WHY THEY STAY: VARIABLES ASSOCIATED WITH COMMITMENT AMONG

STUDENT AFFAIRS PROFESSIONALS

BY

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation work to my parents, David and Marilyn. Their unwavering support and encouragement for all of my educational pursuits solidify their status as the best teachers I have ever had.

I also wish to dedicate this work to the countless student affairs professionals, past, present, and future, who do some of the toughest and most meaningful work in developing students. Thank you for all you do.
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ABSTRACT

Attrition of new student affairs professionals can be financially burdensome to an institution and simultaneously handicaps the continuity of service and engagement of student affairs. Factors related to the departure of student affairs staff have been studied; however, understanding how professionals who stay build commitment has remained unknown. This lack of understanding limits leaders’ abilities to proactively address a high rate of attrition among new student affairs professionals. The purpose of this study was to understand how satisfaction and dissatisfaction affect the development of commitment among student affairs professionals. This study was conducted using a qualitative methodology with a case study design. Using a purposeful sample, seven midlevel student affairs professionals shared their experiences of satisfaction and commitment relevant to their organization and the student affairs profession. Participants completed the Abridged Job Descriptive Index instrument, participated in a semi-structured interview, and provided artifacts relative to their experiences. All collected data were coded, identifying common points of interest and patterns. Four primary themes emerged as having a direct connection to satisfaction and commitment: (a) The Work Itself, (b) An Employee’s Relationships, (c) The Perceived Level of Investment an Employee Feels, and (d) Benefits. Deep levels of affective and normative commitments were expressed by participants who worked with organization leaders who had recognized factors associated with satisfaction and the influence on commitment, demonstrated command of participants’ work, involved participants in policies and
processes, and demonstrated investment in employees’ overall experiences. Financial and employment benefits, while valued, were not found to be a dominating factor for why a professional remains with an organization. Findings of this study can help student affairs leaders prioritize and emphasize the variables consistent with satisfaction and the building of employee commitment. Future research should look at the development of commitment of student affairs professionals who have been in the field longer than 8 years to determine if variables reflective of satisfaction and commitment remain constant or change over time.
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

U.S. higher education has been associated with academic achievement, research contributions, and athletic performance; however, a deep understanding of how universities function reveals a division of responsibilities for student success. Critical to the success and growth of college students are functions and services provided under the student services/affairs umbrella (Paine, 2013). Student affairs on a college campus routinely includes offices and services designed to help students navigate academic, personal, emotional, and physical challenges (Paine, 2013). Student affairs professionals can be characterized as the educators “behind the curtain,” seeking to develop the whole student in tandem with the academic goals of the institution.

Although not a prerequisite, most student affairs professionals complete a graduate degree in college student personnel or student development before entering the profession (Hunter, 1992). While the number of student affairs graduate programs has increased nationally, including expanded course offerings through technology, the path of entering the field through graduate school has remained unchanged (Mertz et al., 2012; Ortiz et al., 2015). Preparatory programs, coupled with a practical assistantship experiences, allow graduate students to practice theories before entry into professional jobs (Kranzow & Jacob, 2018). While there are many reasons professionals enter the field of student affairs, there is often a passion for the vibrancy and uniqueness of a college campus; an interest in this work often starts with that professional’s own undergraduate experiences (Hunter, 1992).
Despite carrying the optimism of positive impact on students, Lorden (1998) and Tull (2006) found between 50-60% of new professionals who enter the student affairs profession leave during their first 5 years of employment. Studies about attrition in the field of student affairs since 2006 have had focuses on intentions to leave, without reporting actual rates of attrition (Marshall et al., 2016; Mullen et al., 2018; Silver & Jakeman, 2014). The scope of attrition across student affairs has not been studied holistically since the findings of Lorden and Tull. Instead, studies of attrition among student affairs professionals have had focuses on the negotiation of commitment through lenses of specific underrepresented or marginalized identities, such as professionals who identify as lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender (LGBT; Kortegast & van der Torn, 2018) or from racial or ethnic minorities (West, 2015).

Studies about attrition have aided in recognizing the impacts of well-being (e.g., stress, burnout, overall levels of satisfaction) as predictive factors in determining an employee’s intent to leave a job (Mullen et al., 2018). An inherent problem in studying attrition is the reliance on participation from individuals who no longer associate with the profession. As a result, many recent studies of student affairs staff commitment have had focuses on intentions of staff members who may or may not leave the profession (Mullen et al., 2018; Wilson et al., 2016).

Reasons student affairs practitioners leave the field, such as long hours, low pay, and lack of upward mobility, have remained unchanged over time (Bender, 2009; Lorden, 1998; Mullen et al., 2018; Tull, 2006). Implementing resource-dependent changes is difficult in an era of heightened accountability and public scrutiny (Brown, 2018). With
the cost of higher education attendance on the rise, the accountability for higher education “bloat” often points to administrative roles and functions (Williamson et al., 2018). Despite an elevated level of attrition among new professionals, student affairs organizations consist of many experienced staff members who have demonstrated commitment beyond the 5-year threshold described by Lorden (1998) and Tull (2006). Understanding how seasoned professionals have developed commitment to the profession could inform student affairs leaders on how to work with and engage new staff to reduce attrition.

**Study Background/Foundation**

Workforce attrition is not a unique challenge to the student affairs profession. The retail and service industries, often synonymous with entry-level and minimally skilled workforces, experience higher rates of staff turnover than other industries (Solnet et al., 2012). Arguments in favor of attrition suggest a cycle of new ideas entering the work environment can contribute to overall organizational output (De Winne et al., 2018). Conversely, given the educational requirements necessary to enter the student affairs field, an argument for expected higher levels of commitment of student affairs practitioners entering the field is plausible (Ortiz et al., 2018).

Employee departure and organizational turnover place a significant financial and human resource burden on the organization. Financial costs of recruitment, interviewing, selection, and training a replacement staff member accumulate. D. G. Allen et al. (2010) estimated the cost of replacing a staff member can range between 50% and 100% of the departed staff member’s annual salary. Additionally, organizations must deal with
intangible costs associated with continuity of service, engagement with stakeholders, and
abilities to meet organizational goals and outcomes with a reduced workforce (Mullen et
al., 2018). Student affairs attrition rates have not changed noticeably since Lorden (1998)
and Tull’s (2006) findings: The student affairs profession has accepted a high rate of
turnover as endemic and inevitable (Frank, 2013).

With increased calls for accountability and results, institutions of higher education
face greater demand to show a positive return on investment from tuition-paying
students, taxpayers, and legislative bodies (Brown, 2018). In an economy of decreased
funding for higher education, enrollment fluctuations, and mandatory hiring freezes, the
loss of administrative staff can have consequences for an organization’s success. When
resources are not available to fill vacant positions, the ability to retain staff and maintain
cohesive organizational function is made all the more critical (Mullen et al., 2018;
Williamson et al., 2018).

**Deficiencies in the Evidence**

The literature on commitment and satisfaction in the student affairs profession is
sparse, especially literature on variables contributing to professionals leaving the field.
Although most student affairs professionals enter the field in a similar manner, a gap still
exists in understanding as to why some professionals exit early and others make a career
commitment. In exploring student affairs attrition, nearly all researchers have
implemented a quantitative inquiry. A need has existed for a qualitative inquiry to
understand factors associated with building and establishing commitment to
include voices and experiences of those who stay and those who leave.
To understand employee commitment, an individual could consider variables affecting satisfaction and engagement. Researchers studying satisfaction have found employees who feel low levels of stress and a rewarding sense of purpose in their work report high levels of job satisfaction and low levels of the desire to depart (Boehman, 2006; Mullen et al., 2018; Srivastava, 2013). While Herzberg et al. (1959) believed satisfied employees would not seek to leave an organization, little research exists to explain how satisfied professionals develop an organizational commitment.

Employee satisfaction studies often employ the tenants of Herzberg et al.’s (1959) two-factor theory of motivator and hygiene variables (Alfayad & Mohd Arif, 2017; Khanna, 2015). The two-factor theory states the presence of motivator variables, such as decision-making abilities, recognition, and increased levels of responsibility, relates to high levels of employee satisfaction, while the absence of hygiene variables, such as increasing salary, advancement opportunities, and positive relationships with colleagues and supervisors, leads to dissatisfaction. Although the two-factor theory’s application to higher education is limited, it is unclear why some professionals leave the field, while experienced professionals demonstrate commitment, given the same applicable variables of low pay, long hours, lack of upward mobility, and other absent hygiene factors for many years (Lorden, 1998; Mullen et al., 2018; Tull, 2006).

Experienced student affairs professionals remain in the field for a variety of reasons. The three domains that aid in understanding commitment to the profession and an organization are (a) affective, (b) normative, and (c) continuance. Professionals who show affective or normative commitment remain with an organization because of a sense
of joy (affective) or obligation (normative), commitment variables seen as altruistic to the service of others (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Professionals demonstrating aspects of a *continuance* commitment remain with an organization out of fear of personal loss, such as salary, benefits, or title (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Such commitment aligns with personal motivation. Whether or not experienced student affairs professionals attribute higher levels of affective, normative, or continuance commitment as reasons for staying in the field remains uncertain. Similarly, factors contributing to the development of commitment remain unknown.

**Problem Statement**

The problem is 50-60% of employees entering the student affairs profession leave within 5 years because of uneasily changed variables, such as salary, upward mobility, and hours (Marshall et al., 2016; Tull, 2006). The departure of staff creates a drain on resources, increased workload for remaining staff members, and disruption of organizational continuity and services (D. G. Allen et al., 2010). With little research dedicated to understanding factors contributing to student affairs employee satisfaction and the development of commitment, it remains incumbent on student affairs leaders to understand the needs of new professionals, as they transition into the field (Lombardi & Mather, 2016). While commitment has been categorized into dimensions of affective, continuance, and normative commitment, it is not well understood which variables impact employee satisfaction or engagement, nor how these variables contribute to the development of commitment (Jena et al., 2017; Nazir & Islam, 2017).


**Audience**

This study has implications for multiple stakeholder groups. As a direct benefit to student affairs organization and departments, leaders can understand variables associated with building commitment, possibly slowing rates of attrition among entry-level staff. Consequently, recognition and engagement of these variables can have a direct, positive impact on professionals entering the field. A leader’s conscious recognition of variables associated with improving satisfaction and commitment can translate to positive experiences for new professionals. Similarly, institutions and organizations facing constrained resources can reduce the strain on budgetary resources devoted to replacing staff members. Additionally, the slowing of attrition and increased rates of retention of student affairs professionals could have a positive impact on students, as organizations can maintain expected levels of programs and services.

**Specific Leadership Problem**

Job satisfaction, as an antecedent of employee commitment, is impacted by variables unknown, unaddressed, or ignored. Absent an understanding of the phenomena occurring in an organization, leaders cannot address variables responsible for job satisfaction and commitment. Smerek and Peterson (2007) were among the first to examine how workplace characteristics impact satisfaction among nonfaculty administrators in higher education.

Previous quantitative studies about employee satisfaction have revealed the value of an employee having strong relationships in the workplace and enjoying job autonomy as factors related to satisfaction (Bender, 2009; Hill, 1986; Yang, 2010). Researchers
shifted their inquiry from employee satisfaction to employee commitment after the turn of the century, realizing even unsatisfied employees can demonstrate commitment by remaining with the organization (Eslami & Gharakhani, 2012; C. Mathieu et al., 2016; Nagar, 2012; Srivastava, 2013). The literature lacks studies aimed at exploring the relationship between employee satisfaction and effects on employee commitment in the student affairs profession. Void of this understanding, connecting satisfaction with commitment could be generalized and hypothesized to reduce attrition among new student affairs professionals.

**Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this qualitative study was to understand how feelings and perceptions of satisfaction and dissatisfaction affect the development of commitment among student affairs professionals. Through the completion of the Abridged Job Descriptive Index (aJDI), participants indicated the presence or absence of motivator and hygiene variables in their work, specifically, the work itself, colleagues, pay, opportunities for promotion, supervision, and the overall job. Understanding how satisfaction and dissatisfaction impact the building of commitment can inform leadership behavior and organizational culture. Supporting and encouraging factors relative to the establishment of affective and normative commitments may slow the high attrition rate of new professionals, while simultaneously strengthening commitment of existing professionals.
Methodology Overview

This qualitative research study involved a case study design inclusive of interviews and artifact review. Creswell (2014) stated the value of qualitative inquiry in developing an understanding of situations in which people associate a social or human problem. When studying the human condition, the collection of qualitative data develops from experiences to generalized themes, allowing the researcher to develop meaning from the data (Creswell, 2014). Yin (2018) argued case study designs as appropriate methods for contemporary investigations, given boundaries between the context and the phenomenon, may not be clear. Similarly, using a case study approach is ideal for research where there may be more variables of interest than data points, benefits from the prior development of theoretical guides, and reliance on multiple sources of evidence (Yin, 2018).

Through this study, I explored how job satisfaction influences how student affairs professionals build commitment to their organizations and to the student affairs profession. My naturalistic inquiry remained free from predetermined constraints, included real-world situations as they were, and aligned with the purpose of the qualitative study (Patton, 2015). The decision to use a qualitative methodology approach for this research study was in line with a constructivist research paradigm. Patton (2015) noted the duty placed upon the researcher to understand how people have constructed reality and how that manifests into meaning for this group of people under this paradigm. This study included Meyer and Allen’s (1991) three-component model (TCM) of commitment, which includes the following components: (a) affective (e.g., positive
feelings), (b) normative (e.g., sense of obligation), and (c) continuance commitment (e.g., perceived loss).

**Research Questions**

In an effort to understand how student affairs professionals develop each of the three domains of commitment and how satisfaction and dissatisfaction influence employee commitment to an organization and the profession, the following research questions guided this study:

1. How do experienced student affairs professionals build commitment?
   a. What variables are associated with the development of affective commitment?
   b. What variables are associated with the development of normative commitment?
   c. What variables are associated with the development of continuance commitment?

2. How does the presence of motivator factors contribute to an employee’s satisfaction as it relates to the commitment to stay in the field of student affairs?

3. How does the absence of hygiene factors contribute to an employee’s satisfaction as it relates to the commitment to remain in the field of student affairs?
The aim of these research questions was to understand how employees experience their workplaces, as they navigate aspects of satisfaction and dissatisfaction in their decision-making process of committing to an organization and the profession.

**Study Limitations**

In addressing the limitations of case studies, Yin (2018) put forth several considerations: (a) a presumed lack of rigor by other scholars; (b) an inability to generalize findings to a larger population; (c) the possibility of confusion with non-research case studies; and (d) lacking comparative advantage, wherein the effectiveness of a treatment or intervention cannot be addressed. Another limitation in case study research is the reporting process. Baxter and Jack (2008) acknowledged the rigorous task of reporting complex phenomenon into a concise manner, easily understood and digestible by others. Recognizing a participant may fear repercussions for speaking critically of their work experiences and thus be guarded with the information they share, the informed consent process included a discussion of confidentiality throughout the data collection process.

Another limitation involves participants selected for this study: administrators working in public institutions in the United States. The perspectives of student affairs professionals working in private or for-profit institutions and administrators working outside of the United States were not included in this study.

Finally, because qualitative inquiry requires interpretation of data to discern themes, researcher bias was mitigated through triangulation of data sources and use of researcher memos. Triangulation involves the convergence of multiple data sources to
establish consistency among the findings (Yin, 2018). Throughout the semistructured interview process, the use of memos aided in capturing poignant themes, researching areas for further inquiry, and noting similarities among other participants.

**Definitions of Key Terms**

**Affective commitment:** Meyer and Allen (1991) described affective commitment as the emotional attachment, identification, and involvement an employee derives from an organization and its goals. Affective commitment is a result of an employee staying with an organization because they choose to do so.

**Attrition:** Attrition is defined as the process in which an organization loses an employee as a result of the employee’s voluntary decision to leave (Marsden, 2016). The attrition of employees does not involve the termination of an employee by the organization.

**Continuance commitment:** Continuance commitment is expressed when an employee perceives costs of leaving the organization (e.g., benefits, salary, job title, promotion opportunity) as too great and continues membership with an organization out of a belief of need (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

**Employee engagement:** Employee engagement, as defined by Kahn (1990), is the varying degrees to which an employee approaches their work physically, cognitively, and emotionally.

**Hygiene factors:** Hygiene factors are the organizational and workplace variables related to external impacts of an employee’s satisfaction, such as benefits, salary, and work conditions. These variables considered are maintenance factors, outside of the
work, which do not positively improve motivation or satisfaction; rather, absence (e.g., low pay, poor working conditions) increases an employee’s dissatisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1959).

*Job satisfaction:* An employee mindset toward one’s work or separated attitudes relative to various aspects of the job is indicative of their level of satisfaction (Federici & Skaalvik, 2012).

*Motivator factors:* Motivator factors are the intrinsic variables associated with one’s work (e.g., the work itself, recognition of work, involvement in decision-making processes) associated with having a positive impact on satisfaction. Herzberg et al. (1959) posited the presence of motivator factors increases an employee’s motivation; however, the absence of motivator factors does not increase dissatisfaction.

*Normative commitment:* Normative commitment is demonstrated by individuals who believe in remaining with an organization because it is the “right thing to do” rather than out of a sense of needing to or wanting to (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

*Organizational commitment:* An organizational commitment is a psychological connection an individual establishes with an organization demonstrated by the employee’s decision to remain with the organization. Organizational commitment is seen as a multidimensional paradigm comprised of affective (emotional attachment to the organization), normative (sense of obligation to the organization), and continuance commitment (recognition of cost(s) associated with leaving the organization), with each one expressed to varying degrees (Meyer & Allen, 1991).
Experienced professional: For this study, an experienced professional is a midlevel professional, given their position in organizational hierarchy, role responsibilities, and 5 to 8 years of experience the field; experienced professionals have also held at least two, but no more than three, positions of employment in the student affairs field (Mills, 2009).

Summary

The purpose of this qualitative study was to understand how feelings and perceptions of satisfaction and dissatisfaction affect the development of commitment among student affairs professionals. In the student affairs profession, 50-60% of new professionals exit the profession in the first 5 years of employment. The attrition of staff disrupts continuity of service and adds financial burden to organizations, as they seek to replace departing staff (Lorden, 1998; Merhar, 2016; Tull, 2006). Identifying variables consistent with student affairs professionals building commitment can slow turnover and increase commitment when applied to experiences of professionals entering the field.

Chapter 2 includes a discussion of commitment, satisfaction as an antecedent to commitment, and employee engagement. Additionally, roles of new professionals and experienced professionals are explored in relation to attrition and commitment. Chapter 3 provides an overview of the qualitative methodology used for this study, including participant selection data analysis methods and limitations. Findings of the study are presented in Chapter 4, including the four emergent themes and supporting categories. Finally, a discussion of findings and their application to leadership and recommendations for further research are discussed in Chapter 5.
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

The study of organizational commitment has changed significantly over the past 60 years, morphing from a dualistic view of an employee being committed or not to a holistic view embracing multiple complexities in workplaces. Boehman (2007) found student affairs professionals have a commitment to their work, in light of the evidence of 50% to 60% of new professionals leaving the field in their first 5 years of employment (Lorden, 1998; Tull, 2006). The most widely accepted approach to understanding organizational commitment is Meyer and Allen’s (1991) TCM of commitment; however, which variables relate to the development of that commitment remains unknown.

Commitment research includes ideas of employee satisfaction and engagement to understand commitment. This chapter is organized into the following sections: (a) Organizational Commitment, (b) Satisfaction as an Antecedent to Commitment; (c) Employee Engagement, (d) Turnover and Attrition in the Student Affairs Profession, (e) New Student Affairs Professionals, (f) Mid- and Senior-Level Student Affairs Professionals, and (g) the Role of Perception in Researching Personal Experiences Related to Commitment.

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is often described as a positive relationship between an individual and their organization, whereupon the individual internalizes the values and goals of the organization, exerts effort in pursuit of those goals, and demonstrates a desire to be part of the organization (Hunt & Morgan, 1994;
Mohammed & Eleswed, 2013). Commitment is mutually beneficial to the employee (e.g., satisfaction, involvement, advancement) and the organization (e.g., motivation, morale, low levels of turnover; Brien et al., 2015; Devos et al., 2013; Erdem & Ucar, 2013). Commitment is one’s intent or obligation to do something in the future or to commit to a course of action or relationship (Brien et al., 2015; Cohen, 2007). Organizational commitment is one’s intent or obligation to remain with an organization. A simplistic definition of organizational commitment does not include recognition of psychological attachments between employees and the organization in the development of commitment (T. E. Becker et al., 1996; J. E. Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). The variance in definitions of organizational commitment suggests the need for researchers to ensure their measures of commitment align to the intended meaning in their studies (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Researchers conducting the first studies of organizational commitment viewed the practice as a one-dimensional behavior, an intent to remain with or leave an organization (H. S. Becker, 1960; Scholl, 1981). As one of the earliest attempts to explain how an employee forms commitment to an organization, H. S. Becker (1960) posited organizational commitment occurs when employees “engage in consistent lines of activity” (p. 33), otherwise known as a side-bet. The side-bet idea stemmed from the belief an individual makes investments outside the scope of their immediate work tasks over time (e.g., nontransferable benefit fund, privileges of seniority) that maintain a value or investment for the employee. In the side-bet theory, H. S. Becker posited an individual who has placed multiple side-bets would view leaving an organization as
costly and severe, thus deterring an employee from leaving their organization or profession. H. S. Becker believed the more side-bets made by an employee, the more likely the employee was to stay in the organization or profession. While H. S. Becker’s theory remains one of the first understandings of organizational commitment, it has been subject to scrutiny over the years, particularly in the definition of commitment and in the application of measures of commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Meyer and Allen (1984) saw value in H. S. Becker’s side-bet theory, believing side bets to be antecedent behaviors, thus including it in their TCM of commitment under the continuance commitment dimension.

The idea of having continuous commitment was a critical factor in Kanter’s (1968) study of behaviors social groups/communities demand of their members. Kanter identified three forms of commitment: (a) continuance, (b) cohesion, and (c) control, binding personality systems to parts of social systems. *Continuance commitment* is centered on the idea of investments: gains and losses associated with remaining or leaving a group. *Cohesion commitment* involves the affective attachment of individuals to the community, resulting in fulfillment from relationships with other members of the group. *Control commitment* is related to an individual’s obedience to the group’s authority and establishing an identity in alignment with conditions of the system. Key to Kanter’s approach (as cited in Klein et al., 2012) was the idea that all three commitment dimensions are interconnected and could be simultaneously engaged to develop high levels of organizational commitment.
In studying organizational commitment, Ritzer and Trice (1969) found a correlation between commitment and employee mobility and salary. While an individual’s educational background or attainment was not tied to a demonstrated level of commitment, those who had majored in the field in which they worked showed higher scores of commitments than counterparts with majors in other fields. Ritzer and Trice believed organizational commitment to be present when individuals seek meaning in their work pursuits. This recognition of a psychological attachment between employees and an organization stands in contrast to H. S. Becker’s (1960) side-bet theory.

In a longitudinal study of organizational commitment and job satisfaction, Porter et al. (1974) developed one of the earliest standards for measuring organizational commitment to gain broad acceptance. An employee’s attitude about their organization is a better indicator of deciding to stay or leave an organization than aspects of one’s job tasks or responsibilities (Porter et al., 1974). This two-factor approach includes how an employee’s values align with those of the organization (attitudinal) and how an employee is “locked-in” to the organization (behavioral; Mowday et al., 1982). Porter et al. developed the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ), a 15-question, Likert-style survey used to understand the psychological basis for attachment to an organization and the associated consequences of commitment (Cohen, 2007; Porter et al., 1974). While a significant contribution to the study of organizational commitment, the OCQ contains elements of examining exhibitions of turnover (behavioral) intentions, rather than performance (attitudinal) intentions, drawing criticism from researchers (Cohen, 2007; WeiBo et al., 2010). The approach was criticized for not explaining how an
individual becomes committed to the organization, arguing this construct was unidimensional in nature (Mayer & Schoorman, 1998).

Arguing for a two-dimensional construct of organizational commitment, Angle and Perry (1981) built on concepts put forth by Porter et al. (1974). Angle and Perry discovered two distinct dimensions of value commitment and commitment to stay. Value commitment was deemed to have positive connection with the organization (affective). A commitment to stay was demonstrative of the economic transaction between the employee and the organization. Mayer and Schoorman (1998) later refined the concept of Angle and Perry’s commitment to stay as continuance commitment and connected Angle and Perry’s value commitment to March and Simon’s (1958) concept of the decision to produce and to participate (continuance commitment). Unlike the model proposed by Porter et al., this two-factor model was predictive of behavior outcomes, measuring two well-defined dimensions. Mayer and Schoorman contended increasing one type of commitment would not necessarily affect both commitments.

As organizational commitment studies have expanded, there has been an increasing recognition of the limits of two-factor models. With awareness for the need to study organizational commitment through a multidimensional construct, Hunt and Morgan (1994) found an encompassing organizational commitment to be a critical mediating construct to organizational outcomes. Commitment to constituency-specific groups is important given the alignments “lead to, bring about, or result in” (Hunt & Morgan, 1994, p. 1581) global commitment. Specifically, Hunt and Morgan found constituency-specific commitments to top management and to direct supervisors to
be essential factors, making them some of the earliest researchers to suggest a link between organizational support and organizational commitment. In a study of college graduates moving into the work sector, T. E. Becker et al. (1996) found contrary results to those of Hunt and Morgan, arguing effects of commitment to one’s supervisor were not mediated by a commitment to the organization.

Researchers have realized commitment to an organization might occur through personal identification with the organization; some employees may fear losing some benefit or prestige, while other employees may remain with an organization because it is the right thing to do. Meyer and Allen (1991) built on foundations laid by H. S. Becker (1960) and Porter et al. (1974), creating the TCM of affective, continuance, and normative commitment. Initially, the affective commitment scale was an improvement on Porter et al.’s OCQ, the questionnaire used to measure optimism felt by an employee’s identification with an involvement with the organization. The continuance commitment scale was an improvement on H. S. Becker’s theory and included an examination of how an individual feels about their commitment to an organization based on presumed costs associated with leaving. H. S. Becker added the normative commitment scale years later. Rather than relying on previous models of commitment focused on determining the best single dimension for employee commitment, the TCM honors the complexity of an employee’s process of committing to an organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). The TCM has emerged as a reliable construct for understanding organizational commitment, given its empirical support (Nagar, 2012).
Meyer and Allen (1997) saw organizational commitment as “reflecting the affective orientation toward the organization, a recognition of the costs associated with leaving the organization, and a moral obligation to remain with the organization” (p. 11). In Meyer and Allen’s (1991) TCM of commitment, employees are likely to remain with an organization through any combination of three domains: (a) affective, (b) continuance, and (c) normative commitment. When employees associate positive feelings with, attachment to, or involvement in their organization, they demonstrate affective commitment. Affective commitment forms through personal involvement, identification with the relevant target, and congruency with values (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). In the continuance commitment domain, employees remain committed to an organization given the perceived costs associated with leaving the organization (e.g., relocation, salary). A continuance commitment manifests as the result of accumulated side-bets or investments by the employee (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Under a normative commitment, employees have developed senses of obligation to remain with the organization. Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) suggested normative commitment results as a function of organizational and cultural socialization, where benefits received need reciprocation.

The three distinct components of the TCM do not exist as separate types of commitment; they intertwine and reflect varying degrees of each type of commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Nawab & Bhatti, 2011). An assumption of TCM is individuals demonstrate some levels of affective, continuance, and normative commitment. An individual may exhibit an elevated level of normative commitment (i.e., they stay
because they feel an obligation to do so), yet do not so out of a fear of personal loss, suggesting a low level of continuance commitment. Another member of the organization may have a strong affective commitment and a low continuance commitment. A third employee may feel a strong continuance commitment but have weak affective and normative commitments. Individuals possessing high levels of affective, continuance, and normative commitment are more likely to exhibit commitment (retention) to their organization than individuals demonstrating low levels (N. J. Allen & Meyer, 1996). When researching commitment, it is advisable to consider the depth of all three domains of commitment together, instead of seeking to assign a specific commitment dimension to an individual (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

The current study relied on Meyer and Allen’s (1997) understanding of organizational commitment, where individuals demonstrate affective responses to the organization, recognize costs related to departing the organization, and have obligatory feelings to stay with the organization. Applying the TCM with student affairs professionals may reveal affective commitment, in terms of professionals’ values aligning with the work they do. Similarly, student affairs professionals may show continuance commitment when they fear giving up a title or benefit by leaving their organizations. A normative commitment by student affairs professionals could manifest out of a sense of obligation to their organizations, not wanting to disrupt students or service.

While Boehman (2006) studied the types of commitment shown by student affairs professionals using Meyer and Allen’s (1991) TCM, it remains unclear how professionals
construct commitment. Variables associated with how student affairs professionals navigate and experience their work, relative to building affective, continuance, and normative commitment, remain unknown. The understanding of commitment could occur under the lens of commitment as a mutual obligation between an employee and the organization (Meyer, 2009).

Student affairs professionals who leave the field exit a career and leave organizations; low commitment to an organization does not indicate a low commitment to a profession. There were insufficient data on former student affairs employees who have left the field to know if subsequent employment opportunities connect to the tenants of student affairs or not. Knowing whether departing individuals were satisfied with their work roles before departing remains unknown. Job satisfaction, as indicated by the variables helping to construct motivation for an employee, is an important consideration for understanding commitment (Boehman, 2007; Meyer & Allen, 1991).

**Prior Satisfaction as an Antecedent to Commitment**

Before an organization can recognize whether an employee is committed or not, employee satisfaction levels may forewarn whether an individual will become committed. Johnsrud et al. (2000) pointed out the importance of understanding job satisfaction as it relates to employee outcomes, such as productivity and turnover. Job satisfaction can be summarized as the perceived emotional response to all factors an individual experiences in their organization (Federici & Skaalvik, 2012). Zeinabadi (2010) argued *satisfaction* is a correlate to a specific job, job tasks, or aspects of the work environment, whereas *commitment* is an attitude that takes a longer time to develop, as
the employee determines their relationship with the organization. As such, satisfaction is likely to develop at a faster pace than commitment (Zeinabadi, 2010). Commitment can consist of a culmination of an employee’s satisfaction with aspects of the job, job tasks, or variables associated with their work environment.

Although some scholars have debated the causal relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment, the prevailing argument suggests job satisfaction is an antecedent to organizational commitment (Anari, 2012; Aydogdu & Asikigil, 2011; Eslami & Gharakani, 2012; Zehir et al., 2012). Some researchers have favored the belief job satisfaction and organizational commitment are separate concepts, independently influenced by variables (Aghdasi et al., 2011; Bushra et al., 2011; De Gieter et al., 2011). Despite disagreement in the literature, I adopted the argument employee job satisfaction is an antecedent to organizational commitment.

To understand the complexity of job satisfaction, one must consider the variables at play, including perceptions of advancement opportunities, attitudes about salary and benefits, and relationships between supervisors and coworkers (David et al., 2015; Sentuna, 2015). Yang (2010) looked at antecedents to satisfaction in the hospitality industry, specifically the impacts of role ambiguity, role conflict, burnout, socialization, and autonomy. While some of Yang’s findings were contrary to existent literature, there was overall support for the notion of job satisfaction positively increasing affective organizational commitment. Caricati et al. (2014) pointed out variables associated with job satisfaction are often related to intrinsic factors (e.g., high-order variables, such as advancement and desire for recognition) and extrinsic factors (e.g., compensation,
benefits, organizational environment). The respondent’s perceived value was associated with the intrinsic (psychological) reward and contributed to increased levels of satisfaction, a key tenant of Herzberg et al. (1959)’s two-factor theory of satisfaction (Suki & Suki, 2012).

Herzberg et al.’s (1959) two-factor theory allows for insight into understanding variables likely to affect employee satisfaction. The two-factor theory suggests the presence of motivator variables (intrinsic), such as challenging work, employee recognition, increased responsibility, involvement in decision making, and feeling valued in the organization, contribute to an employee’s overall satisfaction (Gillespie et al., 2016). Conversely, hygiene factors (extrinsic), such as salary, advancement opportunities, tangible rewards, and other variables outside of the job itself, negatively impact satisfaction when absent or weak. Herzberg’s two-factor theory suggests hygiene factors do not correlate to increased levels of employee motivation; however, the absence of hygiene variables has an impact on an employee’s dissatisfaction.

According to Herzberg et al. (1959), the presence of motivator factors positively impacts employee motivation. The absence of motivator factors does not increase employee dissatisfaction. Variables associated with satisfaction can reveal reasons employees commit to an organization.

Herzberg et al.’s (1959) two-factor theory to higher education has been applied to a few studies of satisfaction among university faculty. Hill (1986) was one of the first researchers to apply Herzberg et al.’s two-factor theory to academic settings to understand faculty job satisfaction. Hill’s findings supported the two-factor theory,
concluding faculty job satisfaction is related to intrinsic factors, while variables external to the job were associated with high levels of dissatisfaction. In a study of full-time and adjunct faculty in a community college setting, participants found intrinsic variables were more important than extrinsic variables when determining organizational commitment (Engle, 2010). Volkwein and Parmley (2000) applied the two-factor theory to academic administrators and found a positive association between teamwork and satisfaction, akin to Herzberg et al.’s hygiene variable relationships with coworkers. This finding is outside the tenets of Herzberg et al.’s original theory, suggesting improvement of hygiene variables would not improve employee satisfaction; instead, only escalating motivator variables would increase satisfaction (Ahmed et al., 2010).

In a study of turnover intentions among higher education staff, the retention of employees existed at high rates in workplaces that demonstrated employee support, professional development experiences, and opportunities for advancement (Swider et al., 2011). These retention variables are likely contributing factors to employee satisfaction, as satisfied employees are less likely to seek other employment opportunities than employees who feel dissatisfied. Improved job satisfaction is found to be beneficial to employees, organizations, student performance, and institutional culture (Alonderiene & Majauskaite, 2016). Similarly, positive job satisfaction among academic administrators has been linked to interactive, engaging training and the promotion of staff interaction (Morris & Laipple, 2015).

Exploring job satisfaction among administrators in a higher education setting, Smerek and Peterson (2007) posited understanding the phenomenon of employee
satisfaction can guide organizational leaders to effectively invest limited resources to improve satisfaction and increase overall organizational commitment. Smerek and Peterson applied Herzberg et al.’s (1959) two-factor theory to nonacademic employees at a large public university, finding an employee’s work to be the biggest predictor of job satisfaction. Although the findings provided some inconclusive results, Smerek and Peterson urged supervisors and managers to find ways to improve the work itself. While acknowledging the difficulty of changing or manipulating an employee’s work directly, the work itself was reaffirmed as the most significant predictor for determining satisfaction.

Contrary to the simplified model put forth by Herzberg et al. (1959), the reality of organizations requires recognition of complex factors that can contribute to satisfaction and dissatisfaction; what impacts an individual one way may not have the same effect on the next (Ahmed et al., 2010). Herzberg et al.’s two-factor theory has critics and limitations. Scholars have suggested Herzberg’s theory, derived from experiences of engineers and accountants, has been unjustly applied to industries. Application of Herzberg’s theory to entities in higher education remains minimal.

A secondary finding of Smerek and Peterson’s (2007) study was the role effective supervision has as a predictor of job satisfaction. The supervisor’s role in creating and leading the work environment to develop elements of satisfaction and the employee’s relationship with the supervisor must be understood. Supervisory tasks, such as communication, providing feedback, making decisions, and overall management skills (i.e., intrinsic, motivator factors), are critically important to an employee’s total job satisfaction.
satisfaction. C. Mathieu et al. (2016) confirmed, while supervisor behavior has a direct effect on job satisfaction, it is not seen as a reliable indicator for determining either employees’ organizational commitment or their turnover intentions. Ethical leadership, akin to role modeling leadership behaviors, has been found to have a direct effect on affective commitment and intentions of employees to stay or leave an organization (Benevene et al., 2018; Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015). Given the role managers have in developing an organization’s priorities and culture, leadership behaviors have direct impacts on employee satisfaction and commitment. Ethical leadership has been found to increase followers’ affective organizational commitments and employees’ intentions to remain with an organization (Benevene et al., 2018).

The need to separate follower commitment to an organization, rather than to a person (supervisor), remains a critical line of inquiry in the study of organizational commitment. Eisenberger et al. (2010) pointed out employee commitment to a supervisor may manifest as an affective organizational commitment; however, if that supervisor departs the organization, the likelihood of the employee leaving the organization increases. Employee commitment to a supervisor was found to have a stronger connection to performance than an employee’s commitment to an organization, underscoring the role supervisors play in shaping relationships and attitudes in the workplace (T. E. Becker et al., 1996). A study on impacts of unethical behavior of senior managers on an organization’s climate and employee job satisfaction showed the unethical treatment of employees had the most significant negative effect on job
satisfaction and was the primary factor for the establishment of the organization’s ethical climate (Wong & Li, 2015).

In addition to the role of leadership behaviors influencing employee commitment, other variables are important for a holistic understanding. The impact of an employee’s work life (e.g., salary, hours, working conditions) is significant for understanding satisfaction. Khanna (2015) found a positive and significant relationship between an employee’s quality of work life and their commitment to an organization. High quality of work life has been found to reduce absenteeism, reduce turnover, and increase job satisfaction (Havlovic, 1991). In a study of midlevel managers working in the private sector, Srivastava (2013) found a connection between job satisfaction and positive organizational commitment. The mediating role of trust was found to be essential in moving satisfied employees to demonstrate greater commitment to their organizations (Srivastava, 2013). While both Khan and Srivastava’s studies demonstrated the need for a healthy quality of work life, each study was limited in its scope of studying managerial and clerical staff, respectively.

Satisfaction as an antecedent to commitment has been approached with caution, particularly as it relates to commitment intentions. Job satisfaction is considered to be one variable associated with organizational commitment and cannot be used as the sole predictor of organizational commitment (Boehman, 2006; M. Khan & Khan, 2017). Participants may be dissatisfied with an aspect of their jobs when participating in research and react affirmatively in their intention to leave; however, incidents of dissatisfaction are not reliable indicators of commitment intentions. Similarly,
commitment can be influenced by personal factors, such as an employee’s life outside of work or their self-interests and pursuits. Understanding of employee satisfaction as a prerequisite for organizational commitment is incomplete without understanding how an employee engages with their work to develop commitment.

**Employee Engagement**

Like satisfaction, employee engagement must be understood as an antecedent to the development of organizational commitment. The demonstration of commitment to an organization does not show consideration of the level of engagement with which an employee approaches their work or organizational environment. An employee who has disengaged from their work or organization may demonstrate commitment through a sense of continuance or a normative mindset. Commitment can be directed at targets in the workplace, including people, tasks, or policies (Meyer et al., 2004).

V. Kahn (1990) was one of the first researchers to study employee engagement, suggesting individuals use varying degrees of themselves, physically, cognitively, and emotionally, as they approach their work. Given the overlap of studies related to commitment, satisfaction, and job involvement, practitioners and scholars have not reached consensus in the meaning and distinctiveness of employee engagement (Bakker et al., 2011; Cole et al., 2012). Meyer et al. (2004) drew attention to motivation, as it relates to employee engagement with their work, suggesting higher levels of motivation link to higher levels of engagement and vice versa.

Kahn (1990) built on the belief employees would simultaneously employ and express their *preferred self* in the execution of their tasks at physical, cognitive, and
emotional levels. Kahn said employees separate themselves from work-related tasks through personal disengagement, whether physical, cognitive, or emotional. Engagement research includes *holistic investment* of the self (Christian et al., 2011)—the level of energy, involvement, and efficacy brought to one’s work (Maslach & Leiter, 2008)—and the state of mind related to vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli et al., 2002). Kahn’s and Schaufeli et al.’s (2002) definitions of engagement have emerged as the most widely accepted.

When studying engagement, one must consider the multiple facets of work in which an employee engages in the execution of their job responsibilities. Saks and Gruman (2014) pointed out engagement with multiple tasks in the performance of one’s job can vary. For example, student affairs professionals perform administrative tasks, such as attending meetings and answering emails, which may be less engaging than working with students. A second consideration is job and organization engagement can differ. A practitioner may be fully engaged with students and disengage with their administrative tasks (Saks & Gruman, 2014). The ability of an employee to craft their workday experiences is instrumental in increasing job performance and work engagement (Gordon et al., 2017; van Wingerden et al., 2017). Engagement cannot be viewed along a single spectrum to include facets employees can employ and express themselves in their work and their environments.

In a synthesis of engagement literature, Bailey et al. (2015) acknowledged disagreement among researchers as to whether engagement is an antecedent of attitudinal constructs of job satisfaction and organizational commitment, as suggested by Biswas...
and Bhatnager (2013), or if engagement is an outcome of these constructs, as posited by Anaza and Rutherford (2012). The lack of consensus may stem from the lack of an agreed-upon definition of engagement. Bailey et al. concluded engagement is often associated with outcomes of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Bailey et al.’s synthesis includes multiple studies, most of which have not been replicated. Bailey et al. issued caution in adopting a particular association between engagement and satisfaction and commitment, given the lack of study replication in the social sciences; the causal relationship between engagement, satisfaction, and commitment is insufficient to support or refute any proposition.

In a study of university faculty members, participants reported high levels of role ambiguity and diminished perceptions of importance to the institution, arguing participants may show commitment to the organization and not engage with their work (Maxey & Kezar, 2016). Austin-Hickey (2013) found some faculty remain with an institution out of an obligation to students, regardless of feelings of satisfaction and levels of engagement with their work.

In their study of employee engagement of frontline banking staff, Albdour and Altarawneh (2014) concluded higher job engagement results in higher levels of affective organizational commitment. This finding suggests an employee who demonstrates a positive state of mind about the fulfillment of their work is likely to report positive attitudes about the organization in general. Similar to the relationship between job engagement and affective commitment, high levels of job engagement were also linked to higher degrees of normative commitment; the more physically, cognitively, and
emotionally involved an employee was, the more obligated to stay with the organization they were (Albdour & Altarawneh, 2014).

Wilson et al. (2016) made note of how the presence of contentment and how employees who have been with student affairs organization for an extended time may demonstrate commitment, not out of a sense of happiness with their work or workplace environment, but rather out of the belief they would lose too much by leaving. The concept of employee entrenchment in student affairs is synonymous with continuance commitment: Employees remain with an organization out of the belief they have to.

Flaherty (2015) cautioned employees actively disengaged from their work are likely to spread their unhappiness to others. This finding is in line with N. J. Allen and Meyer’s (1996) model of normative commitment, where the tone of how an employee carries out their work is more pronounced than the quantity or quality of that work. An employee can produce good work with a resentful attitude. An employee with a resentful attitude is unlikely to align with the affective commitment structure, whereas employees affectively committed to their organization demonstrate high levels of engagement and act beyond requirements of their role (Meyer & Allen, 1996). Like the debate over the causal order of commitment and satisfaction, employee engagement has been found to positively predict affective organizational commitment (Jena et al., 2017).

**Turnover and Attrition**

While individual student affairs departments may not employ a large number of professional staff, an institution’s student affairs division can have hundreds of staff members, depending on the size of the institution. Turnover across a division may signal
challenges for an individual department and the student affairs division. In a study of organizational performance relative to employee turnover, De Winne et al. (2018) stated there are direct impacts on an organization’s performance where turnover rates are high. Specifically, there exists a negative association between high rates of turnover and organization productivity, which shows the intangible costs associated with employee attrition. Although De Winne et al.’s findings support the literature on attrition, the authors suggested moderate turnover levels, which do not significantly disrupt the organization, can be beneficial to organizations, due to the incorporation of new ideas and energy, as new members join an organization. Attrition in organizations should be expected as employees seek career advancements or new opportunities; however, elevated voluntary attrition rates are problematic to organizations (Sood, 2017).

Competing views on the impacts of employee turnover, benefits, and costs have dominated the research literature. Organizational costs associated with student affairs employee turnover have not been accurately studied nor thoroughly measured. While intangible values can be identified and assigned in the profession, they remain hard to quantify monetarily. Merhar (2016) noted employee turnover involves financial factors, such as position advertising, candidate screening and interviewing, and costs associated with the hiring of the new employee (e.g., moving, retainer fees, training). Additionally, the process of onboarding a new staff member, acclimating them, and waiting for increased levels of productivity, as they learn their role, are costs assumed by the organization when filling a position (Merhar, 2016).
Assessing a monetary cost relative to employee turnover can be understood through research studies of corporate employee turnover. Research on the financial impact to organizations varies based on industry, but estimates suggest 50% to over 100% of an employee’s annual salary can be spent recruiting, selecting, and training new staff (Marsden, 2016). While financial costs related to employee turnover are of concern, student affairs organizations face intangible costs, including engagement with stakeholders, service of students, and expected functions when employees leave the organization (Boehman, 2007; Lorden, 1998; Merhar, 2016).

Marsden (2016) provided clarity of employee turnover, noting it can be voluntary, involuntary, functional, or dysfunctional. Voluntary and functional turnover places the organization in a position of control by releasing a poor-performing employee to save money. Involuntary and dysfunctional turnover present challenges to organizations, when high-performing employees exit their roles (Marsden, 2016). Research differs by industry as to the root causes of employee attrition. Employing a business-sector lens to employee attrition suggests turnover is a result of poor hiring decisions: The employer did not adequately vet an employee or did not properly assess an employee’s ability to fit in an organization (Williams & Scott, 2012).

The literature on people-centered professions, such as higher education, includes arguments that organizational leaders fail to deliver on variables necessary for employee success, such as professional development, recognition, role clarity, and supervisory support (Lacy & Sheehan, 1997; C. Mathieu et al., 2016). Such failures imply organizational factors cause turnover and attrition. Cho and Song (2017) found near-
identical findings in the social work profession, showing the direct impact supervisory relations and organizational leader behaviors have on social worker commitment. The trust an employee has (or perceives) is essential for understanding their intentions to remain with or leave an organization. While an argument can be made because new professionals have studied and experienced the profession before entering it, they should have an understanding of the profession, yet there exists a high level of attrition among new professionals.

Some studies of attrition and turnover have included generational and demographic variables, as they relate to turnover and commitment intentions. While research findings vary by industry, gender has not been shown to be a factor in satisfaction and turnover intentions. Regarding the impact of generational differences, an employee’s longevity (i.e., commitment) with an organization is often ascribed to older generations in the workforce, and more recent generations are seen as more mobile and less committed to organizations over a long period of time (Datta & Sing, 2017; Solnet et al., 2012). Turnover intentions and perceptions of organizational commitment have been viewed differently by new professionals and those who have been in the field for many years.

**New Student Affairs Professionals**

Student affairs professionals enter the profession through a variety of ways; however, obtaining a related master’s degree through graduate study remains the most prevalent means for entering the student affairs field (Bender, 2009). Much of what is known and understood about the profession has been affirmed through academic theory,
application through assistantships, and participatory experiences during professionals’ undergraduate careers.

While student affairs professionals comprise a sizeable portion of administrative employees on college campuses, Lorden (1998) and Tull (2006) pointed out the high level of attrition among new professionals, acknowledging 50% to 60% of professionals leave the profession in their first 5 years of employment. Literature on attrition in the student affairs profession is extensive and includes identification of many variables associated with departure, including salary, long hours, lack of upward mobility, poor work relationships, and stressful work, leading to burnout (Marshall et al., 2016). These variables are not relegated to a specific functional area of student affairs, nor are they believed to be isolated to a particular type of campus. Instead, variables are generalized as characteristics synonymous to all entry-level student affairs professionals. While research has affirmed these variables over many years, changing or improving these variables in a quick manner is not easily achieved in an environment of constrained resources. Additionally, if the variables associated with the departure of student affairs professionals have been addressed, the results have not been adequately studied.

New student affairs professionals are often tasked with providing much of the direct implementation of programs and services to students (aside from specialized services, such as mental health), placing high demands on time, labor, and task-like work (Barham & Winston, 2006). Mullen et al. (2018) recognized these demands as contributing factors to job stress, burnout, and declining rates of job satisfaction. Key to supporting new staff entering organizations and the profession is the role of effective
supervision. Supervision plays a critical role in how staff acclimates to a new organization and their professional responsibilities.

While Bender (2009) acknowledged the dearth of literature on the impact of job satisfaction on job performance, Bender put forth confirmation of entry-level student affairs staff feeling dissatisfied in their roles, more so than employees at higher levels in the organization. Bender found student affairs professionals who demonstrated a commitment to the field through multiple years of employment and occupied senior leadership roles reported higher levels of job satisfaction. The satisfaction gap between mid- and senior-level professionals and those entering the field may point to a general lack of understanding of why one population feels differently from the others. While Bender did not report turnover intentions or realities, as published by Lorden (1996) and Tull (2006), a sizeable portion of study participants indicated a heightened level of dissatisfaction with their jobs and subsequent intentions to leave their organizations. Capturing accurate data related to an employee’s intent to leave, compared with employees who have left, remains an elusive task (Johnsrud et al., 2000).

Commitment to the field of student affairs is demonstrated through an employee’s signs of satisfaction with their work, work environment, and perceived experiences (Hirschy et al., 2015). Demonstrating commitment to an organization is synonymous with one’s intention to remain in the field (Bruss & Kopala, 1993; Hirschy et al., 2015). High levels of organizational commitment suggest low levels of intention to leave an organization or profession (C. Mathieu et al., 2016). Demonstrated by the lack of literature, there is a lack of understanding of how professionals build, develop, and
establish commitment to an organization and the student affairs profession. Seeking to understand the socialization process of new professionals entering the student affairs profession, Strayhorn (2009) found a significant correlation between supportive coworker interactions and new employee job satisfaction. Relationships an employee forms in an organization and how the employee comes to understand their role can serve as foundations for understanding organizational commitment. The frequency and quality of these relationships are believed to have a mediating impact on one’s level of perceived satisfaction (Strayhorn, 2009).

How a new professional is taught mechanisms necessary for socialization into a professional role has not been heavily researched. Student affairs, unique in its existence, yet uniform enough to have hundreds of graduate preparation programs across the nation, may suffer from a disconnect between preparation and practical experience. Sturges and Guest (2001) argued graduate programs and employers share responsibility for ensuring a shared set of expected outcomes. Defining expectations and painting a realistic picture of organizational values, culture, and outcomes can be instrumental for ensuring a new professional’s perceptions align with reality, as they transition from graduate school into their professional career.

Liddell et al. (2014) agreed graduate preparation programs lay the foundation for socialization as part of the academic curriculum. Providing an overview of skills necessary for a new professional to undertake to understand organizational norms, culture, values, and how to navigate peer and supervisor relationships may serve as a critical step toward bridging the gap in levels of preparedness for new staff. Managing
expectations about enhancing and improving future commitment is a process that can be achieved in graduate programs (Sturges & Guest, 2001). D. G. Allen et al. (2010) suggested employers work to establish reasonable expectations with new staff members, balancing eagerness and high expectations of entry-level staff with the realities of workplace variables, such as pay, hours, and organizational culture. Other retention strategies of new professionals include providing regular feedback, developing mentoring relationships between new and seasoned employees, and formalizing job tasks (Pooja et al., 2016). Role ambiguity is believed to play a contributing role in employee attrition. Pooja et al. (2016) found employees who lack a clear definition of their roles and responsibilities had higher levels of stress and uncertainty, which contributed to burnout, exhaustion, and turnover intentions when compared to employees with role definition.

Lorden’s (1998) discussion of attrition in the student affairs profession was one of the first collective summaries to recognize an increasing trend in the field. While suggesting earlier researchers pointed out the higher than average rate of attrition from the student affairs profession when compared to other industries, Lorden painted a holistic view of attrition and its impacts on the student affairs profession. While turnover could be beneficial in bringing in new personnel, ideas, and energy, there are unmet obligations from employers and organizations that likely contribute to new professionals leaving the field (Lorden, 1998). Tull’s (2006) quantitative analysis of entry-level student affairs practitioners’ experiences with supervision, satisfaction, and turnover intentions confirmed Lorden’s findings of high turnover rates in student affairs.
Tull’s (2006) findings of synergistic supervision correlating to high levels of job satisfaction were indicative of relationships that consider the needs of the new staff members. In a study of new professionals’ supervision needs, Barham and Winston (2006) validated dissatisfaction in supervisory relationships, where managers supervised based on how they wanted to be supervised, rather than supervise relative to the unique needs of subordinates. Instead, person-oriented supervision models are more positively associated with employee satisfaction than task-oriented leadership behaviors (C. Mathieu et al., 2016). The ability of a supervisor to mitigate and mediate stress and burnout experienced by new professionals can have a positive effect on job satisfaction (Mullen et al., 2018). Worth noting in the pursuit of understanding the turnover intentions of new professionals is generational context of the individuals under study. Lorden (1998) and Tull’s (2006) studies excluded perspectives of the millennial generation, given their entrances into the workforce after these studies.

Generation Y, also known as the millennial generation, is seen as less committed and more mobile than other generations; they demonstrate high levels of organizational commitment when they feel and sense an investment in them by the organization (Datta & Singh, 2017; Singh & Gupta, 2015). Millennials represent 44% of the workforce, more than Generation X (27%) and Baby Boomer professionals (27%; Tulgan, 2017). Generational research has centered on values assigned to work, suggesting organizations that engage their employees around those values may develop high levels of commitment and engagement (Costanza et al., 2012; Jones et al., 2018; Solnet et al., 2012). Generation X and Millennials have been found to place higher values on leisure and balance than
Baby Boomers when it comes to expectations of work (Twenge et al., 2010); however, as Jones et al. (2018) pointed out, the study of generational difference in the workplace relies on the associated stereotypes of generations, and generational theory has not been empirically validated. This finding supports conclusions drawn by Costanza et al. (2012): There is little to no discernible difference in work performance outcomes or commitment among different generations.

**Mid- and Senior-Level Student Affairs Professionals**

While Lorden (1998) and Tull (2006) have suggested the first 5 years are critical for determining whether new student affairs professionals will stay or leave the profession, it is unfair to assume commitment has been established by the sixth year for employees who remain in the field. Midlevel administrators provide important information for successes of the organizations but are rarely involved in decision-making processes (Johnsrud et al., 2000). Researchers of midlevel administrators’ experiences have found a sense of frustration and have suggested midlevel administrators are frequently unrecognized for their contributions and underappreciated for their work (Rosser & Javinar, 2003; Wilson et al., 2016).

In a study of midlevel leaders in higher education, Rosser (2004) assessed the quality of work-life, job satisfaction, morale, and intentions to leave of 2,000 academic and nonacademic midlevel leaders. Rosser found a distinct difference in morale based on demographics, with ethnic minorities reporting lower levels of morale when compared to their Caucasian peers. Johnsrud and Edwards (2001) posited morale and job satisfaction are not necessarily connected; instead, they are independent. Rosser’s finding of low
morale among midlevel ethnic minorities, who reported high levels of job satisfaction supports Johnsrud and Edwards’ findings; however, Rosser said morale is an organizational perception that can impact the quality of one’s work life, whereas satisfaction is quality experienced in the work environment. In essence, morale can be tied to an organizational or institutional feeling, whereas job satisfaction is closely connected to an employee’s work.

Under Herzberg et al.’s (1959) two-factor theory, the absence of motivators does not contribute to feelings of dissatisfaction; the enhancement of motivators is key to improving job satisfaction. Additionally, the midlevel administrator may find themselves in a midlevel role for an extended time, possibly a result of entrenchment or few opportunities for upward mobility. Despite these realities, it remains unclear what aspects of midlevel employee’s work contribute to satisfaction and, ultimately, commitment.

While not explicitly connected to Herzberg et al.’s (1959) two-factor theory, Rosser (2004) reported high levels of job satisfaction among employees who knew their careers and development were supported. This high level of satisfaction suggests employees were less likely to leave their institution than employees who perceived their organization did not prioritize their professional development. Similarly, recognition of midlevel employees’ work, including respect and inclusion of contributions, has been shown to produce higher levels of job satisfaction (Rosser, 2004; Rosser & Javinar, 2004). Rosser’s findings aligned with Rosser and Javinar’s (2004) research, finding hygiene factors, such as status and pay, had no impact on job satisfaction, in line
with Herzberg et al.’s two-factor model. Understanding the presence of hygiene factors does not improve satisfaction; instead, their absence is connected to dissatisfaction.

Supporting the plight of midlevel administrators, C. Mathieu et al. (2016) found an employee’s expressed level of job satisfaction was not a significant predictor of their intentions to leave an organization. An employee demonstrating low levels of satisfaction was not necessarily likely to leave the organization. Intention to leave an organization was the strongest predictor of employee turnover (C. Mathieu et al., 2016). Researchers have also found employees’ commitment to an organization is a better predictor of turnover than their actual level of job satisfaction (Brien et al., 2015; C. Mathieu et al., 2016). As job satisfaction is linked to organizational commitment, it remains critically necessary for future research to understand how employees build commitment to an organization (Srivastava, 2013).

Research has remained consistent with findings of senior-level leaders reporting higher levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment compared to entry and midlevel staff (Ali & Zilli, 2014; Srivastava, 2013). Senior-level administrators exercise a high locus of control—and thus have more power in the execution of organizational environments—are paid larger salaries, and can handle stressful situations better than entry-level staff (Srivastava, 2013). Lacy and Sheehan (1997) found similar results in their study of university faculty, noting high levels of satisfaction among academics with regard to their academic freedoms and autonomous approaches to instruction and taking note of how environmental circumstances, such as participation in decision-making tasks
and relationships with administrators, are crucial to maintaining and improving satisfaction.

The influence and role mid- and senior-level student affairs professionals have on the commitment, satisfaction, and engagement levels of new student affairs staff members must be assessed, as these individuals will serve as supervisors and organizational leaders to new professionals. Researchers have studied the relationship of leader behavior on follower commitment through multiple lenses, finding a significant correlation between transformational leadership behaviors and follower commitment (Pradhan & Pradhan, 2015). Transformational leaders provide a compelling vision and guidance to followers that results in motivation and engagement; establishing an emotional bond between the employee and the organization is believed to play a critical role in building affective organizational commitment (Pradhan & Pradhan, 2015). In a study of leadership styles responsible for building affective commitment among retail employees, transformational and transactional leadership styles were found to have a positive effect on affective commitment (Long et al., 2016). While transformational leadership had a stronger positive relationship with affective commitment, transactional leadership behaviors had a significant and weak positive correlation. These findings underscore the importance of employees knowing and recognizing their value in an organization, becoming more motivated to contribute to organizational success.

Beyond affective organizational commitment, transformational leadership behaviors have been linked to employee satisfaction and engagement (Eliophotou-Menon & Ioannou, 2016). Supporting the role of transformational leadership on employee
intentions to leave, Sahu et al. (2018) found an employee’s attachment to their organization is heavily influenced by a leader’s transformational leadership style, impacting productivity and engagement, but was not a sole factor in an employee’s decision to stay or go. Similarly, in a study of the impact of transformational leadership on school teacher performance, transformational leadership was found to increase trust between teacher and supervisor, teacher motivation to change and learn, and overall commitment to their organization (Eliophotou-Menon & Ioannou, 2016). The significant link between transformational leadership and positive employee engagement, commitment, and satisfaction may suggest a need for training mid- and senior-level student affairs administrators on skills associated with transformational leadership to improve outcomes of entry-level professionals. Transformational leadership creates favorable conditions related to employee commitment and turnover intentions.

**A Note on Perception**

To understand satisfaction, commitment, and engagement, a researcher must understand participants’ views of these behaviors are crafted through perceptions of personal experiences and events. Perception, sometimes different than reality, is the basis on which humans ascribe true feelings and emotions to affect their beliefs (Johnsrud et al., 2000). What an employee perceives to be truthful or reality forms the basis for an employee’s expression of commitment (Boehman, 2006). The more favorably an individual perceives their work experiences, work environment, and factors that contribute to their levels of satisfaction, the more committed to their work they may become. Tull (2016) validated this belief with a study of senior-level student affairs
officers who perceived a great deal of satisfaction from their work as being less inclined to leave their role. Similarly, executives who experienced greater levels of job dissatisfaction shared a higher likelihood of leaving their role (Tull, 2016).

Johnsrud and Rosser’s (2016) study of university faculty intentions to leave their institution produced results in line with previous research, showing high levels of morale related to how an employee experiences (perceives) their work and low levels of morale being tied to their intention to leave. Knowing the connection between an employee’s morale and their commitment to an organization requires a robust understanding of variables that enhance morale and those responsible for decreasing it. Johnsrud and Rosser cautioned against generalizing applicability to large populations, affirming morale is heavily influenced by individual perceptions; what one person perceives to be significant to improving morale may not have the same effect on someone else.

In a study of student affairs employees’ professional identities in relation to career commitment and entrenchment, Wilson et al. (2016) found similar results to those of Boehman (2006, 2007): Employees perceiving supportive work environments demonstrate high levels of affective commitment. Nazir and Islam (2017) studied employee commitment as it relates to perceived organizational support through an international lens of higher education staff, confirming previous findings that perceptions of supportive organizations (e.g., relationships with peers and supervisor) lead to high levels of employee engagement and performance and to high levels of affective commitment (Eisenberger et al., 2010). Additionally, while adopting systemic strategies for improving retention, managers must be willing to understand satisfaction and
perceptions from individual standpoints, accepting that a one-size-fits-all approach is unlikely to fix retention issues. Participants’ perceptions of their experiences are an important thing to remember when evaluating data and drawing conclusions and applying results; how one group of individuals perceives their experiences may be completely different than others.

**Summary**

Organizational commitment is an employee’s sense of attachment and loyalty to their associated organization (Kessler, 2013). While researchers and theorists have developed several approaches to understand organizational commitment over the decades, the multidimensional TCM put forth by Meyer and Allen (1991) is the most widely accepted theory for understanding organizational commitment (Ghosh & Swamy, 2014). While some debate exists about the causal ordering of commitment, satisfaction, and engagement, researchers have generally agreed satisfaction is an antecedent to commitment.

Reversing attrition variables is not done quickly, as resources can be constrained, and increased levels of scrutiny and accountability may be present. Research showing outcomes of organizations that have implemented such recommendations does not yet exist; however, a number of researchers have suggested the relationship an employee has with their supervisor, directly through a supervisory relationship or casually as a member of their organization, impacts an employee’s satisfaction and contributes to commitment (D. G. Allen et al., 2010; Nazir & Islam, 2017; Srivastava, 2013). An employee’s perception of their work experiences, relationships, and value in an organization are
individually ascribed, emphasizing the need for leaders to understand individual employee experiences as they relate to satisfaction and commitment (Ansari, 2011; Kim et al., 2016). Chapter 3 includes an outline of the case study approach used in this qualitative study.
CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this qualitative study was to understand how satisfaction and dissatisfaction affect the development of commitment among student affairs professionals. While the target population of this study was midlevel student affairs professionals, this study included a sample of midlevel student affairs professionals who worked at public institutions between 5 and 8 years and who had held two or three student affairs jobs. This case study included data triangulated from participants’ aJDI scores, semistructured interviews, and submitted artifacts to discern relative themes of satisfaction and commitment.

Research Method

Creswell (2014) outlined the value of qualitative inquiry in developing an understanding of a social or human problem. Qualitative methodology is appropriate for studying the human condition; a researcher’s data collection builds from participant experiences into generalized themes to develop meaning from the data (Creswell, 2014). Through this qualitative study, I explored the presence of motivator variables and the absence of hygiene variables relative to satisfaction and the building of commitment (see Figure 1). Using naturalistic inquiry to study real-world situations as they are, this study was conducted free from predetermined constraints and aligned with the purpose of qualitative research (Patton, 2015). The decision to use a qualitative methodology aligns with a constructivist research paradigm. Patton (2015) noted the obligation placed on the researcher to understand how people have constructed reality and how that manifests into meaning for this group of people under this paradigm. While quantitative research is
useful for identifying types of commitment and the intensity of satisfaction across a population, it excludes emotions associated with decisions related to feelings of satisfaction and the building of commitment. To understand characteristics associated with how a student affairs professional develops commitment, use of quantitative inquiry would not fit the purpose of this study.

Figure 1

The Impact of Satisfaction on Commitment

Note. This figure illustrates the inquiry of relationship of motivator and hygiene factors on the development of commitment

Research Design

The design inquiry for this qualitative study was a case study. Case study designs are appropriate for conducting in-depth investigations of contemporary phenomenon, especially when the boundaries are not apparent (Yin, 2018). Using a case study approach for this research was ideal, given the use of multiple sources of evidence (Yin, 2018). Three research questions and three subquestions guided this qualitative study:
1. How do experienced student affairs professionals build commitment?
   a. What variables are associated with the development of affective commitment?
   b. What variables are associated with the development of normative commitment?
   c. What variables are associated with the development of continuance commitment?

2. How does the presence of motivator factors contribute to an employee’s satisfaction as it relates to the commitment to stay in the field of student affairs?

3. How does the absence of hygiene factors contribute to an employee’s satisfaction as it relates to the commitment to remain in the field of student affairs?

Participants completed the aJDI, participated in semistructured interviews, and submitted artifacts indicative of satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Seeking artifact evidence from participants helped to explore lines of inquiry in addition to confirming existing understanding, as gleaned from participant interviews. An example of data convergence occurs when a participant referenced in their interview feeling a sense of value when they received recognition, and participant artifacts included examples of handwritten notes and letters of nomination, affirming this type of recognition.

In addition to participants’ aJDI results, in-depth interviews, and artifact submission, this qualitative case study involved member checking and researcher memos
(Creswell, 2014; De Massis & Kotlar, 2014). The decision to use multiple sources of evidence in this study was complementary to the study, allowing in-depth insights into the phenomenon under study (Yin, 2018). Data triangulation of aJDI results, participant interviews, artifact submission, member checking, and researcher memos validated emerging themes and confirmed the presence of motivator variables and the absence of hygiene variables toward explaining commitment. Creswell (2014) noted when a researcher can construct study themes through the convergence of multiple sources of data, the study becomes inherently valid to the researcher, participants, and the reader.

Participants in this study had unique experiences from different institutions and different regions of the United States. As such, an ethnographic design was not an appropriate fit for this study, given participants’ diverse experiences. Similarly, due to the application of existing theories of satisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1959) and commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991), a grounded theory approach was not suitable for this study. Phenomenology was considered but not adopted given the variance in participants’ experiences. Realizing participants would not all be employed in the same type of functional student affairs roles, each participant was likely to have a different work purpose, outcome, leadership structure, and budget, suggesting common lived experiences among participants was not possible, which yielded ruling out the use of phenomenology.

**Instruments**

This study had a focus on satisfaction and types of commitment of professionals employed in the field of student affairs between 5 and 8 years. To identify a demonstrated
level of commitment, participants needed to have held at least two, but no more than three, positions in the field of student affairs. Confirmed participants completed the aJDI (see Appendix A) before scheduling an in-person interview. The aJDI is a compact version of the 72-question Job Descriptive Index, developed by P. Smith et al. (1969) and modified by P. Smith (1985), used to measure employee agreement with adjectives associated with current work, current pay, opportunities for promotion, supervision received, and the people with whom the employee interacts while executing job responsibilities (Gillespie et al., 2016). Given its ease of use, participants completed the aJDI without problems, and I quickly scored the result. The aJDI measures intrinsic variables (e.g., the work itself, personal growth, and relationships in the workplace) and extrinsic variables (e.g., rewards, opportunities for promotion, pay) of workplace satisfaction, aligning with Herzberg et al. (1959) ’s two-factor theory of satisfaction (Gillespie et al., 2016).

Recognizing the reality of job satisfaction, as measured alongside other constructs, such as commitment, and the likelihood of testing fatigue and calculation error, Stanton et al. (2002) developed the aJDI as a concise yet effective way of measuring job satisfaction. The aJDI preserves many trusted and desirable characteristics of the full Job Descriptive Index, while allowing for an expeditious administration, calculation, and interpretation of results (Stanton et al., 2002). The aJDI has 38 items with possible responses of yes, no, or, ? (uncertain) to indicate agreement with the posed word or phrase in each domain. As previously discussed, employees are intrinsically satisfied by variables such as the work itself, personal growth, and relationships in the
workplace (Gillespie et al., 2016; Herzberg et al., 1959). Extrinsic variables of satisfaction are associated with tangible rewards, salary, and promotion (Gillespie et al., 2016; Herzberg et al., 1959). The use of the aJDI enabled the measurement of intrinsic factors and extrinsic factors. Bowling Green State University (2009) has made the aJDI available to academic researchers and workplace professionals for use free of charge. Results of the aJDI have shown to be valid in comparison to the Job Descriptive Index, while internal reliability ranged from .76 to .86 (Billings et al., 2007; Russell et al., 2004).

In addition to the aJDI, data were collected through semistructured interviews to assess participants’ experiences and perceptions of affective, normative, and continuance commitments. An adapted version of Meyer and Allen’s (2004) TCM Employee Commitment Survey (see Appendix B) served as the guide for the semistructured interviews. The TCM Employee Commitment Survey is a quantitative instrument measuring employee commitment among the three dimensions: affective; normative; and continuance. The affective, normative, and continuance commitment scales are comprised of 24 closed-ended, Likert-type items.

For their own research, Washington (2017) converted the closed-ended questions into open-ended questions for a qualitative study of grade school teacher commitment. A similar approach was used in this study to adapt for unique characteristics of higher education student affairs. For example, included in the TCM Employee Commitment Survey (Meyer & Allen, 2004) is the question, “I really feel as if this organization’s problems are my own,” and an adaptation for qualitative measurement in this study was
“How do you feel when there is a problem in your organization?” Meyer and Allen’s (1991) TCM Employee Commitment Survey was designed and made publicly available for academic research purposes. The TCM Employee Commitment Survey’s has become the standard for measuring employee commitment given the reliability of all three commitment scales exceed .70 (N. J. Allen & Meyer, 1996). While there is some discrepancy in the validity of the continuance commitment scale when applied in non-U.S. cultures, the overwhelming evidence supports the construct validity of the three commitment scales (N. J. Allen & Meyer, 1996; Maqsood et al., 2012).

Sources of Information

In addition to participants’ aJDI results and data collected through semistructured interviews, a third source of information was obtained through participant-submitted artifacts. Participants were asked to provide examples of tangible items that elicited satisfaction or dissatisfaction related to their professional experience. Participants submitted a variety of artifacts, including handwritten notes, awards, pictures, emails, and gifts. Participant artifacts were coded in the same manner as the semistructured interviews, identifying common themes and patterns.

The final source of information for this qualitative case study included researcher memos. During the data collection and analysis processes, decision making and thought processes were routinely documented. Data in memos included ideas raised by participants in interviews, common threads between participant experiences, connections to established theory, and similarities and divergences in data. Birks et al. (2008) noted the value a researcher’s memos can play in the qualitative process through mapping
ideas, extracting meaning from the data, and maintaining momentum through the research process. Memos served an important role in the data collection and analysis processes: clarifying why decisions were made, reasons behind chosen codes, and incongruency among collected data. Memos were kept separate from participant data so as not to confuse participants’ comments with my conceptualization of participants’ experiences (Stuckey, 2015).

**Participants**

Following Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval, participants were solicited over a 2-week period, using my personal social media platforms. A total of 19 individuals submitted interest in participating in the study, and 15 participants met the study criteria. Ten individuals were invited to participate (see Appendix D); seven responded affirmatively, with one dropping out after completing the consent form. While data saturation was believed to have been reached after five participants, the sixth participant provided a different experience than the previous five, and thus a seventh participant was invited to participate to assess if the sixth participant was an outlier. The final sample included seven individuals who met the study criteria, completed the aJDI, participated in recorded semistructured interviews, and shared artifacts.

While Saunders and Townsend (2016) acknowledged there is neither an absolute nor an ideal number of participants for case study research, with five participants data saturation was achieved. *Saturation*, as defined by Patton (2015), is the process of adding participants to a study until no new information is learned. Boddy (2016) agreed the sample size for qualitative inquiry depends on the study’s context. The sixth participant
was confirmed for the study, and the interview provided a different experience than the previous five experiences collected. To assess whether this was an outlier experience or a possible new path of inquiry, a seventh participant was invited to participate and to confirm data saturation. Five men and two women, representing five functional areas of student affairs, participated in this study. Descriptive data of the seven participants are displayed in Table 1.

Table 1

*Experienced Student Affairs Professional Descriptive Data*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pseudonym</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>Highest Degree</th>
<th>Functional Area</th>
<th>Institution Size</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aiden</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>Masters</td>
<td>Housing/RL</td>
<td>20K-30K</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kyle</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>Masters</td>
<td>DEI</td>
<td>30K-40K</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>George</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>Masters</td>
<td>Conduct</td>
<td>30K-40K</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rose</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>AA</td>
<td>Masters</td>
<td>Family Programs</td>
<td>40K +</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marco</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>Masters</td>
<td>Greek Life</td>
<td>40K+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nasir</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>API</td>
<td>Masters</td>
<td>Housing/RL</td>
<td>5K-10K</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ruth</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>Doctorate</td>
<td>Conduct</td>
<td>20K-30K</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Participants self-reported all demographic data. Gender designations are F = Female, M = Male. Ethnicity designations are C = Caucasian, AA = African American, H = Hispanic/Latino, API = Asian/Pacific Islander. Highest Degree refers to the highest level of degree completed by the participant. Functional areas listed are the generic designation for the individual’s specific area, as specificity may unintentionally hinder
participant anonymity. Institution size provides the range of student enrollment at the participant’s current institution.

Recognizing confidential and sensitive information would be shared with me, I assigned each participant a pseudonym to protect their identity, maintain confidentiality, and to encourage the participant to remain truthful and forthcoming with responses. Participant consent forms included information about confidentiality and the standards set forth for the study in accordance with IRB requirements (see Appendix C).

**Data Analysis Methods**

Following informed consent, participants completed the aJDI instrument and uploaded it to a secure portal. Participants’ aJDI results were scored according to the *Job Descriptive Index Quick Reference Guide* (Bowling Green State University, 2009). Each of the six categories included positively and negatively worded items, requiring negatively worded items to undergo reverse scoring to ensure high scores reflected high levels of satisfaction. Each participant received an overall score for each of the six categories assessed on the aJDI: three categories relative to motivator factors and three corresponding to hygiene factors. Overall, motivator and hygiene scores were calculated respectively to determine the level of agreement of the presence of the variable in the participant’s experience.

Participant interviews, conducted and recorded via the Zoom.us video conferencing platform, allowed for a virtual face-to-face connection between the participant and myself. During the interview, I engaged in the process of member
checking, summarizing each participant’s statements to verify accuracy in interpretation and understanding. The member checking process is an important form of triangulating data (Patton, 2015; Yin, 2018). Interviews were recorded and uploaded to the Otter.ai automated transcription program. Transcriptions were produced, cleaned up, and sent to the participant to verify the accuracy of the information and to offer points of clarification if they believed it were needed. Participants confirmed the accuracy of the transcripts to me and provided examples of artifacts where they believed high levels of satisfaction or dissatisfaction relative to their professional experiences. Transcripts were individually coded and compiled into an Excel spreadsheet to identify categories and themes.

Each participant’s response to each of the 18 semistructured interview questions was entered into an Excel spreadsheet. Individual responses were compared to interview questions to determine if participants’ responses aligned with the commitment domain. For example, in the domain of assessing affective commitment, participants were asked if they “would be happy to spend the rest of their career in student affairs?” Participants who answered affirmatively (i.e., committing to the field) were assigned a point for having alignment with that domain. If the participant’s response did not demonstrate alignment with the specific domain of commitment, they were not assigned a point. A participant’s total number of alignment with each individual domain of commitment is presented in Chapter 4.

Beyond determining intensity of alignment with each domain of commitment, each participant’s response to each question was compared with the other participants’ responses. To establish categories, all responses to each question were analyzed to
identify common words, descriptors, and experiences. Using this process for each of the 18 questions, 71 codes were identified. A second round of analysis involved examining the 71 individual codes in relation to each of the three domains of commitment. While some overlap between the domains existed, less frequent codes could be combined to create a category. For example, the finalized category of inclusion and identity incorporated the less-referenced categories of personal identity, respect for difference, celebration of difference, acceptance of underrepresented identity, and ability to be authentic self. I formed 14 primary categories through the process of combining specific codes into categories.

The 14 categories were matched with Herzberg et al.’s (1959) two-factor theory of satisfaction to determine if the category was a motivator variable or a hygiene variable. Similarly, I matched categories with Meyer and Allen’s (1991) TCM of commitment to determine if the category was a demonstration of affective, normative, or continuance commitment. Using the defined domain of commitment, I refined categories into four overarching themes: (a) The Work Itself, (b) Relationships, (c) Perceived Level of Investment, and (d) Benefits. The process of matching categories and themes to satisfaction and commitment domains supports Yin’s (2018) recommendation of ensuring the coding process aligns with the research questions under study. Matching responses to satisfaction and commitment domains minimized the number of codes falling outside the scope of this study.

Participants often provided brief narrative summaries as to why they selected a specific artifact. I evaluated artifacts as motivator or hygiene variables and with one of
the three domains of commitment. Artifacts resulted in the creation of four additional
codes combined into the 14 identified categories. Although Baxter and Jack (2008)
advocated for the researcher to wait until all interviews are completed before coding to
reduce bias, the opposite occurred in this study to track patterns and themes throughout
the process and to determine when saturation had been reached (Patton, 2015). Instead of
treating each data source independently, all data sources were analyzed as a collective
project (Baxter & Jack, 2008).

My captured thoughts and decision-making processes through the memoing
process was the final step of data analysis. Memos served the purpose of recording initial
thoughts and as checkpoints throughout the data collection and analysis processes.
Following each participant’s interview, I documented my initial thoughts, lines of
inquiry, repeated ideas, and new information in memos. During the analysis phase,
memos served as recorders of why coding decisions were made, the reasoning behind
category creation, and how multiple data sources fit together. Memos served as a
formalized process of collecting notes and ideas to add credibility to the study, reflecting
objective observations over presumptions and assumptions (Birks et al., 2008).
Reviewing memos after relevant themes and categories had emerged from the data
contributed to the triangulation of data, ensuring all avenues of exploration had been
pursued.

Limitations

Limitations with case studies include presumed lack of rigor, inability to
generalize findings to a larger population, confusion with non-research case studies, an
unmanageable level of effort, given the amount of time expected to conduct the study and the perceived massive amount of data to collect, and comparative advantage, wherein the effectiveness of a treatment or intervention cannot be addressed (Yin, 2018). Recognition of these limitations in advance of the study helped to address these concerns during the research. Specifically, multiple sources of data collection were implemented to address questions of rigor, and a process of effectively managing three participant data sources was implemented from the start to ensure nothing was lost in the process.

During participant interviews, I disclosed my professional role, as I was personally and professionally connected to the subject under study. Member checking throughout the interview process through the use of summarizing participant statements to ensure accurate interpretation and understanding of experiences mitigated bias. Additionally, to minimize bias, the case study protocol (see Appendix B) was followed, and all questions were asked (Yin, 2018).

**Delimitations**

Delimitations represent boundaries put into place by the researcher. For this qualitative study, participants must have worked in student affairs between 5 and 8 years and at a public institution in the United States. In addition to working at a public institution, participants must have been employed in at least a second, full-time position in the field. Individuals who had held less than two or more than three positions in 5 to 8 years were excluded. These selection criteria ensured participants had demonstrated levels of commitment by maintaining employment in the student affairs profession for multiple years. It was assumed individuals holding more than three positions in 5 to 8
years may be motivated by personal values or aspirations, rather than demonstrating commitment to the profession. Finally, given the number of institutions of higher education in the United States and discrepancies between public and private, this study only included the experiences of professionals working at public institutions in the United States. While the inability to generalize case study findings is a limitation, the in-depth focus of one group of student affairs administrators meeting the conditions outlined in this study allowed for depth in exploration of the phenomena (Harrison et al., 2017; Yin, 2018).

**Summary**

The purpose of this qualitative study was to understand how satisfaction and dissatisfaction affect the development of commitment among student affairs professionals. Previous researchers of satisfaction and commitment have used quantitative methodology and have not placed conditions on participants, thus making the comparison of data from new professionals, midlevel managers, and senior-level leaders hard to differentiate. In the examination of the lived experiences of seven student affairs professionals, participants shared their experiences related to satisfaction and commitment. Through data analysis of aJDI results, semistructured interview transcripts, and reviewing artifacts relative to satisfaction, 71 initial codes were identified, resulting in 14 categories and four primary themes.

This qualitative inquiry provides insight into variables consistent with satisfaction and the building of commitment among student affairs professionals who have remained in the profession for 5 to 8 years. The data add to the existing satisfaction and
commitment literature and deepens the understanding of how student affairs professionals experience satisfaction and build commitment among the three domains.
CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS

The purpose of this qualitative case study was to understand how satisfaction and dissatisfaction affect the development of commitment among student affairs professionals. This study followed a case study design involving the collection of data related to satisfaction and dissatisfaction through participants’ completion of the aJDI, semistructured interviews, examination of participant submitted artifacts, and researcher memos. The research questions and subquestions guiding this study were:

1. How do experienced student affairs professionals build commitment?
   a. What variables are associated with the development of affective commitment?
   b. What variables are associated with the development of normative commitment?
   c. What variables are associated with the development of continuance commitment?

2. How does the presence of motivator factors contribute to an employee’s satisfaction as it relates to the commitment to stay in the field of student affairs?

3. How does the absence of hygiene factors contribute to an employee’s satisfaction as it relates to the commitment to remain in the field of student affairs?

Knowing how experienced professionals have navigated satisfaction and dissatisfaction in their work toward establishing commitment can guide future
institutional leaders, as they work to reduce rates of attrition and increase commitment of staff. This chapter consists of a review of the data collected from participants’ aJDI results, semistructured interviews, submitted artifacts, and themes relative to the three research questions.

**Background**

Student affairs professionals who had worked in the profession between 5 and 8 years, held at least two, but not more than three jobs, and worked at public institutions of higher education participated in this study. All participants completed the aJDI before scheduling an interview. Interviews were conducted using the Zoom platform because of the geographical distance between the participants and me. Zoom interviews were recorded, ensuring greater accuracy of the collected data. Recordings were uploaded to the Otter.ai, a software transcription program. The machine-assisted transcription processes proved to be highly accurate, allowing me to review the transcriptions while synchronized to the audio playback. I made corrections for inaccuracies and punctuation as necessary.

Given the narrow focus of inquiry, four primary themes emerged: (a) The Work Itself, (b) Relationships, (c) Perceived Level of Investment, and (d) Benefits. Each theme and associated category of inquiry were assigned relevance to being either a motivator or hygiene variable, consistent with Herzberg et al.’s (1959) two-factor theory, and the demonstrated domain of organizational commitment, aligned with Meyer and Allen’s (1991) TCM. Meyer and Allen’s TCM served as the framework for the semistructured interviews consisting of 18 questions in the areas of affective, normative, and
continuance commitments. I coded each participant-submitted artifact in a similar manner, evaluating if the artifact was related to satisfaction or dissatisfaction and representative of an affective, normative, or continuance type of commitment. Table 2 provides a summary of the coding analysis, two-factor variable, and commitment domain.

**Table 2**

*Thematic, Category, Two-Factor, and Commitment Analysis*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Two-Factor</th>
<th>Commitment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Work Itself</td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>Motivator</td>
<td>Affective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Involvement in Policy or Process</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Inclusion and Identity Recognition</td>
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<tr>
<td>Relationships</td>
<td>Supervisor</td>
<td>Hygiene</td>
<td>Affective</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Colleagues</td>
<td>Hygiene</td>
<td>Continuance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Personal</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>Normative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Level of Investment</td>
<td>National Organization Involvement</td>
<td>Motivator</td>
<td>Normative</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Advocacy for the Employee</td>
<td>Motivator</td>
<td>Normative</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Role of Leader</td>
<td>Motivator</td>
<td>Normative</td>
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<tr>
<td>Benefits</td>
<td>Salary</td>
<td>Hygiene</td>
<td>Continuance</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Housing</td>
<td>Hygiene</td>
<td>Continuance</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tuition Support</td>
<td>Hygiene</td>
<td>Continuance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quality of Life</td>
<td>Hygiene</td>
<td>Continuance</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* The category of *personal* under the relationships theme was not assigned a hygiene or motivator variable as the two-factor theory is confined to workplace variables.

Personal relationships, existing out of the workplace were only considered as influencing a normative commitment among participants.
Table 3 displays results from participants’ aJDI results, indicating to what degree motivator and hygiene variables are present in the workplace. Similarly, a participant’s alignment with each of the three domains of commitment is indicated.

Table 3

Motivator and Hygiene Variable Presence and Alignment With Commitment Domains

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>Motivator</th>
<th>Hygiene</th>
<th>Affective Commitment</th>
<th>Continuance Commitment</th>
<th>Normative Commitment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aiden</td>
<td>62%</td>
<td>83%</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kyle</td>
<td>90%</td>
<td>89%</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>George</td>
<td>97%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rose</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>69%</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marco</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>67%</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ruth</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>82%</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nasir</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Percentages for motivator and hygiene variables reflect the presence of those variables in the participant’s workplace, not agreement with the theory. A total of six questions in each the affective and continuance commitment domains yield a possible maximum score of six in each domain. One question in the normative commitment domain contained a two-part response and was evaluated as two separate questions, allowing for a maximum score of 7.

The four themes represented in Table 2 are supported by 14 separate categories, each connecting to one of the three domains of commitment. Only one category, personal
relationships, could not be classified as a hygiene or motivator variable, given the external role of those relationships to the work environment. The presence of motivator and hygiene variables within the participant’s workplace, as indicated in Table 3, is also reflected in higher intensities of affective and continuance commitment, whereas normative commitment was found to be the least consistent among all participants.

**Presentation of Findings**

Five of the seven study participants referenced long, thoughtful paths prior to entering the student affairs profession, citing their decisions to pursue graduate studies in higher education and student affairs and desires to help others. Two participants talked about knowing they would be in education, initially thinking they would be teachers and finding their paths to student affairs. Nearly all participants identified impactful experiences during their undergraduate careers as contributing to their heightened awareness of, interest in, or involvement in student affairs work. Most participants attributed their entrances into the field to personalized connections with mentors or advisors during their undergraduate education. Most often, this relationship was attributed to a student resident assistant or an organizational advisor.

This early recognition of “helpers on campus,” who proved instrumental in transitions, coaching, and involvement experiences for participants, suggests an early awareness of the existence of student affairs work. Similarly, each participant pursued graduate studies synonymous with higher education and student affairs work, indicating conscious decisions to pursue careers in student affairs, knowing the type of work in which they would be engaged. No participants indicated they found this field by
happenstance, including Kyle who did not enter the profession until he was 31 years old:
“This was not my first career choice. . . . After seeing other things, I made the conscious
decision to make this my forever career.” Student affairs work was seen as a calling by
participants; their desire to be involved in a helping profession was evident through this
study.

The Work Itself

The idea of employees deriving satisfaction from daily work in which they engage
was affirmed by Smerek and Peterson (2007) and central to Herzberg et al.’s (1959) two-
factor theory. The intrinsic satisfaction derived from a student affairs practitioner’s work
proved to be the central theme in this study and a foundation for choosing this profession.

Through the development of relationships with students, creating policies, growing
personally, and receiving recognition from others, each participant described routine and
regular satisfaction and the building of affective commitment.

Students

All seven participants referenced their direct work with students as either the most
enjoyable aspect of their work or the variable responsible for sustaining their
commitment. Each participant expressed having routine interactions and regular
engagement with students at their respective institutions. While some participants
supervised students directly, others provided support and advising for student
development and success. Persistent and ongoing work with students was routinely
referenced by participants, demonstrating feelings of connection or emotional attachment
to their organizations and the student affairs profession.
The connection participants felt was underscored when students recognized the efforts of the professionals. Ruth commented:

“It’s really the students that make me feel a sense of connection to the work that I do. In student conduct, you treasure those particular moments where students do understand the bigger picture where they can understand the importance of development and education and they say thank you for being a part of their life. You may not get a lot of them, but those are the ones that fill up my feel-good jar.”

The ability to derive satisfaction from student affairs work was evident in participant responses. When asked about their willingness to spend the rest of their careers in student affairs, six of the seven participants answered affirmatively.

While most participants entered student affairs directly out of graduate school, their immersion in this type of work and synthesis of what it entails played a role in how they viewed future opportunities. Marco suggested:

“Student affairs is really all I’ve ever known. It’s what I’m up to date in and where I feel the most comfortable. If I were to think about a career outside of student affairs, I might be able to pull upon my undergraduate degree, but that field has changed so rapidly that I’m not even sure I would be marketable. Student affairs is such a big part of my identity. To think about giving that up or losing it is really difficult.”

Although no participants were actively engaged in searching for new jobs, participants referenced their relationships with students as the primary thing they would be giving up if they left their positions or the student affairs profession. Realizing relationships with students were the primary driver of satisfaction and commitment in this line of work, participants shared their concerns about maintaining those connections in the future. Of those who talked about having long careers or longevity in the student affairs profession, the concern of senior-level positions being less engaged with students was often
mentioned. The adage “the higher up you move, the further removed from students you become” was a commonly shared phrase among participants, bringing into question how participants could maintain connection while advancing professionally. While only one participant (Nasir) suggested a lack of a desire to remain in student affairs for the rest of his career, Nasir still noted how interactions with students was the primary source for feeling a sense of connection and attachment to his work.

*Involvement in Policy or Process*

Beyond engagement and interaction with students, participants’ involvement in crafting policies, starting new programs, or improving existing processes was commonly referred to as a highlight of one’s work. Kyle shared:

> I have a really unique opportunity to connect with students in providing programs and resources around sexual orientation. There is a really deep level of satisfaction in being able to create a community and remove systemic barriers as students try to find meaning and a sense of belonging at an institution.

Along a similar thought of organizational processes, Aiden shared:

> Early on in my career, much of my emotional connection was derived from fostering strong relationships with students and seeing them be successful, learn, and grow. And while those are still very important to me, my emotional attachment has changed from small-scale individual connection to processes and systems that benefit everyone. The systematic approach to my work is really where I feel my sense of attachment now.

Aiden submitted an email artifact showcasing how his advocacy work for lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and queer (LGBTQ)-identified students in his residence hall led to the expansion of support services across the entire campus. This act of advocacy shifted his institution’s narrowly available service to students in his residence hall to support resources accessible to the entire campus population.
Rose discussed how helping administrators above her understand day-to-day experiences of students influenced new campus processes and policies:

I really find value in bringing to light the experiences of our students to the upper administration who are not on the ground and are not hearing what we are hearing. I’ve really started to recognize that when my superiors talk about not hearing complaints from parents or getting frustrating phone calls, that means I’m doing my job. I think that being able to open their eyes to the experiences that are happening on the ground with students is so important and rewarding.

Rose’s comments referenced how her knowledge of student behaviors and patterns influenced administrators, as they made decisions in response to the COVID-19 pandemic. Such knowledge and insight helped senior-level administrators determine what resources students would need to access outside of campus and how the expectation for students to have laptops was not reasonable. The recognition of these employee insights are motivator variables in Herzberg et al.’s (1959) two-factor theory. Their presence suggests participants felt high levels of satisfaction in their roles.

**Inclusion and Identity**

Beyond classroom experiences in their graduate education, student affairs professionals are provided with unique opportunities to increase their own learning and development. Diversity, equity, and inclusion (DEI) work is often seen as its own functional area in student affairs; however, those concepts and practices generally permeate most aspects of higher education. In evaluating commitment to their organization and the student affairs profession, participants spoke about how their personal identities were heavily intertwined with their work.
Kyle’s functional area was DEI, and he reflected on how his acquired knowledge, while working in the field, had grown and helped him to understand complexities and intersectionality of identity he believed would not be explored in industries outside of higher education. These sentiments were echoed by Aiden, who believed “outside of student affairs and higher education, most places are not going to be as receptive to social justice, inclusion, and diversity concepts.”

Three participants self-identified as gay during their interviews, noting how they believed their identities were more widely accepted and embraced in student affairs than they perceived they would be in workplaces outside of college campuses. Other aspects participants shared related to identity included one participant being a first-generation college student and four participants identifying as people of color. While this study did not explore the impact of generation, race, or sexual orientation identities on facets of satisfaction or commitment, these identities were recognized by participants as embraced in student affairs. These identities were seen as added benefits to the organization and not barriers to participants’ experiences. Although not fully explored in this study, these findings support the work of Wilson et al. (2016), who noted the impact of employee identity on organizational commitment.

Recognition

Recognition, as it relates to participants’ work, was a pervasive theme throughout this study, in interviews and through artifacts submitted. Recognition can come from a variety of sources and is a motivator variable, suggesting participants would have heightened levels of satisfaction when recognized for their work. Participants discussed
recognition from their supervisors and other senior-level administrators in their organizations; however, artifacts did not reflect recognition from organizational leaders and instead included examples from students’ parents, staff, peers, and others external to the organization.

Six of the seven participants provided examples of artifacts related to recognition from individuals who were not their immediate supervisors. In each of these cases, the email, note, formal letter, or award nomination showed participants’ exemplary work toward solving a problem, assisting a student through a crisis, or overall competency and professionalism in the execution of their responsibilities. Participants indicated recognition made them feel good and was an act of validation by others for their good work. In this study, the act of recognition was shared as the primary source of validation and evaluation of employees’ performances and abilities.

Aiden provided 12 examples of recognition from student staff, senior administrators, campus partners, and parents:

These notes and letters show that I’ve made a difference in the lives of students or helped to improve their experience. It feels really good to be praised for the work where I’ve handled really complex and difficult crisis situations. It confirms that I have the skillset that will help me as a higher level professional in the future.

For Aiden, recognition of his work contributed to the level of satisfaction he felt with his work. In addition to notes of praise and commendation, Nasir shared pictures of himself with his staff, commenting, “These are a good reminder of the relationships that I have built and the impact that I have had on my students. They are what keep me going.”
Tangential to the work done by participants with their institutions is their involvement in professional organizations relative to their student affairs functional areas. The connection between external involvement and commitment is discussed in detail under the Perceived Level of Investment theme. Marco provided a copy of an award he received from a national fraternal organization, recognizing him for his professional responsibilities with the organization and his work on campus. In this study, recognition, whether given by one’s supervisor or from individuals or entities outside of the supervisory dyad, was synonymous with satisfaction and affective commitment. The work itself, as described by Gillespie et al. (2016) and Herzberg et al. (1959), supported the building of affective commitment.

**Relationships**

In addition to the work itself serving as a motivator variable contributing to employee satisfaction, relationships played an equally important role in understanding satisfaction and commitment. Relationships are considered hygiene factors in Herzberg et al.’s (1959) two-factor theory, suggesting absence of strong, positive relationships may increase feelings of dissatisfaction. Findings in this study, however, revealed the presence of positive and healthy relationships had a positive impact on feelings of satisfaction, a contradiction to Herzberg’s theory. While Herzberg et al. contended the presence of strong, positive relationships is not tied to increased feelings of satisfaction, the regular mention and positive attribution of a participant’s relationship with their supervisor raised questions of effects of relationships on employees’ feelings of satisfaction. Participants’
positive views, affinity, and loyalty to their supervisors were found to have an impact on increased levels of satisfaction.

The two-factor theory has a focus on relationships in the workplace; however, another type of relationship surfaced as a dominant and important factor among the data collected: personal relationships. Participants routinely referenced their significant others (e.g., boyfriend, fiancé, spouse) or their extended family as major influences in their decision-making processes, particularly when related to the development of normative commitment. Relationships with supervisors, colleagues, and those of a personal nature are discussed further in the following sections.

**Supervisor**

C. Mathieu et al. (2016) stated a supervisor has an immediate and direct impact on an employee’s experience, controlling for the work and culture in an organization. Participants in this study talked about the role of their immediate supervisors in contributing to participants’ overall satisfaction and the subsequent impact on their commitment to the organization. Participants’ relationships with their supervisors were credited as primary reasons participants felt a sense of connection to their organizations. Kyle reflected on the close bond he felt with his supervisor, noting how his supervisor had done the exact type of work in which Kyle was engaged. This level of job knowledge from his supervisor allowed Kyle to feel as though he was understood and appreciated for the nuances and intricacies associated with his day-to-day responsibilities:

My supervisor and I share many of the same identities. Yes, we have many different identities as well, but there is a lot of alignment in how we approach this work. My boss used to be an LGBTQ Center director and fully understands what
this world and work is all about. There’s a shared philosophy around work ethic, around leadership development, identity development, and student development that really helps me move our organization forward. I know that he really understands my job.

Participants who had a supervisor who understood their work viewed this understanding as an asset, rather than seeing the dynamic as a micromanagement of one’s daily work.

In addition to understanding the employee’s work, the relationship between employee and supervisor was identified as playing a critical role in developing a sense of obligation to job or work environment. When participants were asked if they remained with their organizations out of a sense of obligation to people, two of three participants who answered affirmatively mentioned feeling a sense of obligation to their supervisor. Marco discussed the lengths his supervisor went in recruiting him for his current position: “I wasn’t looking for a new job, but he saw a lot in me that I didn’t see in myself. It gave me the confidence to take this gigantic leap.” Marco talked about how his relationship with his supervisor was affirmative and encouraging, inclusive of recognizing challenges Marco experienced in moving across the country and existing as a person of color at a predominantly White institution. The supervisor’s ability to understand the employee’s lived experience, beyond the work responsibilities, was seen as a contributing factor to employee satisfaction.

Nasir referenced the role his supervisor had in contributing to aspects of dissatisfaction. While Nasir suggested his supervisor was supportive of his work and performance, he referenced an ongoing lack of understanding or perceived level of care related to his personal life. Specifically, Nasir and his wife planned to welcome a baby
into their lives in the coming months. Nasir felt as though his supervisor “towed the line” in being inflexible and was not supportive in adjusting his professional commitments when the baby was due. Nasir suggested his supervisor demonstrated a lack of assistance in moving university-provided furniture out of his university-provided apartment when he and his wife moved in, adding to a difficult process of having to store furniture, as he transitioned into a new campus and new role. While Nasir commented his relationship with his supervisor was good overall, this perceived disconnect or decreased level of investment in his experiences outside of the workplace contributed to dissatisfaction. This finding supports the absence of a strong hygiene variable, thus increasing the level of dissatisfaction experienced by the participant (Herzberg et al., 1959).

**Colleagues**

Colleagues in the workplace play an important role in how an employee views their overall experience, in terms of satisfaction and commitment. Relationships with one’s colleagues are considered hygiene variables for satisfaction; the presence of strong relationships does not contribute to feelings of satisfaction; however, their absence contributes to increased levels of dissatisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1959). Participants in this study indicated a range of 60% to 100% presence of hygiene variables in their workplace, according to their aJDI results. Beyond one’s supervisor, relationships in the workplace had a contributing effect on commitment. Aiden and Kyle shared perspectives of how poor relationships with colleagues prompted each one to consider leaving the student affairs profession.
Aiden shared how a particular colleague in his organization routinely attacked him for his thoughts and opinions, characterizing Aiden’s decision making as a “series of assumptions” and approaching his work without “recognizing my privileged identities.” While Aiden identified as a member of the LGBTQ community, he perceived the level of in-fighting between marginalized professionals as incongruent, believing his work with students should transcend to professional relationships.

Kyle discussed the reality of entering an organization and taking on the supervision of staff who had been in their roles for many years prior to his arrival. The process of trying to motivate these individuals and move them to a higher level of performance and output was met with substantial resistance, making it difficult to have positive relationships with these individuals. Kyle’s dissatisfaction continued to mount upon realizing his performance evaluations were tied to the performance of colleagues. The absence of strong relationships with colleagues in the workplace contributed to Aiden’s and Kyle’s feelings of dissatisfaction.

Beyond the role of impacting dissatisfaction, relationships with peers and colleagues serve a critical role in the development of commitment and attachment to an organization. One’s peers play an important role in helping an employee make sense of their work and in developing comradery by sharing a unique experience that others outside of their world would not likely understand. Nasir commented:

In our live-in positions, there’s a sense of knowing that we may not be best of friends, but I understand what you’re going through, and you know, we are each other’s support system to an extent because we do the exact same things. At the end of the day, only we know exactly what it’s like to live on this campus because our campus and our processes are so unique.
George shared the perspective of his “colleagues who became friends, who became family,” as he moved across the country to his institution. The idea of starting over in a new location without knowing anyone was challenging, but the role his colleagues played in welcoming and acclimating him blossomed into long-lasting, deep friendships. Nasir and George commented on the sacrifice it would take to give up those relationships if they were to leave their institutions. Recognizing how collegial and peer relationships were viewed as a benefit and having value, these relationships were viewed in the continuance commitment domain in this study.

**Personal**

Participants’ personal lives coincided with their professional responsibilities and work lives. Six of seven participants acknowledged being in romantic relationships: dating, engaged, or married to another person. While Nasir’s wife worked in a different student affairs department on the same campus, all other participants with significant others talked about this person existing outside of their workplaces. While the significant other was not present in day-to-day workplace experiences of participants, the consideration given to their significant others emerged as an important variable, influencing commitment. Participants viewed their personal relationships as having an important influence on career decisions. Personal relationships were also discussed in terms of a participants’ parents and extended families. These relationships, relative to commitment to an organization, were seen through lenses of participants as potentially
disrupting their partners if they were to pursue other jobs, the need to provide financially for their families, and being physically closer to parents and extended family members.

Positive, meaningful relationships in the workplace were hygiene variables in the two-factor theory, and thus, applying the theory to personal relationships outside of the workplace is not a fair application of the theory. Unlike relationships with colleagues and supervisors, the nature and impact of these relationships is demonstrative of effecting normative commitment. A participant’s decision as to whether or not to stay with their organization is an obligation owed due to the influence of these relationships. Aiden reflected:

A huge consideration for why I stay is because I have a partner that I am hoping to marry, someone I want to spend the rest of my life with. And right now, he has his dream job of being a middle school teacher. There is a level of hesitation that I have, thinking that if I were to leave this area, this region, this institution. What is that going to do to my partner? A new opportunity for me would likely be an advancement in my career, but for him he’d be starting over—even with his retirement. So, I am limited in what other opportunities or areas I might want to consider in the future if I want to ensure he feels happy and enabled to do what he loves. I have to think about our future financial security as well.

Kyle echoed similar sentiments when talking about what it would take to consider working somewhere else: “I feel regionally bound in other opportunities. My partner has a fantastic job that she loves, and I wouldn’t want to destabilize that in any way.”

Nasir and Marco talked about desires to be closer to parents and family. Marco recognized his parents as his biggest supporters. They championed him through college, and Marco felt a desire to “make them proud” through his professional work. Marco suggested with his parents getting older and already having spent over 5 years away from them, “Any new professional opportunities will have to factor geographic proximity to
them as well.” Nasir’s motivation for wanting to be closer to home stemmed from the reality of having a child with his wife and wanting an extended family to be part of the child’s raising. Although Nasir’s desire to be closer to family was not seen as support of commitment for staying in his position, it provides insight into how familial ties can contribute to employees building normative or continuance commitment.

**Perceived Level of Investment**

Explored in Chapter 2, how an employee perceives their experiences informs how they express commitment (Boehman, 2006). In this study, participants discussed a number of variables associated with how their supervisors and organizations demonstrated investment in their experiences and supported their continued growth. Data related to participant perceptions of support manifested in three categories: (a) involvement in professional organizations, (b) advocacy for the employee, and (c) the role of the leader. These three variables are consistent with motivator variables in Herzberg et al.’s (1959) two-factor theory; when present, they contribute to increased feelings of satisfaction. Similarly, variables contributing to perceived levels of investment in participants’ experiences were normative commitments: obligations to remain with the organization because these investments had been made.

**Professional Organization Involvement**

Perhaps one of the most unanticipated discoveries of this study was the significance and value ascribed by participants related to their involvement in professional organizations. Professional development opportunities often require a financial commitment by the organization to support conference attendance (e.g., travel,
food, registration), and participants viewed this financial commitment as a substantial investment in their experiences. Participants who engaged with professional organizations described the involvement as complementary to their daily work responsibilities. The extension of participants’ work beyond their institutions was credited for increased feelings of connectedness to the profession, the presence of mentors in participants’ lives, opportunities to enhance professional skills, and improving participants’ work on campus.

Participants commented on the sense of investment by their institution when their attendance at professional conferences was supported. Beyond attending professional conferences, participants gave credit to leaders and organizations when their volunteer leadership roles and increased involvement in professional organizations were also supported. Marco noted how his leadership role with the Association of Fraternity and Sorority Advisors (AFA) broadened his network of support and professional mentors, offering him perspectives and ideas regarding how he could approach and improve his work on campus. Similarly, involvement with a professional organization increased his level of self-confidence related to his professional responsibilities, translating into positive reception and belief in his abilities by his supervisor and institutional colleagues.

Echoing the value of developing relationships through professional organizations, Rose discussed the value of connecting with an AFA professional early in her career, which proved to be rewarding years later as she transitioned into family programs:

I met this woman at my first annual association meeting early on in my career. Staying loosely connected over the years, I really never gave much thought to where she worked or what she did. Years later, during an on-campus interview for
my current position, this same woman walks into the interview room and immediately recognizes me. To think this person with a decade more experience than me remembers me from that different functional area and a different setting was surreal. Immediately, I felt like I belong here and in this profession.

Rose discussed how her institution supported her in maintaining a volunteer role with her national sorority, even though she did not work in fraternity and sorority life. Through this experience, she was able to spearhead new initiatives and projects for her national sorority, benefitting her employer. In the midst of the COVID-19 pandemic, Rose created online engagement toolkits for campus chapters to use, as they transitioned seniors into alumni. Rose believed the opportunity to be involved in new practices at a national level benefitted her campus role, as online support programs became increasingly essential during the pandemic.

George discussed the benefit his involvement with a professional organizational had on supplementing his daily professional responsibilities. Serving as treasurer for a state affiliation of a professional association, George commented how his role as treasurer has supplemented his professional skillset, as budget management was not part of his on-campus work experiences. This insight was important in recognizing not all professional roles afford employees all skills they may need to advance in their careers.

An employer who supports involvement in professional organizations invests in professional development in areas beyond the confines of employee job responsibilities.

Kyle expressed finding a sense of professional and personal identity through his involvement with the American College Personnel Association (ACPA), suggesting the organization’s focus on social justice and identity formation was “a place that I feel
understands me and understands the folks who I feel a deep connection and community with.” Kyle expressed being in community with other professionals through the association helped him better understand his work and increased his professional network of colleagues across the nation. Kyle discussed how his involvement with ACPA was supported by his organization, suggesting such commitment helped him find connection to his work and demonstrated alignment between organizational values and action.

**Advocacy for the Employee**

Consistent with motivator variables, data suggested participants who felt as though someone were fighting for them or advocating for their experiences was a critical component in increased levels of satisfaction. Participants discussed how advocacy behavior, done primarily by supervisors, had lasting impacts on their experiences and helped them develop a sense of obligatory commitment in remaining with their organization. Advocacy behavior was previously discussed in Kyle’s reflection of his supervisor knowing his work “inside and out,” given his supervisor’s prior experience in the same role. Kyle’s supervisor was able to anticipate challenges and do what he could to remove barriers. Kyle’s recognition of his supervisor being both empathetic and in sync with his experiences made Kyle feel supported and fulfilled in his position.

Participants who believed their institutions wanted to see them succeed was a common sentiment expressed, demonstrating high levels of normative commitment. Rose shared an impactful example of how her supervisor had advocated for her:

A program we used to do had to be sunset several years ago for a variety of reasons. There was still funding for this program, about five to six thousand dollars, just sitting there as recurring funds. My supervisor made the decision to
advocate up the chain for this to be rolled over into a salary increase for me specifically. That just doesn’t happen. Leftover funds are usually reallocated to other programs, to organization leaders’ salary, or split across the board with your colleagues, but this action was personal. I know what it feels like for someone to advocate for you and pass themselves over to say I value you. I want to invest in you. I want to see you stay here.

Marco’s sense of obligation to stay with his organization was attributed to his supervisor’s advocacy actions: “He was adamant on me being here. He’s given me the autonomy to make this position my own and I am confident he would do whatever is necessary to make sure I stay.”

Advocating for an employee is a motivator variable; absent, it can be seen as a hygiene variable, when viewed as poor supervision or an incongruent organizational policy. Nasir’s comments of his supervisor’s unwillingness to bend department policy, remove university-provided furniture from his apartment, and increase flexibility in Nasir’s job responsibilities in anticipation of the arrival of his child suggest a lack of advocacy resembles an absence of a hygiene variable, contributing to increased levels of dissatisfaction for Nasir.

**Role of Leader**

Organizational leaders have opportunities to shape the direction of their organizations. Participants in this study discussed the role organizational leaders played in fostering culture, developing team unity, and creating an environment for employees to succeed. These findings are congruent with previous studies of the relationship between leader behaviors on the development of affective commitment (Benevene et al., 2018; Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015). While leaders’ behaviors may have an impact on
increasing affective commitment (i.e., making the job and work more enjoyable), participants in this study suggested leader behaviors play a contributing factor in the development of normative commitment as well.

The sense of obligation to remain with the organization because of leaders’ actions was mentioned in a variety of ways during participant interviews. Participants discussed hesitation in leaving an institution due to variables controlled by leaders, such as the creation of high-performing teams, expressing value for personal identities, and providing for autonomy in execution of job responsibilities. Five of seven participants expressed loyalty to their supervisors due to the organizational experiences created. Participants discussed the sense of guilt they would likely feel if they were to leave their jobs, even if it were to their advantage. Although Eisenberg et al. (2010) warned of follower commitment manifesting as affective organizational commitment, the current study suggests an alignment to normative commitment: staying with the organization because of this sense of obligation or duty to the leader, staying because it is the right thing to do.

Depending on the types of behavior the leader executes, it is possible to view their impacts as motivator and hygiene variables. In this study, the role of the leader was not easily categorized into the motivator-hygiene dyad, given complexities associated with understanding impact and how many behaviors have parallel and overlapping effects. For example, participants referencing leaders’ roles in creating enjoyable work environments could be interpreted as creating favorable working conditions, a hygiene variable; however, this work environment might also have an impact on making the work itself
enjoyable, a motivator variable. Hygiene variables, as put forth in Herzberg et al.’s (1959) do not improve satisfaction; rather their absence increases dissatisfaction. Thus, favorable actions from leaders should be viewed as a motivator variable, contributing to increased feelings of satisfaction.

Benefits

The final theme recognized in this qualitative study was the role benefits played in employee satisfaction and commitment. Benefits are seen as a hygiene variable, having an external impact on the work an employee does (Herzberg et al., 1959). Benefits are synonymous with a continuance organizational commitment; organizational commitment occurs because an employee fears giving up benefits if they leave the organization. Findings of this study hold true to the theories of satisfaction and commitment. Four categories of benefits were discussed by the seven participants: (a) salary, (b) housing, (c) tuition remission, and (d) quality of life.

Salary

Like in many professions, salary structures in student affairs work typically resemble a hierarchical structure, with entry-level professionals making the lowest and senior-level administrators making the highest salaries. No data collected suggested participants were employed in student affairs for their salaries. Rather, maintaining a paycheck contributed to financial stability of participants, partners, and family members with whom they shared fiduciary responsibilities. Six of seven participants named their salaries as being the main necessity for maintaining employment with their organization.
Participant data from the aJDI on attitudes about pay indicated a mild agreement with the presence of this hygiene variable in their workplace. For example, no participants indicated they could *barely live on their income*; however, six of seven participants indicated they were *not well paid* and were *underpaid*. Inadequacy of salaries has been routinely cited as a major factor for attrition from the student affairs field (Marshall et al., 2016). Participants’ views of their salaries, while not overwhelmingly favorable, did not rise to the level of an absence of adequacy contributing to dissatisfaction.

**Housing**

Some student affairs functional areas require professional staff to live on campus in university-sponsored accommodations. Most housing and residence life (HRL) operations have this component built into the professional experience of their staff. Accommodations and housing benefits vary from campus to campus. Five participants had experience with HRL programs. The two participants who currently worked in HRL identified their university-provided accommodations as the main thing they would be giving up by leaving their jobs. Whether or not they were satisfied with the accommodations, both participants recognized the financial savings they enjoyed by living in university-sponsored apartments.

While Nasir and Aiden indicated they were long-term planners and had financial safety nets in place, neither expressed enthusiasm nor willingness to surrender the benefit of housing by taking a new job. The three participants with previous HRL experience referred to losing this benefit when assuming new positions and living off campus. The
benefit of housing assistance was appreciated and likely contributed to feelings of continuance commitment; however, this was not evaluated as an exclusive factor for remaining with an organization.

Tuition Support

Five of seven participants were pursuing educational credentials. Ruth had just successfully defended her doctoral dissertation at the time of her interview. Aiden and Rose were in school: Aiden was seeking a Master of Business Administration (MBA) degree, and Rose was completing her doctoral coursework. Kyle indicated he was in the application phase of a PhD program, and Nasir was pursuing nondegree educational certifications. The commonality for each participant in pursuing additional education was the support from their current employer and the financial benefit associated with tuition remuneration, partial or full, as benefits associated with their employment.

Kyle shared, “I am in the application process for our PhD program. It’s 100% paid, including fees and dissertation costs. The practicality of it all makes it difficult to think about leaving. It’s just so attractive to stay.” Rose indicated her institution offered tuition remission to pursue her PhD. Ruth could take advantage of a tuition program benefit for state university employees in a large state system. Each participant pursuing degrees did so with a connection to higher education. Aiden’s pursuit of an MBA was done with the intent of bringing a financial lens to student affairs and higher education. The doctoral students placed emphasis on higher education functions (e.g., curriculum design, measurement and evaluation), with the goal of connecting aspects of their studies to their student affairs work.
The reduction of tuition costs was recognized as a substantial benefit by the participants. Organizations’ long-term investment in participants’ education had a future-focused potential to impact student affairs work locally and nationally. Although participants pursuing education and credentials did so with alignment to student affairs, it was unclear if these decisions were made because of true desires to learn more in the academic program or to take advantage of the tuition support benefit. Commitment in this domain could be further impacted if the area of study aligns with employees’ interests and motivations.

**Quality of Life**

Synonymous with work-life balance, the idea of an employee recognizing a quality balance between their work responsibilities and their lives outside of the workplace was an emerging category worth exploring. While principles of hygiene variables in the two-factor theory relate to the workplace, a large portion of the quality of life balance theme is dependent on those workplace variables. Still, variables outside of the workplace contribute to a quality of life balance and do not fit the definition of hygiene variables in the two-factor theory. As such, this theme was classified as a hygiene variable in this study. Several participants made reference to self-identified balance explicitly or through comments related to commitments outside of work. George spoke about feeling balance between work responsibilities and living a life outside of work, free from those stressors. George had previously worked in HRL and lived on campus:
I used to feel a constant weight of taking work home with me at the end of the day when I worked in HRL. Living off campus now, it is so much easier for me to check out of it. I use my drive home to mentally separate myself from my work as I step back into my personal life.

George attributed a sense of balance to many things, including the culture of his organization, his supervisor, and the shared societal attitude of the region to live an active life in the outdoors.

Marco and Rose referred to the high degree of trust instilled in them by their supervisors. Each indicated trust also resulted in greater flexibility around work structures and perceived levels of rigidness. Marco indicated his supervisor was very accommodating with his hourly structure, going so far as to suggest

As long as I get my hours in, there isn’t too much scrutiny on when I show up to the office. Sometimes I feel like a morning person. Other days I do not. I have the flexibility to allow my best self to show up.

The ability to craft the work experience aligns with Gordon et al.’s (2017) findings. Rose referenced the flexibility afforded to her to complete her coursework, with some academic terms requiring a shift in her office hours, without worrying about striking that balance with her organization.

Maintaining quality of life was seen as an uncertain scenario when participants were asked to think about difficulties associated with leaving their positions. George, Marco, and Rose struggled to talk about leaving their organizations, even if it were to their advantage. Each ascribed difficulty in thinking about leaving based on their overall impression and feeling of their environment, suggesting any place else would be unlikely to match the support received at work and allow them to thrive outside of it as well.

George shared, “I enjoy the work that I do and working with the people that I get to. I
love that I get to leave campus and come home to the new house my partner and I just bought. Why would I want to ever think about giving that up?”

Nasir talked about the struggle to find a balance between work and personal life as a professional in HRL. Many barriers related to the perceived low balance stemmed from Nasir’s organizational policies, such as limiting the number of nights a professional can be away from campus. Nasir remarked, “When you work in housing, and you live on campus—My goal is not to stay on campus when I don’t have to. But we are only allowed to be gone from campus 4 days a month.” This lack of balance constituted an absence of hygiene variables, consistent with Nasir’s overall hygiene prevalence score.

**Summary**

Findings of this qualitative study resulted in four primary themes, supported by 14 categories about how the presence of motivator variables increase satisfaction and how the absence of hygiene variables increase dissatisfaction. These results provide insight as to how student affairs professionals build affective, normative, and continuance commitments. Participants demonstrated regular agreement with Herzberg et al.’s (1959) two-factor theory and Meyer and Allen’s (1991) TCM of commitment. Specifically, participants noted increased levels of satisfaction derived from the actual work itself, indicative of affective commitment. Participants expressed increased feelings of satisfaction related to their work with students, creating policies, and influencing processes. Participants viewed student affairs work, inclusive of DEI principles, as an affirming and satisfying place to work, contributing to feelings of satisfaction and
affective commitment. Additionally, participants shared the power of recognition in increasing their feelings of satisfaction and enjoying the work they do.

Hygiene variables indicating a positive relationship between a participant and supervisor and participant and colleagues did not improve satisfaction; however, experiences absent of strong relationships were found to have an impact on increased levels of dissatisfaction. Unrelated to satisfaction and to a sense of obligation to remain with an organization, participants’ personal relationships with a significant other or family members were found to affect the building of normative commitment.

Participants provided examples of how they believed their organization invested in their experiences, namely opportunities to be involved in professional organizations, seeing supervisors advocate on their behalf, and organizational leaders’ roles in shaping variables related to their experiences. Each perceived type of investment contributed to participants’ feelings of satisfaction and is representative of building normative commitment (Hirschy et al., 2015). Additionally, organizational leaders’ behaviors contribute to the building of affective commitment.

The hygiene variable of benefits, such as campus-provided housing, tuition remuneration, salary, and quality of life were not seen as contributing to participant satisfaction. In circumstances where variables were seen as lacking or diminished, increased levels of dissatisfaction were noted. While variables contributed to the building of continuance commitment, they were not dominant factors as to why participants stayed.
Concluding observations from the results, drawing comparisons to established literature and answering the research questions, will be presented in Chapter 5. Recommendations for future action and further research will also be presented.
CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

This goal of the design of this qualitative study was to reveal variables associated with how student affairs professionals build affective, normative, and continuance commitment. Recognizing satisfaction as an antecedent to commitment, it was also important to explore how the presence of motivator variables contributes to increased levels of satisfaction and how the absence of hygiene variables contributes to increased levels of dissatisfaction. Understanding satisfaction, dissatisfaction, and how student affairs professionals build commitment is an important step toward addressing the 50-60% attrition rate of new student affairs professionals (Lorden, 1998; Tull, 2006).

A qualitative methodology using a case study design was chosen for this research study, aligning with the research questions and subquestions:

1. How do experienced student affairs professionals build commitment?
   a. What variables are associated with the development of affective commitment?
   b. What variables are associated with the development of normative commitment?
   c. What variables are associated with the development of continuance commitment?

2. How does the presence of motivator factors contribute to an employee’s satisfaction as it relates to the commitment to stay in the field of student affairs?
3. How does the absence of hygiene factors contribute to an employee’s satisfaction as it relates to the commitment to remain in the field of student affairs?

Participants in this study represented a variety of functional areas in student affairs, worked in the field between 5 and 8 years, and had held at least two but no more than three student affairs positions. Each participant had only worked at public institutions in the United States. Seven participants were included in this study, with each one completing the aJDI inventory, participating in a semistructured interview and sharing artifacts related to their experiences of satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Data were analyzed and coded for emergent themes, resulting in four principal themes and 14 supporting categories.

Findings of this study support existing satisfaction and commitment theories by Herzberg et al. (1959) and Meyer and Allen (1991). The presence of motivator variables was synonymous with the work itself and participants’ perceived levels of investment by their institutions. The work itself was demonstrative of building affective commitment, while investment in the participant was in line with developing normative commitment. Although the absence of hygiene variables was not discernable in this study, the relevance of hygiene variables was established related to participants’ benefits and relationships. Benefits were synonymous with a continuance commitment, whereas relationships took on aspects of each of the three domains of commitment. This chapter includes a discussion of findings, application of the findings to leadership, and recommendations for future action and research.
**Discussion of Findings and Conclusions**

In pursuit of understanding variables associated with employee satisfaction and dissatisfaction and how student affairs professionals build commitment, four primary themes emerged from this study. Each theme has a direct influence on each of the research questions and subquestions: The Work Itself, Relationships, Perceived Level of Investment, and Benefits. In support of Boehman’s (2007) evidence of commitment existing among student affairs professionals, each of the seven study participants demonstrated commitment to their institutions and the student affairs profession. While commitment existed, the intensity of the commitment domains varied among participants; the presence of motivator variables (satisfaction) and the absence of hygiene variables (dissatisfaction) served as key indicators for understanding the intensity of the variance.

Six of seven participants shared experiences of how their professional journeys had unfolded; the presence of motivator variables corresponded to high levels of satisfaction, while the absence of hygiene variables suggested some degree of dissatisfaction. One participant was originally seen as a potential outlier, when compared to the rest of the sample; however, upon closer analysis, that participant’s experience showed unique organizational and personal factors played a mediating role in explaining the participant’s divergent responses. Understanding the unique situational experiences helped me make sense of that participant’s satisfaction and commitment. Overall, study participants demonstrated high levels of affective commitment. This finding suggests study participants were pursuing their professional careers in student affairs because they were enjoying the work.
Although two participants indicated a lower presence of motivator variables in their work when compared to other participants, each participant demonstrated the strongest commitment in the affective domain. Conversely, high levels of agreement with the presence of hygiene factors were noted. According to Herzberg et al.’s (1959) theory, neither an absence of motivator factors nor a presence of hygiene factors should have had an impact on employee satisfaction. The strong presence of motivator variables for five participants and the agreement of hygiene variables suggests high levels of satisfaction with few factors influencing dissatisfaction. The conclusion is these participants were satisfied with their work.

In regard to the three domains of commitment, participants expressed a wide array of commitment intensities, some favoring one over another, while others expressed equal commitment among the three domains. Affective commitment was expressed as the strongest form of commitment among five of the seven participants. Two participants had equal parts affective and continuance commitment. Two participants expressed normative commitment as their most dominant domain, with affective commitment being their second strongest domain. No participant showed affective commitment to be their least engaged domain. While the data did not allow for a conditional comparison of commitment domain based on satisfaction, the data confirmed participants demonstrated satisfaction and had a high level of affective commitment toward their organization and the student affairs profession.
Building Commitment

Research Question 1 was centered on how experienced student affairs professionals build commitment, identifying the variables associated with building affective, normative, and continuance commitments. Affective commitment manifested as a result of participants enjoying their work, especially student-facing aspects. Participants who felt a sense of value to the organization were more likely to demonstrate affective commitment. This finding was highlighted in participants articulating their contributions to something other than their immediate work tasks. Situations where participants’ direct work experiences or knowledge were used to shape and influence institutional processes and services were seen as a validation of participants’ work and manifested as participants feeling satisfaction with their careers. This finding supports the results of Mohammed and Eleswed (2013), who suggested employees who identify with the values and goals of their organizations exert effort in advancing those goals, further committing to the organization.

Affective commitment was strongly associated with acts of recognition. Recognition from superiors, students, campus partners, and parents were all found to play critical roles in the building of affective commitment, confirming the findings of Rosser (2004) and Rosser and Javinar (2004). Recognition was seen as an external validation of the employee’s work and an internal influencer of how the employee saw themselves in their chosen careers. Recognition was seen as affirming participants’ commitments to careers in student affairs. Recognition of participants’ work was most often discussed
through relationships participants had with their supervisors, underscoring the importance of strong leader-follower relationships.

Strong leader-follower relationships incorporate employee commitments outside of the work environment, including external involvement and personal relationships. Leaders who connected employees’ personal lives to their professional lives demonstrated a holistic understanding of employees’ needs and competing priorities. Understanding this complexity gives leaders opportunities to control for workplace variables that support and balance satisfaction and commitment (David et al., 2015; Sentuna, 2015). It is not sufficient for a leader to think their employee’s satisfaction, dissatisfaction, and commitment are based on the workplace experience. Employees live complex lives, where personal and professional roles are intertwined.

Participants connected affective commitment to the role and behaviors exhibited by their supervisors and organizational leaders. Participants were aware of the roles their supervisors played in fostering development and in creating organizational culture. Supervisors were believed to play mediating roles in how a participant developed a sense of connection to their organization through the maintenance of relationship behaviors. Similar to Hunt and Morgan’s (1994) constituency-specific commitment, the commitment an employee demonstrates to their supervisor parallels a commitment to their organization. Supporting Caricati et al.’s (2014) findings, a leader’s role in creating a professional experience goes beyond the maintenance factors of one’s work responsibilities and encompasses the recognition of the employee’s personal experiences. Leaders who practice behaviors inclusive of their employees’ identities were deemed
instrumental for feeling a sense of values alignment and belonging to the organization. Participants who believed that their individual identities were valued and that they contributed to the organizational culture demonstrated a greater sense of affective commitment.

A leader’s role in creating a supportive, inclusive, and high-performing culture had impacts on the development of affective commitment and the formation of normative commitment. As participants articulated how their supervisors created desirable workplaces (e.g., inclusive of identities, increased autonomy, high-performing teams), feelings of owing a debt or loyalty to their leader manifested. The development of a normative commitment was most often tied to the level of investment a participant believed to exist in their experiences, from a leader or the organization.

Supporting Suki and Suki’s (2012) findings, perceived levels of investment ascribed by participants to their supervisors or organizations were seen as an extension of what employees could achieve on their own. Individuals who had connections to external organizations, such as professional organizations, recognized the two-fold investment: financial and professional. As higher education budgets have become increasingly strained, the financial support extended to employees to travel to, participate in, and maintain involvement with professional organizations was seen as a commitment and an investment. Discretionary spending is often cut or may be perceived to have a loose connection to the employee’s work on campus; however, ongoing acts of support and encouragement for involvement opportunities were perceived to be investments in the employee. Participants discussed this investment as a long-term commitment to growth
and professional development, beyond any immediate benefit an institution may reap by supporting this involvement. This finding aligns with the work of Shetty et al. (2016), who noted the value of personal and professional growth (i.e., self-authorship) that occurs through routine and supported involvement in external opportunities.

Advocacy for the employee was a behavior exhibited by leaders to lead to the development of normative commitment. Participants who felt their supervisors were in their corners ascribed high levels of trust ascribed to their leaders. Examples of advocacy included seeking increased compensation for the participant, supporting flexible work structures, and responding to employee needs based on having a strong command of the employee’s work responsibilities. Leader advocacy created a sense of loyalty; an obligation to remain with an organization because of actions demonstrated by a specific individual.

Unrelated to the work itself, a significant indicator of normative commitment emerged from personal relationships participants had outside of the workplace. An employee’s romantic and familial relationships were found to play important roles in employees considering leaving their organizations. Employees who had personal relationships in their immediate communities described difficulty in leaving their organizations. This difficulty was related to fears of disrupting lives of significant others by moving to take new jobs. Participants who maintained strong desires to be in geographic proximities to extended family members were more likely to remain with organizations for fear of disrupting this connection or look for opportunities to move closer to family. This normative commitment finding was supported by Eslami and
Gharakhani (2012), who noted the role employees’ personal relationships have in developing normative and continuance commitments. Leaders who recognize the role personal relationships play in employees’ lives may be able to anticipate the strength and effects of normative commitment. Additionally, understanding the strength and role of this type of normative commitment requires a leader to accept an inability to control for this factor, when an employee prioritizes a geographic proximity to family.

The continuance domain of commitment was expressed in connection to benefits. Although the continuance domain of commitment was the weakest of the three commitments exhibited by participants, it had a role in the overall development of commitment. Benefits, such as salary, university-provided housing, and tuition support are financial in nature. Participants expressed these benefits as having important value, particularly in a profession not known for high salaries. Two nonfinancial variables relevant to the development of a continuance commitment emerged from the data: (a) quality of life and (b) relationships with colleagues.

In line with Khanna’s (2015) findings, participants recognized being able to balance professional responsibilities with personal interests and commitments as quality-of-life variables, which no participant was eager to surrender in pursuit of a new job. Finding a similar level of balance between these two areas of an employee’s life was recognized as an uncertain guarantee in future employment experiences. Participants working in high-performing organizations identified their strong connections and relationships with their colleagues as contributing factors as to why they remained with their organizations. The unknown ability of replicating strong collegial relationships in a
new job was expressed as major hesitation in considering other employment opportunities. Existing literature on the collective work environment as a benefit suggests a loyalty to the work environment is a normative commitment, given the employee’s role in contributing to that experience (Kurtessis et al., 2017). Findings of this study suggest the overall experience is seen as a benefit and consequently not something the participant would be eager to give up.

Affective, normative, and continuance commitments were built by each student affairs professional in this study. The degree to which these commitments influenced participants to remain with their organizations varied based on individuals’ unique experiences. Affective and normative commitments were found to be the most established forms of organizational commitment. Student affairs professionals were committed to their organizations and the profession out a sense of enjoyment for the work and from a sense of obligation to something greater than themselves. While the fear of giving up something by leaving the organization was present in each participant’s experience, it was not a significant reason why participants remain with their organization.

**The Role of Motivator Variables**

Discussed in Chapter 2, satisfaction has been recognized as an antecedent to commitment (Anari, 2012; Aydogdu & Asikigil, 2011; Eslami & Gharakani, 2012; Zehir et al., 2012). Knowing midlevel student affairs professionals build varying levels of affective, normative, and continuance commitment, the second research question was designed to answer how the presence of motivator variables contributes to
satisfaction, as the variables relate to commitment to stay in the student affairs profession. As previously discussed, variables related to the work itself and participants’ perceived levels of investment by their organizations were contributing factors to feelings of satisfaction and affective and normative commitment (Hirschy et al., 2015). Variables that influence affective and normative commitment were synonymous with the presence of motivator variables.

Motivator variables, such as work with students, shaping policy, respect and inclusion of employee identities, and employee recognition, were synonymous with the work in which study participants engaged. Intrinsic feelings of enjoyment, based on the act of executing one’s job, had an effect of increasing levels of satisfaction, which aligns with Gillespie et al.’s (2016) findings. The presence of these variables had a direct effect on the establishment of affective commitment. Additionally, motivator variables were present in participants’ perceptions of how their organizations invested in their experiences.

When institutions encouraged external involvement, advocated for the employee, and created a dynamic workplace environment, participants expressed intrinsic feelings of satisfaction. Satisfaction was not solely responsible for the enjoyment of one’s work, but recognition of the investment in the employee contributed to establishment of a sense of obligation to the organization. Variables tangential to specific work responsibilities had a noticeable impact on an employee feeling satisfied. Satisfaction variables related to an employee’s growth have an impact on the establishment of normative commitment. Participants’ aJDI results support this assertion. In assessing participants’ feelings about
their actual work, five of seven participants indicated complete alignment with feelings of engagement and satisfaction with their work responsibilities, suggesting a direct connection to building commitment (Bailey et al., 2015).

Motivator variables were assessed through opportunities for promotion and views of the overall job experience in general. Although opportunities for promotion were found to be the least prevalent motivator variable, promotional opportunities may not be an accurate assessment of a student affairs reality. Herreid et al. (2015) discussed tenure and promotion processes reserved for university faculty, recognizing faculty work and scholastic contributions; a similar process of promotion does not exist in student affairs. As such, even if student affairs professionals offer valuable contributions, produce scholastic work, or demonstrate immense value to the institution, there are no systems for promoting staff to honor their work. Promotional opportunities for student affairs staff are most often dependent on position vacancies. As such, it was expected participants would report the presence of this motivator variable as low or absent.

The third motivator variable measured by the aJDI involved participants’ feelings about their jobs in general. Similar to the first measure of work tasks, five of seven participants demonstrated complete satisfaction in this variable, further supporting the idea of increased levels of satisfaction occurring with the presence of motivator variables. With five participants demonstrating strong, positive feelings of their work responsibilities and high levels of agreement of their job in general being positive, the theory of motivator variable presence is supported as a driving force of satisfaction. As participants had been in the field for a number of years, their views of work
responsibilities and overall job experiences as highly positive and favorable suggests a continued satisfaction with and commitment to student affairs work (Zeinabadi, 2010).

The Role of Hygiene Variables

Within Herzberg et al.’s (1959) two-factor theory, the absence of hygiene variables in the workplace contributes to increased feelings of employee dissatisfaction. Although findings of the current study show weak and contrasting alignment with Herzberg et al.’s theory, a few points of data support the original two-factor theory. Participants’ experiences of unfavorable alignment with organizational policies, poor relationships in the workplace, or circumstances where a supervisor’s behavior favored the organization over the employee were related to an absence of hygiene variables. The absence of these variables from participants’ work experiences had an impact on increased feelings of dissatisfaction.

Participants’ aJDI results revealed the hygiene variable of pay to be the least present variable in their professional experiences. While participants’ salaries were necessary to afford life expenses, participants demonstrated beliefs of pay adequacy or sufficiency to be absent in their experiences. All but one participant indicated the hygiene variable of pay to be lacking or absent in their experiences, contributing to feelings of dissatisfaction.

While findings of this study indicate a high presence of hygiene variables in individual work experiences, absence of this variable was the most notable reason for feelings of dissatisfaction. Following pay, relationships with colleagues was the second category to show a marginal connection to feelings of employee dissatisfaction.
Participants expressed supervision to be the most present hygiene variable measured, suggesting supportive, engaged, and advocacy-based behaviors of their supervisors were present more often than they were absent, thus not having an impact on dissatisfaction. While the presence of strong supervision is not considered to have an impact on satisfaction, findings from this study put that theoretical connection into question, given the emphasis and regular acknowledgment ascribed to the role of the supervisor in building participant affective commitment. Supporting Cho and Song’s (2017) findings, supervisory relationships and behaviors positively affected employee commitment.

Although many hygiene variables uncovered in this study were found to be more present than absent and more favorable than not, data were insufficient to draw conclusions of their role in building continuance commitment. No hygiene variable was seen as essential nor paramount to a participant’s experience; connection with these variables was not present enough to suggest employees remain in the student affairs profession because of their fear of giving them up. Instead, the high presence of hygiene variables uncovered in this study may support existing studies of increased satisfaction, given the presence of various hygiene variables, such as strong relationships with coworkers (Jungert et al., 2018; Volkwein & Parmley, 2000). The result of a high presence of hygiene variables was expected, given the selection criteria for participants. Participants who met the criteria for inclusion had already indicated levels of commitment and possibly satisfaction. As such, this study was unlikely to draw interest from highly dissatisfied individuals who were still committed to careers in student affairs.
Application of Findings and Conclusions to the Problem Statement

Findings of this study demonstrate midlevel student affairs professionals are committed to the profession. Specifically, individuals who remain in student affairs are more likely to demonstrate high levels of affective and normative commitment than they are continuance commitment. These three domains of commitment seem to be influenced by increased levels of satisfaction and are absent many variables related to dissatisfaction. Aligning with the findings of C. Mathieu et al. (2016) and Tull (2016), increased levels of satisfaction lead to increased levels of commitment, specifically affective and normative commitment. Hygiene variables did not have a significant impact on formulating a continuance commitment.

The problem driving this study was the high level of attrition of new professionals from the student affairs field. Lorden (1998) and Tull (2006) found 50-60% of new professionals leave the student affairs field within 5 years of entering it. This high rate of attrition has financial impacts (D. G. Allen et al., 2010) and negative effects on organizational continuity (Mullen et al., 2018). While factors relative to the departure of these professionals have been well documented, it has been unclear how some professionals navigate and overcome these realities and build commitment.

Findings of this study support the role of student affairs leaders in fostering an employee’s growth through opportunity and inclusion. Leaders who advocate for employees, create opportunities for continued growth, and create organizational cultures where employees are able to thrive and provide the conditions favorable to building commitment (Mharapara et al., 2019). Similarly, when an employee feels a sense of
belonging and investment in their experience, personally and professionally, they develop higher levels of affective and normative commitment.

Applying the behaviors relative to increasing satisfaction and controlling for the variables responsible for dissatisfaction is a prudent action in working with new professionals. Leaders who are aware of the behaviors associated with building affective and normative commitment can work toward creating experiences where new professionals experience joy in their professional responsibilities and develop a sense of loyalty to the organization. While controlling for financial benefits is rarely done at a local level, awareness of how these variables can impact the development of a continuance commitment can assist in addressing attrition rates.

**Application to Leadership**

The role of an organizational leader in developing employee commitment cannot be overstated. A leader’s actions, either director or indirect, have enormous impact on an employee’s experience. While the influence of specific leadership styles were not part of this study, participants reflected on leader behaviors synonymous with the development of their own organizational commitment. Although ethical leadership has been found to have a positive effect on the development of affective commitment (Benevene et al., 2018; Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015), it is misguided to suggest this is the preferred type of leadership style suitable for building commitment among student affairs professionals. Instead of focusing on the leadership archetype, student affairs leaders interested in improving satisfaction variables to enhance employee commitment are better served in
understanding specific behaviors that increase employee satisfaction, decrease employee dissatisfaction, and working to build affective and normative commitment domains.

Critical to increasing employee satisfaction and developing commitment, a leader must spend time fostering the relationship with their followers. Such relationships must go beyond the responsibilities of one’s job and must be inclusive of an employee’s needs and perspectives. Supervisors can demonstrate a more inclusive supervisory approach by creating opportunities for their employees and recognize the interconnection between an employee’s personal and professional lives. Findings of this study suggest leaders of student affairs organizations can control for nearly all motivator variables that can increase employee satisfaction. Motivator variables, such as aspects of the actual work done, providing recognition, advocating for the employee, and supporting ongoing development, are key to increasing and maintaining high levels of satisfaction and affective commitments (Wilson et al., 2016). Student affairs professionals derive satisfaction through leader-initiated behaviors.

Although some hygiene variables are beyond the scope of a leader’s control (e.g., increases to salary, tuition support, other financial benefits), organizational leaders have influence in the maintenance of relationships in the organization and helping their employees find balance between work responsibilities and their personal lives. Leaders concerned about employee commitment must approach their responsibilities from a holistic lens; awareness of the variables associated with increased levels of dissatisfaction should be proactively addressed and lessened.
Recommendations for Action

Given this study’s findings, several recommendations for action to retain new professionals and to maintain existing commitments of midlevel staff are proposed. These actions, when implemented with entry-level professionals, may reduce attrition. Engaging these recommendations with midlevel professionals may further commitment to the organization and the student affairs profession.

First, student affairs leaders must understand work responsibilities from employees’ perspectives. Specifically, leaders should determine which aspects of an employee’s work are deemed rewarding and satisfying and what aspects of the work experience are contributing to feelings of dissatisfaction. A supervisor’s knowledge of intricacies involved in an employee’s work demonstrates investment and knowledge and has a positive effect on job satisfaction (Mullen et al., 2018). Through the process of identifying motivator variables, leaders should find ways to enhance and promote engagement with those variables. Understanding the presence of controllable hygiene variables, such as poor relationships with colleagues or the existence of ambiguity or uncertainty in the workplace, can help a leader prioritize actionable items to address aspects of dissatisfaction.

A second recommendation for action is for organizational leaders to demonstrate investment in employees, both financially and personally. Financial investments may include supporting external work for, attendance at, or involvement with professional organizations. Nonfinancial investments include involving employees in the formulation of policies, programs, and services; advocating for employees’ collective and individual
needs; and understanding and supporting quality of life. Such recognition must include employees’ lives outside of the workplace and obligations requiring their attention. Along these lines, supervisors may need to shift their view of what supervision looks like beyond workplace and campus responsibilities. Supervisors must include support for professional involvement. Any views that professional competency and employee skills only develop as a result of the employee’s work on campus should be challenged. Professional development outside of the workplace is a critical component to employee satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Although increasing benefits may be seen as hard to implement in an era of constrained and reduced budgets, pursuing these opportunities can positively contribute to the development of satisfaction and commitment (Smerek & Peterson, 2007). Institutions with pervasive attrition across their student affairs divisions should identify how to increase employee benefits. Benefits may include increased salaries, campus perks (e.g., housing, meal plans, parking, recreation center membership) or supporting educational pursuits. While benefits were not found to be a predominant factor in why an employee stays with their organization, benefits were considered part of the overall experience. Partial support for a benefit, when full implementation is not possible, is seen as more impactful than no benefit support or improvement.

A fourth recommendation is for external (e.g., national, regional) student affairs organizations to move beyond a model of sharing professional practices to include opportunities for credentialing and skill building. Ongoing learning and professional development is a hallmark of these associations; however, offering recognized
certifications has the potential to supplement skills missing from employees’ campus responsibilities. Professional development should not solely be the burden of an employee’s organization. Involvement in external organizations supports employees’ sense of investment from their organization and establishes deep connections to the student affairs profession as a whole.

**Recommendations for Further Research**

Several areas for further research have emerged as a result of this study. Much of the research on student affairs professional attrition from the field has focused on variables associated with dissatisfaction, and researchers should explore to what degree, if any, satisfaction and commitment are present in departed professionals’ experiences, specifically understanding if hygiene variables were more prominently absent from former student affairs professionals’ experiences than were the presence of motivator variables. Further research should also explore how former student affairs professionals build commitment in any of the three domains. With an understanding of variables synonymous with satisfaction, dissatisfaction, and affective and normative commitment, absence of any variables may provide further alignment with findings of this study.

A second area for future research relates to criteria set for participation in this study. Participants demonstrated commitment by meeting requirements of time in the profession and number of positions held (Bender, 2009). To better understand the satisfaction and commitment exhibited by student affairs professionals who remain in the field, researchers should assess findings of this study in relationship to professionals outside of these established boundaries. Knowing if commitment is demonstrated
differently by professionals who have held more than three or fewer than two jobs or professionals who have been in the field for more than 10 years can aid in the understanding of commitment among student affairs professionals.

A third recommendation for future research is incorporating control for the absence of hygiene variables. While this study demonstrated a generally high presence of hygiene variables in participants’ experiences, studying the impact of satisfaction and commitment of midlevel professionals, where hygiene variables are known to be absent or low, could help future researchers understand the true depth of continuance commitment and whether it has a role in retaining student affairs professionals. Additional studies of hygiene variable presence could affirm Herzberg et al.’s (1959) two-factor theory or demonstrate greater alignment with more recent studies, suggesting a positive impact on satisfaction (Junger et al., 2018).

Additional related research should explore variables of satisfaction and commitment of student affairs professionals who have been in the field longer than 8 years. While this study only looked at the experiences of professionals who have been in professional positions between 5 and 8 years, researchers should seek to understand if the variables discovered in this study translate to professionals outside this delimitation. It is important to understand if variables responsible for employee commitment and satisfaction change the longer a professional remains employed in the field. In their study of professional identity and career commitment, Wilson et al. (2016) found senior student affairs professionals to have a greater level of connection to the local community, possibly explaining why they are committed to their organization. While this finding
supports the idea of professionals being more connected to their community as a result of having been there longer, it remains unknown if this variable outweighs the variables found in this study when assessing commitment.

Recognizing the inclusion of so many participants with underrepresented identities in this sample is not representative of the general student affairs population, future researchers should explore the impact of identity on satisfaction and commitment. Similar to Wilson et al.’s (2016) study of professional identity and career commitment of student affairs professionals, participant demographics emerged as a potential influencing factor relative to commitment; however, participant demographics were not fully explored as a central focus of the research study. Future researchers would benefit in knowing how an individual’s identity impacts feelings of satisfaction and commitment.

A final direction for future research should focus on organizational leaders given their role in shaping much of a student affairs professional’s experience. As a participant’s relationship with their supervisor was found to be a variable of building affective commitment in this study, further research should explore specific leadership styles of organization leaders in relationship to their employee’s satisfaction and commitment. Determining if certain leadership styles are more prone or detrimental to developing satisfied or committed employees has the potential to radically change the student affairs profession in the future.

**Concluding Statement**

Through this qualitative case study, seven experienced student affairs professionals provided insights and experiences related to their satisfaction and ways in
which they have committed to an organization and the profession. In recognition of high attrition levels of new professionals, this study was designed to uncover variables attributed to individual decisions to remain in the field. Existent studies of satisfaction and commitment support the argument that satisfaction serves as an antecedent to commitment: Satisfied individuals remain with their organization. Using Herzberg et al.’s (1959) two-factor theory of workplace satisfaction and Meyer and Allen’s (1991) TCM of commitment, data collected in this study support the idea of high levels of satisfaction contributing to high levels of demonstrated affective and normative commitment.

Through the data collection process, The Work Itself, Relationships, Perceived Level of Investment, and Benefits emerged as the four principal themes, showcasing how satisfaction was realized and the resulting contributions to building affective, normative, and continuance commitments. Results of this study show partial alignment with the two-factor theory: the presence of motivator variables increases satisfaction and the absence of hygiene variables decreases satisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1959). Given a high presence of hygiene variables for most participants, absence was not seen to play an large role in increased levels of dissatisfaction. Rather, the high presence of hygiene variables showed a greater relationship to the development of continuance commitment. The TCM of commitment proved to be an effective guide for assessing participants in this study. Student affairs professionals demonstrate higher levels of affective and normative commitment than they do continuance commitment.

Leaders who invest in experiences of their employees have employees who demonstrate higher levels of affective and normative commitment. The importance of the
supervisor-supervisee relationship is more than a check and balance on the employee’s work performance; it is inclusive of the intertwined nature of an employee’s professional and personal roles. Leaders recognizing and embracing the extent of their influence can engage behaviors supportive of inclusive organizations that value and respect personal and professional contributions of their members. Although not all variables of satisfaction and dissatisfaction are in a leader’s sphere of control, hygiene variables associated with continuance commitment represent the weakest reason professionals remain with their organizations and in the student affairs profession. Instead, when emphasis is placed on supporting motivator variables and ensuring the hygiene variables are not poor or lacking, desired forms of commitment to both the organization and the student affairs profession are built.
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ABRIDGED
JOB DESCRIPTIVE
INDEX

2009 Revision

including
Abridged Job in General Scale

The Job Descriptive Index
© Bowling Green State University 1976-2000

The Job in General Scale
© Bowling Green State University 1992-2009

Bowling Green State University

People on Your Present Job

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

Y for "Yes" if it describes the people with whom you work
N for "No" if it does not describe them
I for "I" if you cannot decide

Boring
Sick
Responsible
Smart
Lazy
Frustrating

Job in General

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

Y for "Yes" if it describes your job
N for "No" if it does not describe it
I for "I" if you cannot decide

Good
Undesirable
Better than most
Disagreeable
Makes me content
Exhausting
Enjoyable
Poor
Work on Present Job

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

X for “Yes” if it describes your work
O for “No” if it does not describe it
I for “?” if you cannot decide

____ Fascinating
____ Satisfying
____ Good
____ Exciting
____ Rewarding
____ Uninteresting

Pay

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

X for “Yes” if it describes your pay
O for “No” if it does not describe it
I for “?” if you cannot decide

____ Barely live on income
____ Bad
____ Well paid
____ Underpaid
____ Comfortable
____ Enough to live on

Opportunities for Promotion

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

X for “Yes” if it describes your opportunities for promotion
O for “No” if it does not describe them
I for “?” if you cannot decide

____ Good opportunities for promotion
____ Opportunities somewhat limited
____ Dead-end job
____ Good chance for promotion
____ Fairly good chance for promotion
____ Regular promotions

Supervision

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

X for “Yes” if it describes the supervision you get on the job
O for “No” if it does not describe it
I for “?” if you cannot decide

____ Pratice good work
____ Tacitful
____ Influential
____ Up to date
____ Annoying
____ Knows job well
This interview guide is a modified and adapted version of the Three-Component Model (TCM) of Employee Commitment

Name: __________________________ Date: ________________

Position in Student Affairs: ________________________________________________________

Location of Interview: _____________________________________________________________

Interview Start Time: ________________ Interview End Time: ________________

Affective Commitment Scale

1. Would you be happy to spend the rest of your career in student affairs? If yes, please explain why?
2. How do you feel when there is a problem within your organization?
3. During your professional career, what experiences have prompted you to think about leaving student affairs?
4. What experiences make you feel the most connected or “emotionally attached” to your organization? To student affairs?
5. How do you describe your professional relationships within your organization to people outside of the organization?
6. Describe your sense of belonging within your organization; within student affairs.

Continuance Commitment Scale

1. How much of a necessity is it for you to maintain your employment with this organization?
2. What factors would make it difficult for you to leave your position right now?
3. Describe how you would feel leaving this job without having another job lined up.
4. Considering your level of investment in this organization, what would it take for you to consider working somewhere else?
5. If another position could offer you greater benefits but would require you to sacrifice the things you enjoy most about your work, would you consider leaving? Why/not? If another position could offer you a more significant professional experience but would offer you fewer benefits (including pay), would you consider leaving? Why/not?
6. When you think about leaving your current position or the student affairs profession, what would you say are the most significant things you would be giving up?
Normative Commitment Scale

1. Describe what sense of obligation you feel to remain with your current organization.
2. How would you feel about leaving your current organization right now, even if it was to your advantage?
3. How guilty would you feel if you left your organization? Student affairs?
4. Do you believe your organization deserves your loyalty? Why/not?
5. Do you remain with your organization out of a sense of obligation to the people (student, coworkers, leadership) in it? Why/not?
6. Do you feel that you owe a great deal to the student affairs profession? Please explain.
INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Title of Study: How Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction Impact the Development of Commitment

Name and Title of Researcher(s):

Douglas G. Eck, Doctoral Candidate

Faculty Supervisor: T. Hampton Hopkins, EdD
Department: School of Applied Leadership
Telephone: (XXX) XXX-XXXX
City U E-mail: xxxxxxx@cityu.edu

Key Information About this Research Study

You are being invited to participate in a research study.
The researcher will explain this research study to you before you will be asked to participate in the study and before you sign this consent form.

- You do not have to participate in this research.
- It is your choice whether or not you want to participate in this research.
- Your participation is voluntary and you can decide not to participate or withdraw your participation at any time without penalty or negative consequences.
- You should talk to the researcher(s) about the study and ask them as many questions you need to help you make your decision.

What should I know about being a participant in this research study?

This form contains important information that will help you decide whether to join the study. Take the time to carefully review this information.

You are eligible to participate in this study because you have indicated that you have been employed in student affairs between five (5) and eight (8) years, AND have had at least two (2) but no more than three (3) jobs in student affairs, AND have only worked at public institutions of higher education within the United States.

You will be in this research study for approximately 1 month. The study is expected to end on or before April 8, 2020.
A minimum of six (6) individuals will participate in this study.

To make your decision, you must consider all the information below:

- The purpose of the research
- The procedures of the research. That is, what you will be asked to do and how much of your time will be required.
- The risks of participating in the research.
- The benefits of participating in the research and whether participation is worth the risk.

If you decide to join the study, you will be asked to sign this form before you can start study-related activities.

Why is this research being done?
Purpose of Study: The purpose of this study is to understand how satisfaction and dissatisfaction affect the development of commitment among student affairs professionals.

Research Participation.
You will be asked to participate in the following procedures:
Following the submission of this consent form, you will be sent a link to complete an Abridged Job Descriptive Index (aJDI) instrument. The aJDI contains five categories: Your job in general, people in your job, the work you do, pay, opportunities for promotion, and supervision. In each category you will indicate a “Y” if the associated descriptor applies, a “N” if the descriptor does not apply, or a “?” if you cannot decide. This form should not take longer than 15 minutes to complete. Completed forms will need to be uploaded to your dedicated Box.com link no less than 1 week prior to our scheduled interview.

During our scheduled Zoom.com interview, I will ask you a series of questions related to how you see yourself with regard to the work you do, how you view yourself with respect to your organization and student affairs, and any sense of obligation you may have to your organization and/or the student affairs profession. The interview may last up to an hour and a half (90 minutes). The interview will be recorded and transcribed. Following the transcription process, I will send you a copy and ask that you verify it for accuracy.

As part of the interview process, I will ask you to provide a physical example you may have relative to the topic of satisfaction or dissatisfaction. For example, an e-mail, a performance review, an award, a note, or any other “artifact” that helps drive home something that we may discuss. De-identified/redacted copies of said artifact should be uploaded to your dedicated Box.com link for further synthesis by the researcher.

I understand I am being asked to participate in this study in one or more of the following ways:

- √ Respond to in-person and/or telephone Interview questions; Approximate time: 90-minutes
- √ Answer written questionnaire(s); Approximate time: 15-minutes
- √ Participate in other data gathering activities, specifically, finding examples (artifacts) that represent, describe, or support aspects covered in the interview; Approximate time: 15-minutes.
As described above, one-on-one interviews will be recorded. These recordings will be transcribed and archived, stored on the researcher’s secure Box.com account and destroyed after 5 years.

You may refuse to answer any question or any item in verbal interviews, written questionnaires or surveys, and, you can stop or withdraw from any audio or visual recording at any time without any penalty or negative consequences.

**Are there any risks, stress or discomforts that I will experience as a result of being a participant in this study?**
While this study is anticipated to have no more than minimal risks, there may be some risk involved. This include strong feelings (positive or negative) or stress, depending on your current employment situation and future plans. To mitigate these risks, participants will be asked throughout the interview about their emotional state, and if a self-identified strong negative emotional state is shared, participants will be given resources relative to their institution’s Human Resources/Employee Assistance Program (where available) for further in-person, on-site assistance.

**Will being a participant in this study benefit me in any way?**
The probably indirect benefits of your participation in this study include a chance to reflect on the factors that influenced your commitment to the field of Student Affairs. Additionally, your insight and experiences has the potential to benefit student affairs leaders (e.g., organization directors, division heads, vice presidents, professional associations, etc.) in their efforts to retain new professionals at a higher rate.

You will not receive any payment for participation in this study.

**Confidentiality**
I understand that participation is confidential to the limits of applicable privacy laws. No one except the faculty researcher or student researcher, his/her supervisor and Program Coordinator (or Program Director) will be allowed to view any information or data collected whether by questionnaire, interview and/or other means.

If the student researcher’s cooperating classroom teacher will also have access to raw data, the following box will be initialed by the researcher.

Steps will be taken to protect your identity, however, information collected about you can never be 100% secure. Your name and any other identifying information that can directly identify you will be stored separately from data collected as part of the research study. The results of this study will be published as a thesis and potentially published in an academic book or journal, or presented at an academic conference. To protect your privacy no information that could directly identify you will be included.

All data (the questionnaires, audio/video tapes, typed records of the interview, interview notes, informed consent forms, computer discs, any backup of computer discs and any other storage devices) are kept locked and computer files will be encrypted and password protected by the researcher. The research data will be stored for five (5) years. At the end of that time all data of whatever nature will be permanently destroyed. The published results of the study will contain data from which no individual participant can be identified.
Signatures

I have carefully reviewed and understand this consent form. I understand the description of the research protocol and consent process provided to me by the researcher. My signature on this form indicates that I understand to my satisfaction the information provided to me about my participation in this research project. My signature also indicates that I have been apprised of the potential risks involved in my participation. Lastly, my signature indicates that I agree to participate as a research subject.

My consent to participate does not waive my legal rights nor release the researchers, sponsors, and/or City University of Seattle from their legal and professional responsibilities with respect to this research. I understand I am free to withdraw from this research study at any time. I further understand that I may ask for clarification or new information throughout my participation at any time during this research.

I have been advised that I may request a copy of the final research study report. Should I request a copy, I understand that I will be asked to pay the costs of photocopy and mailing.

Participant’s Name: ____________________________________________________________

Please Print

Participant’s Signature: ___________________________ Date: ______________________

Researcher’s Name: Douglas G. Eck

Please Print

Researcher’s Signature: ___________________________ Date: ______________________

If I have any questions about this research, I have been advised to contact the researcher and/or his/her supervisor, as listed on page one of this consent form.

Should I have any concerns about the way I have been treated or think that I have been harmed as a research participant, I may contact the following individual(s):

Joel L. Domingo, Ed.D., Leadership Program Director
(XXX) XXX-XXXX or at xxxxxxxx@cityu.edu

This study has been reviewed and has been approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of City University of Seattle. If you have questions about your rights as a participant in this study or to discuss other study-related concerns or complaints with someone who is not part of the research team, you may contact the IRB at:

City University of Seattle
521 Wall Street, Suite 100
Seattle, WA, 98121

IRB@cityu.edu
My name is Douglas Eck and I am a doctoral candidate at City University of Seattle. Thank you so much for expressing interest in participating in my doctoral dissertation study, investigating variables associated with the development of commitment among student affairs professionals. Specifically, I will be exploring how satisfaction and dissatisfaction contribute to the development of three types of commitment: affective, continuance, and normative.

I am planning on conducting my research through March 2020. As you have expressed interest in participating in this study and you have indicated you have worked in the student affairs profession for at least five (5) but no more than eight (8) years; have held at least two (2) but no more than three (3) positions; and have worked only at public institutions within the United States, you are eligible for inclusion in this study!

The research will involve:

- Completion of a brief, five (5) question inventory (approximate time commitment is 15 minutes)
- Participation in a video or telephone recorded interview (approximate time commitment is 90 minutes)
- Providing/discussing examples (artifacts) that represent, describe, or support aspects covered in the interview (approximate time commitment is 15 minutes)

Attached to this email is the City University Informed Consent Form for your review. To open this form, please use the Access Code/Password you created/submitted in your original interest form. If you do not recall what that is, please let me know and I can send that in a separate email. I ask that you review the form in its entirety and to reach out to me via phone or email if you have any questions or need more information before completing the form.

To move forward in this research process, I will need you to complete the attached Informed Consent Form. You can do this one of two ways:

1. **Digitally.** Typing your name on the signature line, sign with your Adobe digital signature, select the date, and save it to your computer. OR
2. **Manually.** Print off the form. Fill in your name, sign the form, date it and scan the form back on to your computer.
The completed form will need to be password protected (same access code you used to open it) and upload it to your dedicated “Box.com” folder -- **more information on that, below.**

**IMPORTANT - - - PLEASE, DO NOT SEND THIS COMPLETED FORM BACK BY EMAIL**

As documents for this study will need to be secured and encrypted, I am using Box.com to host documents securely. There is no cost to you to set up and use Box.com. An email should arrive in your inbox from me (shortly), announcing the sharing of a (Participant #) folder with you. Inside the email, please click on “GO TO FOLDER” and complete the sign-up information. Once completed, you will be taken to your private, dedicated folder where you can upload your password-protected Informed Consent Form.

This is a private folder between you and me. Nobody else can see the folder, nor access its contents. I will be using this folder to host various documents related to you throughout the study.

Uploading your completed Informed Consent Form will confirm your participation in this study!

I ask that you please upload your completed Informed Consent Form no later than **Tuesday, March 10, 2020**, or inform me if you are no longer able/interested in participating in this study. Once uploaded, you will be notified of the next steps in this research study (completing the aJDI and setting up an interview).

If you have any questions about participation or the research being conducted, you can contact me directly at xxxxx@cityuniversity.edu or via phone (XXX) XXX-XXXX.

I look forward to learning more about your experiences in student affairs for inclusion in my study!

Douglas Eck  
Doctoral Candidate  
School of Applied Leadership  
City University of Seattle