4) I have found a satisfactory meaning in my life. (M)
5) I feel a sense of belonging in my state or province. (RB)
6) I use my skills a lot in my everyday life. (MS)
7) I am achieving most of my goals. (MA)
8) There are people who give me support and encouragement. (RS)
9) I am treated with the same amount of respect as others. (RR)
10) There is no one I feel close to. (RL)
11) I feel good most of the time. (SWBP)
12) I expect more good things in my life than bad. (O)
13) I pitch in to help when my local community needs something done. (RC)
14) I can trust people in my society. (RT)
15) I can succeed if I put my mind to it. (MSE)
16) I feel negative most of the time. (SWBNF)
17) What I do in life is valuable and worthwhile. (MSW)
18) People respect me. (RR)
19) I feel lonely. (RL)
20) The things I do contribute to society. (MSW)
21) I feel a sense of belonging in my community. (RB)
22) I get fully absorbed in activities I do. (E)
23) I always learn something new everyday. (ML)
24) I feel positive most of the time. (SWBPF)
25) The work I do is important for other people. (MSW)
26) Other people decide the most of my life decisions. (A)
27) There are people I can depend on to help me. (RS)
28) I feel bad most of the time. (SWBNF)
29) I invite my neighbors to my home. (RC)
30) People in my neighborhood can be trusted. (RT)
31) I frequently use my talents. (MS)
32) Other people decide what I can and cannot do. (A)
33) I feel happy most of the time. (SWBPF)
34) I believe I am capable in most things. (MSE)
35) My life has a clear sense of purpose. (M)
36) I learned something new yesterday. (ML)
37) I am on track to reach my dreams. (MA)
38) The life choices I make are not really mine. (A)
39) I am optimistic about the future. (O)
40) People are polite to me. (RR)
41) In most activities I do, I feel energized. (E)
42) Learning new things is important to me. (ML)
43) I am satisfied with my life. (SWBLS)
44) I am confident that I can deal with unexpected events. (MSE)
45) I know what gives meaning to my life. (M)
46) I have a positive outlook on life. (O)
47) There are people who appreciate me as a person. (RS)
48) I look for ways to help my neighbors when they are in need. (RC)
49) Most people I meet are honest. (RT)
50) I often feel left out. (RL)
51) I am fulfilling my ambitions. (MA)
52) In most ways my life is close to ideal. (SWBLC)
53) I feel a sense of belonging in my country. (RB)
54) I get excited when I work on something. (E)
55) I get to do what I am good at everyday. (MS)
56) I experience unhappy feelings most of the time. (SWBNF)

The next set of questions is looking to capture your experience at work. Again, for each phrase below, mark one of the responses to indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the statement. Select the best answer for each.

57) I have a clear set of goals and aims to enable me to do my job.
58) I feel able to voice opinions and influence changes in my areas of work.
59) I have the opportunity to use my abilities at work.
60) I feel well at the moment.
61) My employer provides adequate facilities and flexibility for me to fit work in around my family life.
62) My current working hours/patterns suite my personal circumstances.
63) I often feel under pressure at work.
64) When I have done a good job it is acknowledged by my manager.
65) Recently, I have been feeling unhappy or depressed.
66) I am satisfied with my life.
67) I am encouraged to develop new skills.
68) I am involved in decisions that affect ME in my own area of work.
69) My employer provides me with what I need to do my job effectively.
70) My manager actively promotes flexible working hours/patterns.
71) In most ways my life is close to ideal.
72) I work in a safe environment.
73) Generally things work out for me.
74) I am satisfied with the career opportunities available for me here.
75) I often feel excessive levels of stress at work
76) I am satisfied with the training I receive in order to perform my present job.
77) Recently, I have been feeling happy all things considered.
78) The working conditions are satisfactory.
79) I am involved in the decisions that affect members of the public in my own area of work.
80) I am satisfied with the overall quality of my working life.

The following questions ask some basic questions about you. Please select the most appropriate answer.

81) What is your gender?
   a. Male
   b. Female
   c. Transgender
   d. prefer not to answer
82) What is your ethnicity origin (or Race)
   a. White
   b. Hispanic or Latino
   c. Black or African American
   d. Native American or American Indian
   e. Asian/Pacific Islander
   f. Mixed
   g. Other
   h. Prefer not to Answer
83) What is your age (in years, please round to the nearest year)?
   a. Numeric
84) What type of institution do you work at? (Check all that apply).
   a. Two Year
   b. Four Year
   c. Private
   d. Public
   e. Non-profit
   f. For-profit
   g. Religiously-affiliated
   h. Not religiously affiliate

85) How many years have you been at your current institution?
   a. Numerical

86) What is your primary functional area?
   a. Academic Advising Programs;
   b. Adult Learner Programs and Services
   c. Alcohol, Tobacco, and Other Drug Programs
   d. Assessment Services
   e. Auxiliary Services Functional Areas
   f. Campus Activities Programs
   g. Campus Information and Visitor Services
   h. Campus Police and Security Programs
   i. Campus Religious and Spiritual Programs
   j. Career Services; Clinical Health Services
   k. College Honor Societies
   l. College Unions
   m. Commuter and Off-Campus Living Programs
   n. Conference and Event Programs
   o. Counseling Services
   p. Dining Service Programs
   q. Disability Resources and Services
   r. Education Abroad Programs and Services
   s. Financial Aid Programs
   t. Fraternity and Sorority Advising Programs
   u. Graduate and Professional Student Programs and Services
   v. Health Promotion Services
   w. Housing and Residential Life Programs
   x. International Student Programs and Services
   y. Internship Programs
   z. Learning Assistance Programs
   aa. Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgender Programs and Services
   bb. Master’s Level Student Affairs Professional Preparation Programs
   cc. Multicultural Student Programs and Services
   dd. Orientation Programs
   ee. Parent and Family Programs
   ff. Recreational Sports Programs
gg. Registrar Programs and Services
hh. Service-Learning Programs
ii. Sexual Assault and Relationship Violence Prevention Programs
jj. Student Conduct Programs
kk. Student Leadership Programs
ll. Transfer Student Programs and Services
mm. TRIO and Other Educational Opportunity Programs
nn. Undergraduate Admissions Programs and Services
oo. Undergraduate Research Programs
pp. Veterans and Military Programs and Services
qq. Women Student Programs and Services

87) Is serving on-call part of your job responsibilities?
   a. Yes
   b. No

88) What is the highest degree or level of school you have completed? If currently enrolled, highest degree received.
   a. High School or GED
   b. Some college credit, no degree
   c. Trade/Technical/vocational training
   d. Associates
   e. Bachelor’s
   f. Master’s
   g. Professional
   h. Doctorate

89) What is your salary?
   a. $19,999 and below
   b. $20,000 to $29,999
   c. $40,000 to $49,999
   d. $50,000 to $59,999
   e. $60,000 to $69,999
   f. $70,000 to $79,999
   g. $80,000 to $89,999
   h. $90,000 to $99,999
   i. $100,000 to $149,999
   j. $150,000 or more
   k. Prefer not to answer

90) What region are you from? (census regions)
   a. North East (CT, ME, MA, NJ, NH, NY, PA, RI, VT)
   b. Midwest (IA, IL, IN, KS, MI, MN, MO, NE, ND, OH, SD)
   c. South (AL, AK, DE, DC, FL, GA, KY, LA, MD, MS, NC, OK, SC, TN, TX, VA, WV)
   d. West (AZ, CA, CO, ID, OR, MT, NV, NM, UT, WA, WY)
   e. Alaska/Hawaii
   f. Out of the Country
91) Within the next year, I plan to:
   a. Leave my current position
   b. Leave my current institution
   c. Leave the career/profession
   d. None of the above.

92) My relationship status is:
   a. Single
   b. Partnered/Civil Union/Married
   c. Separated/Divorced
   d. Widowed

93) Overall, I would rate my health as:
   a. Excellent
   b. Good
   c. Fair
   d. Poor
Appendix F

From: Su, Rong <rsu@purdue.edu>
Mon 1/26/2015 8:50 PM
To: Hollie M Chessman;

Dear Hollie,

Thank you for the email. Congratulations on completing your data collection! Regarding your questions:

(1) Yes, the items in the Loneliness subscale also need to be reversely scored. Thank you for pointing it out. The appendix has now been corrected.

(2) You could use a composite score of the CIT, although it may not be optimal. The reason is that the CIT was created to measure seven broad, intercorrelated but separate, dimensions of psychological well-being. Although all the CIT subscales are correlated to some extent, some of these correlations are lower than others so you may find more than one factors underlying the CIT items—that makes using one composite score of CIT less interpretable and less defensible. Instead, you can use the composite score of the BIT—a subset of 10 items from the CIT that we used to create a short scale (validated in the same article)—for the exact purpose of using it as an indicator of overall well-being. A more sophisticated alternative would be to conduct analysis using structural equation modeling and create latent scores for factors underlying the CIT subscales for each participant. I personally would prefer the latter two solutions.

Your criterion measures sound great. If you have a chance to include any objective indicators of health and life outcomes, that would also strengthen the results.

Hope this is helpful. Please don’t hesitate to let me know if you need more information about the scales or anything else.

All the best for your study,

--

Rong Su, Ph.D.
Assistant Professor
Department of Psychological Sciences
Purdue University
703 Third Street
West Lafayette, IN 47907
Phone: (765) 496-0174
Email: rsu@purdue.edu
http://www.rongsu.org

On Jan 26, 2015, at 3:50 PM, Hollie M Chessman <hchessma@gmu.edu> wrote:
Hello Dr. Su:

My name is Hollie Chessman, and I am a PhD student at George Mason University in education. I decided to use the CIT in my study of Student Affairs Professionals and their well-being. I am very excited about beginning the analysis of my data as I received over 2000 completed responses to my survey request.

I have a few questions that I wanted to clarify with you as I begin my analysis:

1) You have two items that are indicated in the appendix as reverse scored (Lack of Control and Negative Feelings). However, as I am reviewing the data, I am wondering if Loneliness should also be reverse scored?

2) I am wondering what your thoughts are on utilizing a composite score on the CIT as a measure of well-being? I would like to utilize the composite score on the instrument to look for statistical difference between my four groups of professionals (entry, mid, senior and chief).

I realize the instrument is still being validated, and I am going to be utilizing the Work-Related Quality of Life Scale that also measures some similar items. In addition, I have also asked my respondents about their overall health rating. I am working with my chair to further strategize on this.

I appreciate any thoughts or insights you might have. Thank you for your time and consideration.

Sincerely,

Hollie
### Table 12

*Studies From The Literature Review and Variables Considered*

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Notes from the Table 12: Abbreviations under the Category heading mean the following: LS=Life satisfaction; JS=Job satisfaction; PIL=Purpose in life; PNA=Positive/Negative Affect; The other categories across the top indicate the study considered the following: Position=Position level; Race=Race and Ethnicity; Salary=Salary level; Plans=Future plans regarding job or field of student affairs; Relationship Status=Married; single; divorced; Time=Time in the field; Type=Type of institution (private/public); JCS=Job Career Satisfaction; CAW=Control at Work; HWI=Home-Work Interface; SAW=Stress at Work; OVR=Overall quality of working life; Health=Self-perception of health level
Appendix H:

IRB Approval Letter

DATE: November 7, 2014
TO: Jaime Lester, PhD
FROM: George Mason University IRB
Project Title: [679253-1] Student Affairs Professionals & Well-being
SUBMISSION TYPE: New Project
ACTION: DETERMINATION OF EXEMPT STATUS
DECISION DATE: November 7, 2014
REVIEW CATEGORY: Exemption category #2

Thank you for your submission of New Project materials for this project. The Office of Research Integrity & Assurance (ORIA) has determined this project is EXEMPT FROM IRB REVIEW according to federal regulations.

Please remember that all research must be conducted as described in the submitted materials.

Please note that any revision to previously approved materials must be submitted to the ORIA prior to initiation. Please use the appropriate revision forms for this procedure.

If you have any questions, please contact Bess Dieffenbach at 703-993-4121 or edieffen@gmu.edu. Please include your project title and reference number in all correspondence with this committee.

This letter has been electronically signed in accordance with all applicable regulations, and a copy is retained within George Mason University IRB’s records.


the organizational commitment and life satisfaction of women student affairs administrators. *NASPA Journal, 36*(1), 19-34


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Biography

Hollie M. Chessman graduated from Grand Valley High School in Orwell, OH in 1994. She attended Kent State University in Kent, OH where she earned her Bachelor of Science in Secondary Communications Education with certifications to teach English, Speech and Journalism to grades 7-12. She was a highly involved student leader in the Student Recreation Council, and assisted in running the referendum and consulting for the building of a new Campus Recreation and Wellness Center. After she earned her undergraduate degree in 1998, Hollie enrolled in graduate school at Kent and worked in the new recreation center she helped to build while earning a degree in College Student Personnel. She transferred in 1999 to the Department of Residential Services where she was an assistant hall director in Terrace Hall. She graduated from Kent State with a Masters of Education in 2001. After graduate school, she worked at Tulane University managing a 12-story freshman residence hall in New Orleans, LA. She also taught Learning and Working Skills for students at Delgado Community College. Since then she has worked in the field of student affairs for almost 15 years in various roles ranging from residence life, orientation, facilities management, campus programming, commuter services, and various other functional areas. She has also taught several for credit undergraduate classes. Hollie also worked at Lake Erie College in Painesville, OH, Loyola University New Orleans in New Orleans, LA, and George Mason University in Fairfax, VA.